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Community Participation in Urban and Peri-Urban Forest Management in Sawla Town, Southwest Ethiopia

BY

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ABSTRACT

Urban forestry is a relatively new multidisciplinary approach in international forest research. It has been defined as the art, science, and technology of managing trees and forest resources in and

around urban community ecosystems for the physiological, sociological, economic and aesthetic benefits trees provides society. The urban and peri-urban forests in Sawla are overwhelmed by pressures inherent to the extraordinary form of urban development such as rapid increase of urban population, poverty, land tenure insecurity, weak of institutional responses, lack of proper environmental planning and implementation and management restrictions. This research explored the community participation in urban and peri-urban forest management (UPFM) in Sawla town of SNNPR State. The potential opportunities related to developing, managing and conserving the existing urban and peri-urban forest such as in farmland, homestead, streetsides, buildings, park lots, boulevards, hotels, central business centers, religious houses and graveyards, monument, cemeteries, riversides and streamlines, riparian areas, open spaces and periurban lands and public institutions. The study recommends the government should take immediate steps to establish the institutional setup, enhancement of community participation, pass laws and bylaws to facilitate the UPF programs.

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Keywords

Community Participation, Community Forest, Forestry, Urban Forest, Peri-urban Settings, Urban Management, Urbanization

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0. Introduction

This study explores the community participation in urban and peri-urban forest management in Sawla town, southwest Ethiopia. It assesses the willingness and non-willingness and existing practices of community in forest management. It also identifies local government action and institutional setting for forest management.

Chapter One begins with introduction the study and begins with background information of urban and peri-urban forest management and the important roles for social, economical, aesthetical and environmental health. It also describes the statement of problems, objectives, the significances, scopes, and limitation of the study and the background of the study area.

Chapter Three describes the methods used in the study research design, data sources, data manipulation, and the subsequent analysis. Chapter four present results and findings from the assessment urban and peri-urban environmental condition regarding deforestation and forest management and the role of community in forest management Chapter five presents the conclusion and recommendation for the findings in Chapter Four. Prior to dealing with these, it is important to take a look at the picture of introductory chapter of the study.

1.1 Background of the Study

Urbanization is both opportunity and threat for the environment, particularly in developing countries. This ongoing urbanization has brought about a wide range of challenges across the globe, and not only in terms of population growth. More land is needed for urban areas as well to cater for their needs in terms of inputs and outputs of resources and energy, with a detrimental effect on forests and other green areas (Konijnendijk, et al, 2002). Urban and peri-urban forestry and greening (UPFG) receives little attention on political agendas despite its importance for the social, economic, aesthetic and environmental benefits for society (Knuth, 2005).

In the context of Ethiopia, as in most developing countries, environmental problems are rampant (Ammanuel, 2001). These environmental problems in Ethiopia occur mainly due to anthropogenic impacts in the terms of misguided and unregulated modification of Ethiopian environment, in particularly the vegetation, soils and natural ecological processes. Past governmental and

institutional changes, insecurity of land tenure, resettlement programs, population pressure, agricultural and infrastructure developments have worsened these problems (Gatzweiler, 2007).

According to NUPI (2002), in Sawla urban and peri-urban area, deforestation is caused by anthropogenic impacts like agricultural land use, housing, overgrazing, firewood, quarry and excavation of construction material provisions. These in turn yielded physical hazards, infrastructure deterioration, land use planning and implementation problems, temperature change, ground water depletion.

To restrain these urban and peri-urban misuse and mismanagement of urban and peri-urban forest the traditional way of addressing the issues in a reactive, ad hoc, end-of-pipe top-down manner has become highly inefficient. It needs popular participation of local community and design of urban environmental management system and ensuring local community participation in managing urban and peri-urban forest. Therefore, genuine community participation associated with sustainable urban and peri-urban forest management is vital to correct the situation. However, willingness and unwillingness of community to participate should not be taken granted. The ecological, aesthetical, economic and social benefits of urban and peri-urban forests are strong forces, which prompt urban citizens to adopt urban and peri-urban forest stewardship attitudes of practices. Thus, community participation in urban and peri-urban forest stewardship is a matter of both individual and collective coordinated effort to sustain the system in the study.

1.2. Problem Statement

While community participation has been hailed as key vehicle in environmental management, it should not be taken for granted or given that the community will engage itself as and when required by technocrats. Participatory practices stems from pro-participatory attitude and responsible citizenship. Hence there is a need for gauge the willingness and/or unwillingness of Sawla residents to manage and protect the town's ecological infrastructure and services.

Moreover, it is not always the case that these willing to contribute to the town's environmental management efforts, will automatically participate in, for example, urban and peri-urban forest management. There is the need to understand possibilities of willing citizens who may not participate, so as to address the hindrances on participatory urban and peri-urban forest

management. It is after this that the local government may be able to meaningfully incorporate and engage the citizen, when the participatory field is known.

The local government has given less attention to public participation and consultation procedures incorporating in planning, implementation and evaluation of urban and peri-urban forest management and the elite view toward centralized management decision-making and the ignorance to periodic or regular overall participation. Besides, there is lack of institutional arrangements and clear legal provisions for urban and peri-urban forest management within their jurisdiction, and decision-making for the livelihood of the community and reclamation of the environment.

Therefore it is necessary to explore willingness or unwillingness and the existing practices of community participation in assessing, planning, implementing and evaluation of urban and peri-urban forest management issues in Sawla town. It is also time to assess the scale of the problems, the stakes of the community and the institutional setting of local government. Thus it is worth studying and appropriate recommendation is needed in approach and practice.

1.3. Objectives

1.3.1 General Objective

The general objective is to explore and identify the existing level of community awareness to participate in urban and periurban forest management in Sawla town and to recommend possible solution.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study are:

- To assess the willingness of community to participate in urban and peri-urban forest management and assess the reason for their non-willingness;
- To identify the existing practices of community in urban and peri-urban forest management
- To assess how the local government incorporate the community in planning, implementation and evaluation of urban and peri-urban forest management

1.3.3 Research Questions

The following research questions are designed to analyze the role of local community and the partner engagements of the local government in urban and peri-urban forest management in Sawla town:

- Does the community have willingness or non-willingness to participate in urban and peri-urban forest management?
- What are the existing practices of community in urban & periurban forest management?
- Does the local government incorporate community in assessing, planning, implementation, and evaluation of development activities urban and periurban forestry of the town?
- What strategic solutions are raised by the community to improve these problems and to enhance partnership with local government?

1.4. The Significance of the Study

The management of urban and peri-urban forest is becoming key environmental issues that need attention in Sawla town. It is time to assess the scale of the problems, the stakeholders and the local government. In this regard the study is useful for policy and the findings would show micro level issues related to forest management in urban centers and periurban land. This study also useful for policy makers, specifically benefits Sawla town administration and municipality to take action on environmental problems related to urban and peri-urban forest management and its effects on the environs

The research is also useful to scholars who are interested in the debate of participatory environmental management issues related to deforestation, urban and periurban forest management at micro levels and processes of participatory intervention to managing the negative aspects of urbanization in poor cities such as Sawla. This study also makes the community and the local government aware of the problems by filling the gap in knowledge during the research process; thus it can be assumed as an empowering activity in the town.

1.5 Scope of the Study

This research is concerned with the community participation in forest management. It specifically focuses on the analysis and exploration of community willingness or unwillingness to participate in urban and peri-urban forest management and identifies the current practices and preferential

forms of participation. It peruses and elucidates the local elite action on urban and peri-urban co-management activities. The study also is delimited to interview responses of the study population and institutions involving in community participation based on the gauges of factors affecting community willingness to participate in urban and peri-urban forest management.

The study is spatially confined to the administrative boundary of Sawla town that includes inner and peri-urban landscapes and so is the validity of the findings. The study covers the community of the three Kebeles from the town. The delimitation is discernment has been decided with the concern of time, budget, objective of the study, external influences from local administration and the researcher's personal observations working as expert.

1.6 Background of the Study Area

Establishment of the Town: Southern Nations Nationalities and Peoples Regional State Trade and Industry Bureau (SNNPR-TIB) report 2007 on resource assessment potential and project identification of Sawla Town revealed that Sawla town has been developed out of the Yella settlement. This settlement early began as mid of 1950's and Yella as a place of seasonal gathering and worship. As it was cited in the report, the most important factor for the development was the presence of airfield in 1932 to welcome Princess Roman Work and during Italian occupation, Italian use sporadically. Sawla was established in 1959 with total 200 hectares of the territory and the municipality is found in 1964 and as seat of Woreda and Awraja Administrative Council of Gofa (NUPI, 2002). According to SNNPR-TIB and NUPI the Master Plan of Sawla is the first in history of town during Haile Silassie first regime by Italian consultants under auspicious of Ministry of Interior of Ethiopia in 1967.

Location: The town is located in SNNPR State, Gamo Gofa zone. It is found in 518 km from Addis Ababa, 305km from Regional capital, Hawassa and 250 km from zonal capital, Arba Minch. Astronomically, it is located in 6⁰47'50" North Latitude and 36⁰ 52'50" East longitude directions and with the elevation of 1265m above sea level. It is low landed with annual rainfall of 1309.4 mm, average annual temperature of 23.5⁰c.

Land escape of the town is slant, near the mountain, which is highly exposed for flooding and dissected by crossing two streams Womba and Cholea which divided the town into four parts. The town is founded on the south-facing slope of mountain Woyla (2394m a. s. l) east-facing Dakisho-

Subo Mt (2220m a. s. l) and at south Duza Hill (1411m a. l. s). The physical environment elements of the town include physiological, surface water drainage and climatic condition (SNNPR-TIB, 2007; NUPI, 2002). (See Map of Study Town Location in Appendix V)

Population and Administrative Structure: According to SNNPR-TIB (2007), total population of the Sawla town was 27,265. The most dominant ethnic groups living in the town are Gofa, Gamo, Wolayta, Dawro, Amhara, Mesketo, Oromo and Gurage (NNUPI, 2002). The Town administration was re-established by Proc. No. 103/2004 as one of the twenty-one reform town and cities with full local government administrative structures. The town administratively divided into two Subcities and six Kebeles

SNNPR Constitution 1995 and Proc. No. 103/2004 the town has legal rights to exercise political, economical, social development power and function without prejudice of Federal and Regional Constitutions provisions and laws and can pass bylaws and implementation procedure, prepare socioeconomic plan, implement laws, regulations, policies, directives and programs enacted upper tiers of government. The town has power to preserve, protect, develop natural resources and mobilize the inhabitation for the development activities in its territory. It has the legislative body (municipal council), executive body (the Mayor and different department) and judiciary.

Socio-economic Situation: The town is the second commercial and administrative town in Gamo Gofa zone next to Arba Minch. People in the town engaged in commercial, government employee and agricultural activities. The usual commercial activity of the town is coffee marketing, cereal crops trading, textile exchange, shopping, hotel service activities and other petty and informal trading.

According to Town Administration Education Office, there are two kindergartens, three elementary schools, two junior secondary schools and one comprehensive and preparatory schools and two colleges (one government TEVT and privately owned). Sawla is served with one governmental owned district hospital, health center, five privately owned clinics and three pharmacies and drug vendors. The health coverage is 70% and family planning aptly 90%

Rural-Urban Linkage: There is high rate of rural-urban migration for the search of job and service (Davidson, 2008). The actual and potential role of small and medium sized towns strengthen rural-urban linkages is enmeshed in the dual character of the settlement type. As Davidson (2008), Sawla

is cluster as envisaged potential for development including being in the center of key agricultural area as its rural-urban linkage. However, Sawla is the biggest of all nine *Woreda* (*Melo, Basketo, Gelila, Geze Gofa, Oyda, Zala, Uba D/tsehay, Kucha and Daramalo*) towns around.

History of community participation in UPFM in Sawla: During 1960's the inner and periurban parts of Sawla town was covered by natural forest like acacia etbica, acacia tortolis, and acacia albida, balinaitus egyptica, cordia Africana, ficus vasta, ficus sur and other species of trees and vegetations. The parts of mountainous sides of the town were covered by broad-leafed natural forest which best adapts humid (NUPI, 2002) and the 243.0987 hectares total land (849.61 ha) of Sawla town is forest land (SNNP-TIB, 2007).

The traditional worshipping place considered as "Warship God's Forest" like *Koora* and *Tsoosa* is inherent to the local community for conservation and management of forests through ages. The local community in Gofa/Sawla has preserved *Koora* and *Tsoosa* forests in the name of God for centuries and is considered as central part of the socio-cultural philosophy of local people. Local communities believe that not only logging live trees from these areas but also removal of dead wood for fuel or charcoal is perceived as transgression and sin. However, traditional cemeteries (such as *Gora* and *Doopo*) and churchyard were very important part of forest conservation.

Local people communally carryout socio-economic activities, building houses including construction material provision, carryout agricultural activities and other activities in the form of *Debo, Wonfel, Jigi, Idir*, and other socio-cultural and self-help organizations. The practice of conservation and management of forest resources is intrinsically shaped by the traditional ecological knowledge, culture and religious beliefs of local community.

Environmental Management: Urban environmental problems are widespread in Sawla. These environmental problems affected physical infrastructure deterioration, reduction in peri-urban agriculture production, siltation in the flood plains; physical hazards of flooding, temperature change, ground water depletion, natural waterway degradation endangered the development of the proposed town land use planning and other socio-economic issues (NUPI, 2002). According to Sawla Town Finance and Economic Development office (2009), unemployment, poverty, urbanization and rapid growth of population, rapid rural-urban migration, homelessness,

HIV/AIDS, orphans, street children, elderly, prostitution, juvenile delinquency some socio-environmental factors.

1.7 Limitation of the Study

There is shortage of finance and time. Poor internet access and lack of reference materials on the study area, since it is a remote region, are likely limiting but the objective and boundary of the research subject is delimited to ease the effects of these pitfalls. The data were obtained from local communities of particular Kebeles in the town; hence the findings cannot be generalized to other groups in other forest locations. The respondents may be biased towards co-management activities of urban and peri-urban forest due to over dependence on forest resources. The emphasis of the micro-level study is likely essential for the observation community participation and the role of the government in participating the community in its endeavors.

1.8. Definition of Terms

Urban forestry is a relatively new multidisciplinary approach in international forest research. It has been defined as the art, science, and technology of managing trees and forest resources in and around urban community ecosystems for the physiological, sociological, economic and aesthetic benefits trees provides society (Clark, et al, 1997; Helms, 1998; Knuth, 2005; Konijnendijk, 2005; FAO, 2002; Konijnendijk, 2003 in Christopoulou, Polyzos and Minetos, 2007; Wolf & Kruger, 2008) through “planned, integrated and systematic approach” (Horst, 2006; Knuth, 2005; Clark, et al, 1997) that merges arboriculture, ornamental horticulture and forest management. It is gradually being accepted that urban forests are an integral part of the basic infrastructure, economically, ecologically, socially and aesthetics of urban cities and urbanizing areas (Erickson, 2004; Knuth, 2005).

Peri-urban refers to the urban fringe and the geographic edge of cities as a place. Peri-urban regions are those areas on the urban periphery into which cities expand or which cities influence (‘peri’: around, about or beyond) and areas that the population growth rate is highest, environmental degradation and controlled planning by municipal governments lowest, jurisdiction is unclear or duplicated in matters of planning, land tenure and land transfer; service infrastructure is inadequate; social infrastructure does not meet basic needs; a significant proportion of residents

are in lower income categories and unplanned settlements to cater to the growing rental market, the rental market alone catering to demand (Marshall, et al, 2009).

The typologies of peri-urban areas are: (1) *village periurban (VPU)*-non-proximate to the city either geographically or in travel time; (2) *diffuse periurban (DPU)*-geographically urban fringe; (3) *chain periurban (CPU)*-geographically urban fringe; (4) *in-place periurban (IPU)*-geographically close to the city; urban fringe; and (5) *absorbed periurban (APU)*-geographically within the city, having been absorbed (Jaquinta & Drescher, 2000)

Urban and peri-urban forest is an ecosystem that not only includes vegetation but also soil, water, animals, utilities, buildings, transportation systems and people, which often has complex interrelationships. Urban and peri-urban forest found within a built-up environment, although an urban and peri-urban forest comprises natural woodlands within the zone of influence of urbanization as well (Knuth, 2005).

A *community* refers to a group of people with diverse characteristics who are linked by social ties, share common perspectives and engage in joint actions in a geographical locations or settings (UNEP-IETC, 2004) or through coming together on the basis of a geographical area, a work place, even an idea or a theme/issue, or on the basis of gender/age (ESCAP, 1997).

Community participation means a readiness on the part of both local governments and the citizens to accept equal responsibilities and activities in managing their surroundings and commitment to bring to the table resources, skills and knowledge for this purpose (UNEP-IETC, 2004) and of the key ingredients of an empowered community (Reid,2000).

Peasant forestry refers to trees managed by individuals/peasants living in the farmland or village

Functional group forestry refers to trees or forests managed by functional groups such as cooperatives, schools, churches and mosques, women union, youth association, etc.

Fundamental group forestry refers to trees managed by fundamental groups such as natural villages, indigenous cultural communities like *Tsoosa*, *Koora* and *Gimiza* in Gofa ethnicity.

Village forestry refers to managed by an executive body of formal village or Kebele Administration.

Public forestry refers to managed by town administration in parts open spaces, roadsides, monuments, boulevards etc and regional and national governments.

Local Terms

Debo, Wonfel and Jigi is community association in which rural people come together to work or solve their common problems.

Idir is a community-based insurance scheme in which a household contributes a predetermined amount of money to be insulated from cash shortfalls in the event of death.

Gora refers to royal family cemeteries place of Gofa ethnicity covered dense forest

Doopo refers to cemeteries for common family place of Gofa ethnicity covered dense forest

Tsoosa, Koora and *Gimiza* refer traditional worshipping forest or God forest in Gofa/Sawla

Kebele is the lowest administrative unit in an urban centre and rural areas in Ethiopia.

Woreda is a sub-district (the lowest administrative unit).

Zone is the administration between region (kilil) and district (woreda) in Ethiopia.

1.9 Conclusion

Ridiculous annihilation of UPF in recent years at an unprecedented pace both in quality and quantity has resulted not only in serious economic and environmental degradation but also threatened the livelihood security of people. These all call for the significance of extensive community participation in urban and peri-urban forest management in the micro-level.

The study undertake with the objectives of local community willingness to participate urban and peri-urban forests management and factor affecting community willingness to participate, the existing situation of local community participative practices, evaluating the local government by incorporate local community potential on urban forest management in the study area. The significant of study is pertinent for local community to fill gap in UPFM, researchers and practitioners. The study limited in certain constrained and delimited in the study area. The next chapter deals with literature reviews on UPFM

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

In this chapter deals with the conceptual framework and historical base for urban and peri-urban forest and its participatory management approaches were determined. It deals with the conceptual framework and historical background of participatory urban and peri-urban forest management. It

describes concepts and forms of community participation in urban and peri-urban forest management and the co-management of urban and peri-urban forest management. It also deals with community willingness and unwillingness, and factors affecting community to participate in urban and peri-urban forest management contemporary and legal aspects in urban forest management of forest in Ethiopia.

2.1 Conceptual Framework of Participatory Urban and Peri-urban Forest

2.1.1 Participatory Urban and Peri-urban Forest Management

The concept of participation originally grew out of radical criticism of mainstream development projects in the 1960s and 1970s. Critics who asked why development projects often failed to meet their objectives came to the conclusion that a lack of participation was the reason (Isage, Theilade & Thomson, nd). For example, the origins of participatory forest management in West Africa can be traced to the late 1970s and early 1980s to three concerns such as Sahelian droughts of the 1970s, the energy crisis of the 1970s and the failings of forestry policies throughout the world (Westoby 1987; Peloso 1992) cited in (Amanor, 2003). People's participation in forestry and natural resources programmes is widely favored, generously pronounced and passionately embraced, particularly at international meetings, conferences and workshops. However, once people leave the conference hall, the actual nature of public participation varies a great deal since participatory approaches, a detailed plan were prepared by traditional technicians and decision-makers and beneficiaries participated by providing formal comments on the plan, but the power to accept or reject comments remained within the control of the professionals (Burch, & Grove, 1993).

According to EMPAFORM – Uganda (2006), participatory forest management refers to all forest management approaches where all stakeholders actively take part in forest management to attain sustainable forest management. It is the involvement of local communities and/or groups of and/or households in forest management, protection and utilization, community forestry covers wide range of activities, which link local people with forests, trees as well as products and benefits from the forests (Giang, 2004). However, the pioneering urban forestry partnerships have evolved, involving committed citizens and community-based organizations, adopting vulnerable groups as partners and clients, incorporating public-private partnerships and/or city partnerships, and fostering decentralized responsibilities (Konijnendijk, Sadio, Randrup, and Schipperijn, 2003).

Aspects affecting urban forest management failure or success are determined by gender sensitivity, property rights, community organization, community perception and technological changes (Burch & Grove, 1993).

2.1.2 Concept Community Participation

According to Reed (2008) ,stakeholder participation have progressed through a series of recognizable phases: from awareness raising in the late 1960s (the anti-modernization critique of the transfer of technology paradigm); incorporating local perspectives in data collection and planning in the 1970s; the development of techniques that recognized local knowledge and “put the last first” such as farming systems research and rapid and participatory rural appraisal in the 1980s; increasing use of participation as a norm in the sustainable development agenda of the 1990s; the subsequent critique of participation and disillusionment over its limitations and failings; and finally to a growing “post-participation” consensus over best practice, learning from the mistakes and successes of this long history (Reed, 2008, pp.5). Many researchers have their own phraseology for defining community participation the debate on development, especially with poverty concerns, began to place the question of participation as a critical variable in the mid and late 1970s in forms such as people participation, women participation, community participation, etc. Lammerink *et al.*, (2003) cited in (Osti, 2004).

Participation is a form of cooperation between agencies and the community, has been widely recognized as an efficient tool for analyzing and addressing social problems in a sustainable manner (Osti, 2004).According to Arnstein (1969) cited in Meng (2008), "participation of the governed in their government is the cornerstone of democracy." Wilcox (1994), Effective participation identifies 10 key ideas which can aid thinking about community involvement are level of participation, initiation and process, control over position, power and purpose role of the practitioner stakeholders and community, partnership, peoples' commitment, ownership of ideas and confidence and capacity. According to Reid (2000), community participation is not an idle principle since participating community share the characteristics of open to involvement by all groups; involving many people, open to all ideas, inclusion and diverse and open mind and open process. The idea here was the community instead of being ignored, hidden, or changed human differences are celebrated as gifts. Without community participation, there are obviously no

partnerships, no developments, and no program (Aref, 2009). Therefore, community participation is a vital component for political, social and economic development and ecological management.

UNEP-IETC (2004) environmental problems are typically complex, uncertain, and multi-scale and affect multiple actors and agencies. Community participation benefits is increasingly being sought and embedded into environmental decision-making processes, from local to international scales (Richards *et al.*, 2004) including improvement of project design and effectiveness; enhancement of the impact and sustainability; improvement efficiency; building local capacities and capabilities; involvement in environmental decision-making; empower people the opportunity such as water supply, sanitation, forests, roads, schools and health clinics to devise and initiate strategies to improve their situation (Moningka, 2000; Narayan (2002) in Cohen, Rocchigiani & Garrett (2008)). "I participate, you participate, he participates, we participate, you participate...they profit", French student poster in English (Arnstein, 1969) since participation without redistribution of power is an empty and frustrating process for the powerless. Citizen participation is citizen power.

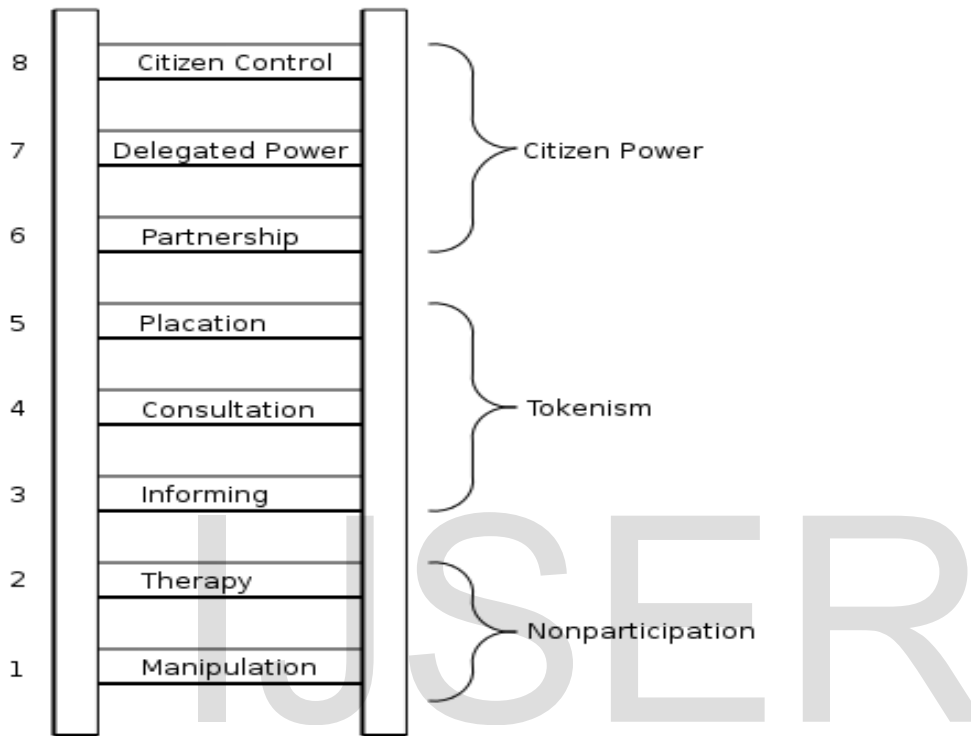
2.1.3 Typologies of Community Participation

Community participation as a spectrum from passive to active involvement to full local participation, where there is active community participation and venture ownership (Ashley & Roe, (1998) in (Aref, 2009). Meanwhile, some scholar provided a typology of participation and Arnstein constructed a eight ladder of citizen participation.

According to Arnstein, (1969), manipulation and therapy rungs describe levels of "non-participation" that have been contrived by some to substitute for genuine participation. Their real objective is not to enable people to participate in planning or conducting programs, but to enable powerholders to "educate" or "cure" the participants. Informing and consultation rungs progress to levels of "tokenism" that allow the have-nots to hear and to have a voice. When participation is restricted to these levels, there is no follow-through, no "muscle," hence no assurance of changing the status quo. Placation is simply a higher level tokenism because the ground rules allow have-nots to advice, but retain for the power-holders the continued right to decide (Arnstein, 1969).When citizens enter into a partnership that enables them to negotiate and engage in trade-offs with traditional power holders. At the topmost rungs, delegated power and citizen Control,

have-not citizens obtain the majority of decision-making seats, or full managerial power (Arnstein, 1969; Reed, 2008; Aref, 2009).

Figure 2.1: Arnstein’s eight rungs on the ladder of citizen participation



Source: Adopted from Arnstein (1969)

The next grouping encompasses three degrees of tokenism, which allow the participants to be heard, to have a voice. At the level of symbolic participation, citizens gain some degree of influence though it is still a form of tokenism as traditional power-holders continue to have the right to decide (Arnstein, 1969; Aref, 2009).

Table 2.1 Aref’s Typology of Participation

| Levels | Types | Characteristics |
|-----------------------|-------------|---|
| Genuine Participation | Empowerment | Local people may directly contact explorer tourists and develop tourism by themselves (Dewar, 1999; Choguill, 1996; Pretty, 1995). Local people have control over all development without any external force or influence (Choguill, 1996; Dewar, 1999). |

| | | |
|------------------------|--------------|---|
| Symbolic Participation | Partnership | There are some degrees of local influence in tourism development process (Arnstein, 1969). |
| | Interaction | People have greater involvement in this level. The rights of local people are recognized and accepted in practice at local level (Pretty, 1995). |
| | Consultation | People are consulted in several ways, e.g. involved in community’s meeting or even public hearings. Developers may accept some contribution from the locals that benefits their project (Arnstein, 1969). |
| Non-Participation | Informing | People are told about tourism development program, which have been decided already, in the community. The developers run the projects without any listening to local people’s opinions (Arnstein, 1969). |
| | Manipulation | Tourism development is generally developed by some powerful individuals, or government, without any discussion with the people (Arnstein, 1969). |

Source: Adapted from Leksakundilok (2006) cited in Aref, F. 2009, pp.70)

According to Reed (2008) the typology based on different degrees of participation on a continuum, nature, theoretical basis and the objective for which participation is used. Reed clearly noted the typology based on different degrees of participation on a continuum. Numerous alternative terms suggested for different rungs of the ladder (Biggs, 1989; Pretty *et al.*, 1995; Farrington, 1998; Goetz and Gaventa, 2001; Lawrence, 2006) cited in (Reed, 2008). Arnstein’s (1969) cited in Reed (2008) “ladder of participation” described a continuum of increasing stakeholder involvement, from passive dissemination of information (which he called “manipulation”), to active engagement (“citizen control”).

Typology based on nature of participation according to the direction of communication flows. Rowe and Frewer (2000) cited in Reed (2208), focus on the nature rather than the degree of engagement, identifying different types of public engagement by the direction that communication flows between parties.

Table 2.2 Reed’s Typologies of participation

| Basis of typology | Example |
|-------------------|---------|
|-------------------|---------|

| | |
|---|---|
| Typology based on different degrees of participation on a continuum. Numerous alternative terms suggested for different rungs of the ladder (e.g. Biggs, 1989; Pretty <i>et al.</i> , 1995; Farrington, 1998; Goetz and Gaventa, 2001; Lawrence, 2006). | Arnstein’s (1969) ladder of participation. Sometimes presented as a wheel of participation (Davidson, 1998). |
| Typology based on nature of participation according to the direction of communication flows | Rowe and Frewer (2000) |
| Typology based on theoretical basis, essentially distinguishing between normative and/or pragmatic participation | Thomas, 1993; Beierle, 2002 |
| Typology based on the objectives for which participation is used. | Okali <i>et al.</i> 1994; Michener 1998; Warner 1997; Lynam, 2007; Tippett, 2007 |

Source: Adapted from (Reed, Mark S., 2009, pp 6)

Reed (2008) typologies on the basis of the objectives for which participation is used, for example distinguished between “research-driven” versus development-driven” participation; similarly, contrasted “planner-cantered” participation that is focused on outcomes with “people-centred” participation, which builds capacity and empowers stakeholders to define and meet their own needs (Okali *et al.* (1994); Michener (1998) cited in Reed, 2008))

According to Wilcox (1994), the five-rung ladder of participation which relates to the stance an organization promoting participation may take such as information, consultation, deciding together- encouraging additional options and ideas and providing opportunities for joint decision-making, acting together and supporting independent community interest (Wilcox, 1994, pp. 3).

Figure 2.2: Wilcox’s Level participation



Source: Adapted from David Wilcox, (1994, pp.3)

According to Arnstein (1969), the typology does not include an analysis of the most significant roadblocks to achieving genuine levels of participation. These roadblocks lie on both powerholders' and have-nots' sides of the simplistic fence. On the powerholders' side, they include racism, paternalism, and resistance to power redistribution and have-nots' side, they include inadequacies of the poor community's political socioeconomic infrastructure and knowledge-base, plus difficulties of organizing a representative and accountable citizens group in the face of futility, alienation, and distrust (Arnstein, 1969).

2.3 Community Willingness to Participate in UPFM

Extensive public participation includes soliciting opinions from the community; raising public awareness; and actively involving citizens from every corner of the community in meetings, activities, and local actions (ICLEI, 1996). According to Agenda 21 ... promote sustainable consumption through education, public-awareness programs and the positive advertising of products and services that encourage sustainability. Learning from local, civic, community, business and industrial organizations, and acquire the information need for formulating the best strategies. Policy makers' willingness to involve themselves depends on political interests, on prior experience with public participation processes, and on their trust in the facilitators of the public participation process.

While public participation is particularly great in urban forest since true participation lead to more effective conservation of forest resources (Isage, Theilade & Thomson, 2002). Urban community diverse perceptions, preferences and demands for urban forest social, economic, ecological and aesthetics need to be considered, indicating the necessity for socially inclusive planning processes. Public willingness to participate depends on factors such as existing controversy; emotions attached to the forest, and perceived dangers (Osti, 2004). The community socially, economically, and environmentally benefit from forest, the willingness of community forest management groups to invest both cash and labour to improve their community forests show that the Community Forestry Program is supporting overall national forestry policy, and will not be a threat to the specific policy directive of maintaining 60% forest cover in Bhutan According to (Temphel & Beukeboom, 2006).

Tempel & Beukeboom (2006), since the community is interested, the process of establishing community forests should start immediately. Besides, income-generating activities from community forestry, the establishment of a community forest management group (CFMG) with by-laws enable the community to better organize themselves for the overall benefit of the community. According to Wangdi and Tshering (2006) cited in Tempel & Beukeboom (2006), the forests of nearby villages that are not involved in community forestry are typically overexploited.

Local government policy, regulations and even departmental activities regarding trees and green space are often premised on urban planning and design traditions that regard urban nature as the “parsley around the pig.” There are notable exceptions, but few local governments have developed citywide, comprehensive frameworks for planning and managing urban green to achieve specific purposes or functions (Wolf, 2004)

2.2.1 Factors Affecting Community Participation

There are political, social, economic and cultural factors that influence participatory forest management. The existing knowledge and skills, employment, education and literacy, cultural beliefs and practices, gender and technological change determining factors in the participation of neighborhood ability and willingness participate in forest management (Mogaka, et al, 2001; Plummer, 2000). According to Plummer (2000), the technical know-how, political awareness, management skills may affect the stage and forms of community and individual participation. The employment status also significance influence the amount time the poor are willing or able to spend participating time in the projects.

According to Mogaka, *et al* (2001), non-exclusive planning process, personal attitudes, perverse policy regimes in landholding, non-intersectoral integration for forest development, and gender insensitivity negatively and/or positively affected Ethiopian forest development and management. These views clearly noted that centralized planning process, expropriation of private lands for the establishment of protected areas and unclear benefit sharing mechanism distrust local community and unwilling to participate in forest management. The influencing factor that affects Indian forest management are composition of stakeholder in forest protection, homogeneity of interest,

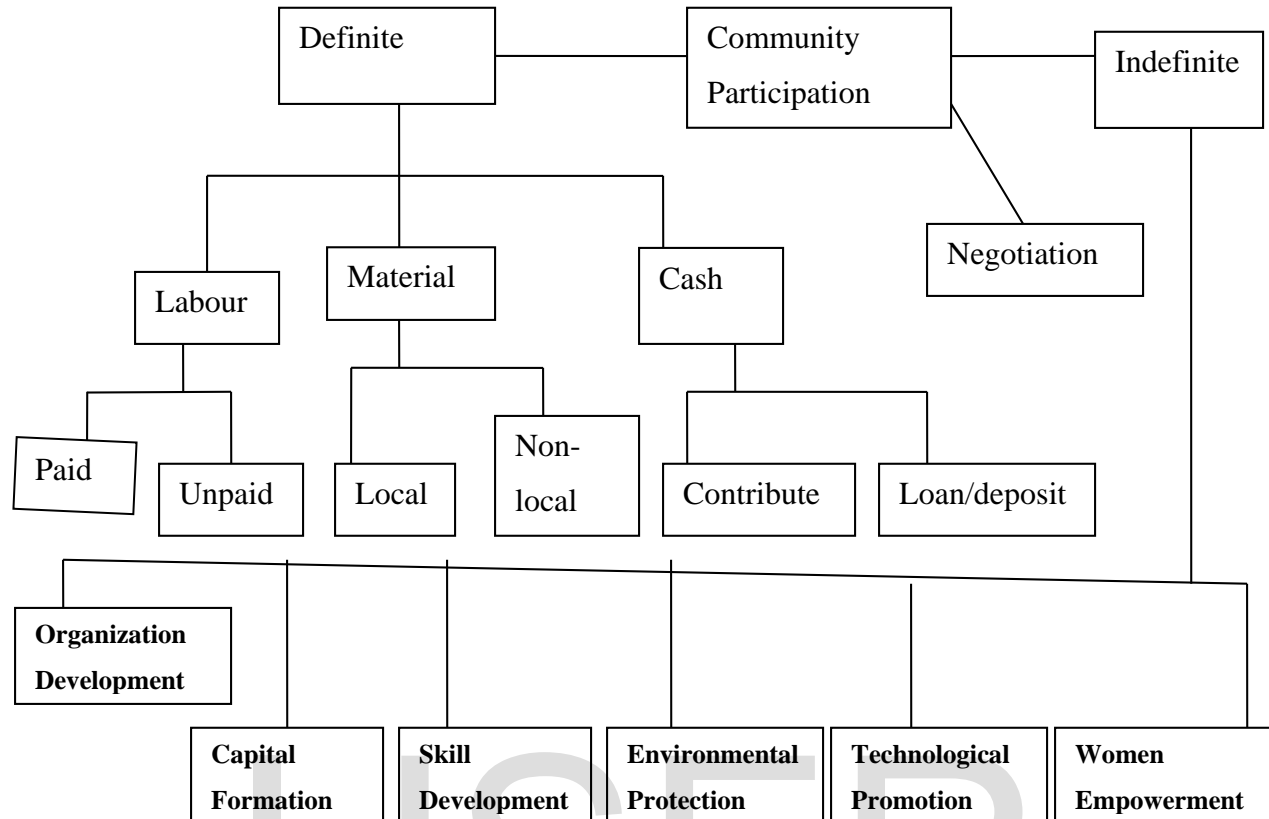
compatibility of rules, conflict of interest, internal influence, freedom in exercise local wisdom and institutional arrangement (Sinha, 2006)

Ethiopian peasantry is too exhausted from repeated drought, inappropriate land and resource tenure, centralized planning and strife to embark on a transition to sustainable use with their local community (Mogaka, *et al.*, 2001). However, urban neighborhoods are characterized by heterogeneity of culture, religion and cultural group is an important dimension for participation strategy. In many situations, development-planning, ignoring traditional, formal and informal system of community decision-making and imposed approach conflicting with existing practices (Plummer, 2000). Local communities have long managed and used forests for their own livelihood in Thailand. Since the central government took over forest management from the people, however, local communities have suffered and forest management has failed for lack of community participation (Makarabhirom, 2002)

2.4 Forms of Community Participation in UPFM

The several forms of community participation in many literatures, each of them somehow are contradictory in standpoint. Community participation in the forms of labor/local-material contribution, capital share, and input to the planning and designing process, as well as in decision-making exercises, has been a stage which has wisely evolved during the last few decades (Osti (2004). However, “forms of participation” depend on “types of forest management” and can vary from place to place (Inoue, No Date).

Figure 2.3: Forms of community participation



Sources: Adapted from Rabindra Osti 2004

According to Inoue (1999), the forms participation to implement local level program are individual, temporary group, fixed group, wage labour, and community participation. Some other unknown writer pointed out the forms of participation may encompasses consultation, financial contribution by community, self-help projects by group beneficiaries, self-help project involving the whole community, community specialized workers, mass action, collective commitment to behavioural change, indigenous development, autonomous community projects and approaches to self-sufficiency (<http://www.bvsde.paho.org/>).

2.5 Local Authority Incorporation Community Participation in UPFM

In forest conservation, participation is often associated with community forestry, which refers to forest management or co-management by people living close to the forest. Legal, political and cultural settings for community forestry vary widely, and the term covers a wide range of experiences and practices (Isager, Theilade & Thomson, 2002). Without community participation, there are obviously no partnerships, no developments, and no program (Meng, 2008). As John

McKnight 1992 cited in Meng (2008) pulling ownership of services out of communities has weakened the communities and undermined the people. Meng pointed out excluding community residents from any program will risk a failure.

Although local participation is important in forest conservation, there are circumstances in which it is absolutely necessary, for example high population pressures and resource use conflicts, communal ownership and in smaller and more vulnerable protected areas (Roche & Dourojeanni (1984) in Meng, 2008) since conserving forest resources requires that stakeholders trust one another and commit themselves to sustainable forest use. Legal or administrative procedures may have to be reformed or power redistributed to build relations of trust. Mutual trust often takes time to develop, especially if stakeholders have no previous experience of sharing decision-making or management responsibilities (Meng, 2008). According to WFP (2006) in Cohen, Rocchigiani & Garrett (2008), WFP has sought to engage all stakeholders in “the planning, design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all its activities.” So, the local and central government agencies need to have the capacity and *commitment* to respond to the community.

The 1995 Ethiopian Constitution, Regional Constitutions, EPE (1997), Forest Proclamation 542/2007 recognize the importance of community participation in ecological planning and bring about behavioral change through education and public awareness of environmental health benefits and problems are demand-driven community led programs of improved urban environments to bring about a sound partnership between the government and communities in the development of an integrated environmental management system, and to foster the supplementary role of NGOs.

2.5.1 Current Practices Community Participation in UPFM in Ethiopia

Ethiopia is facing rapid deforestation and degradation of land resources. Extensive forest clearing for agricultural use, over-grazing, and exploitation of existing forests for fuel wood, and construction poles and increased population has reduced the forest area of the country from 40 percent over a century ago to less than 3 percent today (Bishaw,2008). According Mersha (2007), high population growth, lack of forest and land-use policies, low agricultural productivity, poverty, prohibitive state intervention and inadequate ownership rights and political instability are the major factors that contributes to forest problems in Ethiopia.

The 1995 Ethiopian Constitution and Regional Constitutions give full effect on democratic principles of state policy empower and encourage active participation of all citizens at all levels in their own governance. The Councils which are the seat of Local Governments are mainly at the Zone, District or Woreda, City or Municipal Divisions, and Kebele in addition to administrative units. In the settings Council are the highest political authority within its area of jurisdiction and which have legislative and executive powers to be exercised in accordance with this Constitution (1995 Constitution) and respective State Constitutions. The laws and procedures ensure planning and budgeting, implementation and coordination power and responsibilities to conserve, manage and protect forest and forest products for local government.

2.5.2 Legal Framework on UPFM in Ethiopia

There is no legal document that deals specifically with urban and peri-urban forestry in Ethiopia. Instruments relevant to UPFG in Ethiopia were the results of the Ethiopian Constitution, Environment Policy and Forest Development, Conservation and Utilization Proclamation.

In FDRE Constitution of 1995, Ethiopian people have environmental rights and objectives to live in health environment and should have right to participate in conservation and environmental management processes. According to Ethiopian Environmental Policy (EPE, 1997), renewable natural resources, i.e. land, water, forests and trees as well as other forms of biodiversity, which meet the basic needs for food, water, clothing and shelter, have now deteriorated to a low level of productivity. The EPE ensure that afforestation with exotic species be restricted to backyard woodlots, to peri-urban plantations and to plantations for specific industrial and other projects; The policies ensures plan and create green spaces within urban areas, including community forests and woodlands for fuel wood as well as for recreational amenity, providing habitats for plants and animals and ameliorating urban micro climates.

Ethiopian Forest Development, Conservation and Utilization Proclamation No.542/2007 Article 4(1) state that concerning to promotion of forest development, the private individuals, associations, governmental and non-governmental organization and business organization who wants to develop forest right to obtain rural land with accordance to regional land administration and utilization laws. Article 4(3) of this Proclamation ensures that local community participation for management plan of forest that has not been designate as protected or productive.

According to Proclamation No.542/2007 Article 9 conservation, development and administration of state forest, there should be provision of necessary budget, manpower and materials and have their own administration and management compatible with forest development. The forest development, conservation and utilization plans allow local community participation in development, conservation and sharing benefits. In Article 13 ensures the process of harvesting forest, transportation and legal demeanor of forest products being processed and stored. Article 20 of the Proclamation concluded that without pursuant of the forest land permission, cutting trees or removes, processes or uses cause penalties i.e. causes of damages to a forest by setting fire or in any other manner shall be punishable with no less than 10 years and not exceeding 15 years rigorous imprisonment

2.5.3 Participatory Urban and Peri-urban Forest Management in Sawla

During 1960's the inner and periurban parts of Sawla town was covered by natural forest like acacia etbica, acacia tortolis, and acacia albida, balinaitus egyptica, cordia Africana, ficus vasta, ficus sur and other species of trees and vegetations. The parts of mountainous sides of the town were covered by broad-leafed natural forest which best adapts humid (NUPI, 2002) and the 243.0987 hectares total land (849.61 ha) of Sawla town is forest land (SNNP-TIB, 2007). But these forests were highly depleted because of rapid growth of urbanization and population, lack awareness and participatory planning, farming the Catchment area, logging and clearing trees for household fuel & charcoal, overgrazing, excavation and quarry (NUPI, 2002)

2.6 Conclusions

In general, urban and peri-urban forestry is relatively new discipline in forest management and defined as the planned, integrated and systematic approach to management of urban and peri-urban forests for their contribution to the economic, environmental, sociological and psychological well-being of urban society. Senseless deforestation by anthropogenic caused a great deal of threats to mankind. Without discriminating local communities' indigenous knowledge, local establishment, and practices are integral aspects for community willingness to participate in urban and peri-urban forest management. Government policy, legal and institutional capacity are other crucial component for community participation in forest management. The next chapter deals with the methodology employed of the study.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the methods that employed and the procedures to decide sample design, data collection methods/instruments and methods of data analysis. Thus the methodology basically entailed time/cost schedule, the field research process, alternatives of measurement of observations in the field. It also highlights the indicators that will be measured from the observations. In accomplishing this, it presents the data sources, the data collection methods, the data analysis and units on data collection and analysis in the accessible population in the town.

3.1 Research Design

According to Kothari (1995), research design is needed because it facilitates the smooth sailing of the various research operations, thereby making research as efficient as possible yielding maximum information with minimal expenditure of effort, time, and money. This research employed description and mixed design: it used both qualitative and quantitative designs.

This study used combining non-probabilistic and probabilistic sampling method for selecting representative samples from the population. The parts of communities (from households, local authorities, religious leaders, CBOs, municipal councilors, farmers, youth, women, schools and colleges) were randomly selected from two sub-cities based on sampling frame.

3.2 Types of Data Sources

In this research basically, primary source is used for first hand information to achieve the objectives of the research. The primary data sources obtained through distributing 200 structured questionnaires for informant, observations of the practices and existing situations, carrying out focal group discussions with 60 in five sessions and with 26 community groups interviewed. These data are required to provide data on urban and peri-urban forest situation, demography, economic activity of the town and its environment, and the characteristics of environmental problems in the area.

The secondary sources of data from collected from government sources such as policy documents, legislations, reports, etc to support the reliability of the information obtained from local

community. These data include public written documents, numerical data and published and unpublished documents on the thematic areas. Since time series survey data or document may not exist in the themes under discussion, qualitative methods such as community history, focus group discussions, and observations become important and employed as adjunct tools to identify issues of time range comparisons.

3.3 Sampling Techniques

The selection of the sample households is carried out based on the administrative structure of the town. According to CSA (1994), total population of the town is 27,265. The sample size is relatively large to population. Therefore, the study population is all permanent residents of Sawla town. The administration units (two sub-cities Bola Sawla and Yocha Sawla) will be stratified and the list of residents in the selected administrative units were become sample frames.

Table 3.1: Household by Sample Kebeles,

| Subcity | Kebeles | Population | Households | Quota Sample |
|-------------|--------------|------------|------------|--------------|
| Bola Sawla | Kusti | 7800 | 1300 | 91* |
| | Mehal Ketema | 5000 | 833 | 58* |
| Yocha Sawla | Botre | 4396 | 733 | 51* |
| Total | | 17196 | 2866 | 200 |

Source: Sawla Town Administration 2009 * 7% Households randomly selected

This study covered the two Subcities and 3 Kebele that consist of 2866 households. From these Kebeles’ three Kebeles’ were randomly selected (Mehal-Ketema, Kusti and Botre). According to Cochran’s (1977) cited in Bartlett, Kotrlík, & Higgins (2001), sample size formula for categorical data are:

$$\text{Sample Size} = \frac{Z^2 (p) (q)}{(d)^2} = \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.5)(0.5)}{(0.05)^2} = 384$$

Where Z = value for selected alpha level of 0.025 in each tail = 1.96

Where (p) (q) = estimate of variance = 0.25. (maximum possible proportion (0.5) * 1-maximum possible proportion (0.5) produces maximum possible sample size).

Where d = acceptable margin of error for proportion being estimated = 0.05

The correction formula should be used to calculate the final sample size is:

$$n_1 = \frac{n_0}{(1+n_0/N)} = \frac{384}{(1+384/2866)} = 338$$

Where n_1 = the required Sample Size sample $\geq 5\%$ of population

n_0 = required return sample size by Cochran' formula

N = Population (Household of sampled Kebeles)

Eventhough the required sample size was 338, the researcher employed non-probabilistic method for convenience and 200 households (from each Kebele 7% households) were randomly selected from three Kebeles to scan relevant data. Oversampling may increasing count on of sample size by 40-50% lost mails and uncooperative subjects, add cost to survey, and also increase variance because of sample actually obtained is smaller than target sample (Cochran, 1977; Fink, 1995 & Salkind, 1997) cited in (Bartlett, Kotrlik and Higgins, 2001). By randomization, 200 sample households were selected out of the total 2866 households in the three Kebeles. The sample believed to be the representative of all households and prior to formal questionnaire was developed; a draft questionnaire was tested through a pilot survey.

3.4 Instrumentation/ Data Collection Methods

The data collection involved methodological triangulation and data triangulation, or the combination of methods and data sources. Thus, the primary data were gathered through the use of the following methods:

Questionnaires Distribution: The questions prepared for households of 168 Sawla town dwellers and 32 questions were distributed for Sawla Town Administration Officials Demba Gofa District Agriculture Office experts. Thus, open-ended and close end-ended questionnaires distributed to households of the community. The questionnaire was piloted in the villages of the research area and some questionnaires revised based on socioeconomic constrained. The survey was conducted in February to March 2010. Data was collected by the author and assisted enumerators. The data collection has taken 1.5 months.

Focus group Discussions: Three community focus groups discussion organized from the three Kebeles 26 dwellers including Kebele Administrators, Demba Gofa Agricultural and Rural

Development 6 experts, 10 officials and experts from town administration 8 from colleges and schools teachers and students and 10 Idir leaders. Each focus group consisted of 12 persons. The composition of the village focus group members included all male and female households, experts, elders, church representatives, CBOs, women and youth. However, semi-structured interview technique is adopted to collect qualitative data from focus groups.

Depth interview of key informants: The relevant and concerned 26 key informants were additional primary sources data. These include Colleges, Schools, Religious Leaders, Kebele and Town Administration officials, Agricultural and Planning experts, CBOs, commercial persons, closure areas forest guards and Kebele Administration. Adequate interviews were made to extract information for the study.

3.5 Data Analysis/ Treatment of Data

The collected data was computerized in a database program such as Microsoft Excel. Data analysis includes examining, categorizing, tabulating, comparing or recombining both qualitative and quantitative evidences to address the research questions The triangulation of data sources, analytic tools and stratification of sample population .This research used simple statistical percentage, interview scripts, narratives, graphs, charts and tables for analysis and presentation of descriptive data from primary and secondary sources.

3.6 Conclusion

The study used both primary and secondary data for interpreting the analysis. Random sampling technique was used in selection of households. A total of 200 households from town were selected and focal group discussion, interview, question survey and observation was done. The statistical techniques of averages, percentage and pictorial were used in analyzing the data. The next chapter deals with the results and findings of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents analyses and discusses the major findings based on the field survey. In this study attempt was made to examine the extent of community willingness and unwillingness to participate in urban and peri-urban forest management. It attempts to present a response to the research questions by the relevant indicators of community participation in urban and peri-urban forest management activities. It demonstrates the community willingness to participate in UPFM and the actual practices in the real world. It also presents the analyses of the findings in terms of tables, chart, figures and percentages. The analyses and discussion will help to reach conclusions and provide strategic recommendations. In this discussion the term community refers to the community of the three villages of the study area.

4.1 Response Rate

Sawla Town Administration consists of two Subcities and six Kebeles with total population of 27,265 and 7, 080. In order to give due representation to study population on to households living inside urbanite and outside town (peri-urban or urban fringes) from the three Kebele were randomly selected for the study. 200 structured questionnaires was prepared and administered to community respondents. Of these 95% were filled and returned back with valuable responses for the research.

Interview was employed to validate the information. There 26 interviewees were interviewed from Town Administration four Officials, 3 Kebele Administrator, 3 experts Demba Gofa Agricultural and Rural Development Office, 3 CBOs leader, 3 Finance and Economic Development Planning experts, 3 Religious leaders, 3 School Director two College Deans, two youth associations representatives. These selected interviewees provided their views and feelings on community participation in urban and peri-urban forest management and local peoples' participation in managing urban and peri-urban forests (See Table 4.1: Number of Interviewees from different Community Groups in Appendix, IV).

On the other hand, focal group discussion carried out in six sessions. The planned number of participants was 60; of these 92% local community members participated and presented the ideas, feelings, perceptions, and views on urban and peri-urban forest management by local people and

local government's. The local peoples' perceptions and feelings from interview and focal group discussions were incorporate in the analysis (See Table 4.2: Number of Focal Group Discussion Participants from different Community Groups in Appendix, IV).

4.2 Respondent's Socio-economic Characteristics

The demographic characteristics of the total respondents, (172) 90.5% were male and 9.5% female. The respondent response revealed that family size the respondents range from 3 to 12, that is, the family size below 3, 4-7, 8-11, 12- 15 are 9.5%, 58.4%, 24.7% and 7.4% respectively. This shows that the demographic conditions of household in the town from the assessment are extended family size. (See Table 4.3: Family size of respondent in Appendix IV).

The occupational status of the sample households, 32.6% the respondents were government employees, 2.6% students, 5.8% merchants, 29.5% farmers, 15.8% daily laborers and 13.7% other localities (See Figure 4.4 Occupational Status of the Respondents in Appendix IV)

It is assumed that the internal socio-economic characteristics of community households such as level of income, education and demographic influences community participation. The respondents' respond that 6.8%, 36.3%, 25.3%, 17.9% and 13.7%, of the respondents monthly income is Below 1000, 1001-1500, 1501-2000, 2001-2500 and above 2500 respectively regardless of gender, education and age. This result shows that most of the local community are low income groups. In the focus group discussion, the entire focus groups agree that the current income of the town community is low due to ill urbanization, population pressure, unemployment, and lack of good governance, recurrent drought and like. (See Table 4.5: The Income Level of Respondents Appendix IX.)

4.2.1. Knowledge, Perception and Consumption Pattern of Forest in Local Community

The significant number (74.3%) of households has lived more than ten years in Sawla town. The assessment on cover of forest, of 166 (87.4%) informants response revealed that Sawla urban and peri-urban area was covered by natural and indigenous densely forest cover and grassland. The river bank of Womba and Cholea streamline were also covered by natural trees. At the time the inner and periurban parts of Sawla town was covered by natural forest like acacia etbica, acacia tortolis, and acacia albida, balinaitus egyptica, cordia Africana, ficus vasta, ficus sur and other species of trees and vegetations. As informants revealed this forested area were the home of

different wild animals like lion, leopard, duikers, cheetah, hyena, pig, baboon, ape, monkey, crocodile, snakes, insects, a multitude of small carnivores and rodents and like. (See Table 4.6 shows respondents knowledge, perception, consumption pattern and practices on forest in study area in Appendix IV)

The perceptions of forest dependent communities about the logging of forest is understood to use many purposes, especially for fire wood, charcoal, fences, housing, agricultural activities, excavation, commercialization and household utilities. From Table 4.6, survey on forest consumption, 65.8% of respondents frequently consume forest 17.4% felt that not used forest and the remaining 16.8% sometimes consume forest products. As assessment of knowledge about loggers, 74.3% perceived local community participate in logging trees from in and outside town. On the other hand, 35.8% of respondents replied that they directly and frequently participate in tree logging, 20% sometime participated and 58.2% of respondent said that they did not directly participate in logging of trees.

However, the perception and practices of forest dependent community to prevent tree logging was surveyed. The result implied that the significant number (65.6%) of respondents unable to stop and 34.4% felt that they will bring to an end of the practices of these inappropriate action. This shows that local community were unwilling to stop logging trees because of interdependence of community on forest and forest products for their livelihoods.

4.3 Community Willingness participation in UPFM

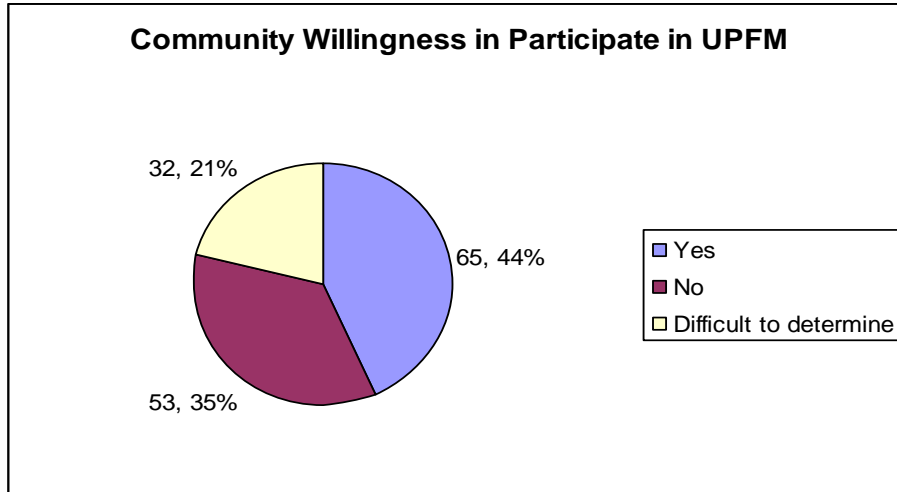
4.3.1 Community Interest in UPFM

Urban and peri-urban forest and greening provides many environmental and social services that contribute to the quality of life in the town. However, people may show willingness or unwillingness to participate in urban and peri-urban forest management because of level of awareness on urban forest benefits; benefits sharing mechanisms; institutional setting like legislations and bylaws and offices for coordinate people potential and decision-making.

When we see the willingness to participate in urban and peri-urban forest management (UPFM), 43.3% of respondents revealed that people willingly participate in UPFM, 35.3% were unwilling to participate since they have low level of awareness, undersigned benefit sharing, free grazing,

community dependence on forest. Some few respondents (29.3%) are no suggestion on willingness and unwillingness to participate. (Figure 4.1)

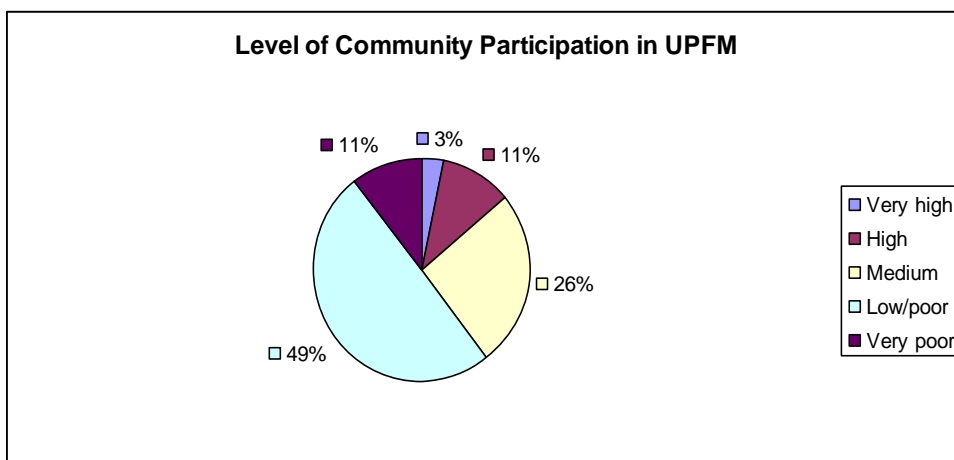
Figure 4.1 Local Community Perception on Willingness to participate in UPFM



Source: Field Survey Data 2010

The majority of respondents (49.7%) responded that the willingness of participation was poor and 10.6% very poor. On the other hand, 24.8% respondents replied their willingness to participation was dependable and (3.3%) felt very high and 10.6% respondents viewed the community willingness to UPFM were high. This result shows that the significant number of respondent felt that people participation urban and peri-urban forest management in Sawla is low

Figure 4.2: Level of community Willingness to participate in UPFM



Source: Field Survey 2010

4.3.2 Conditions that Foster Community Participation in UPFM

The experiences show that community participation in urban and peri-urban development, conservation and management in Sawla is disregarded. Participation is basically a political process concerned with redistribution of power in a society. This usually involves transfer of administrative and financial powers from ‘haves’ to “haves not” and sharing of technical and legal information with the local people whose participation is sought, Singh (1992 cited in Terefe, 2003). People participate in planting and carry out afforestation in farmlands, streetsides, around buildings, stadium, park lots, boulevard and recreation areas, hotels and central business areas, religious houses, monuments and cemeteries, river banks, streamlines and open spaces, periurban lands and public institutions frequent in Sawla.

Table 4.7 shows that the local people’s practices in urban and peri-urban forest management in Sawla town. The community participates in afforestation and reforestation in farmlands, streetsides, around buildings, park lots, boulevard, hotels and central business areas, religious houses, monuments and cemeteries, river banks, streamlines, riparian areas, open spaces, periurban lands and public institutions.

The majority of respondents (91.6%) indicated that local community plant trees in their farmlands, and a few respondents felt that people do not plant trees. Likewise, 83.7% respondents replied the communities participate in reforestation, afforestation and management activities in streetsides and buildings, 16.3 % felt people are reluctant to participate since people disappointed with benefit sharing mechanisms and usufructs. In the term of parklots and boulevard 74.2% felt people plant and cultivate trees and 25.8% did not. Of 78.4% respondents replied that plant trees in the central business areas and hotels to beautify the area and add value for ecological balance.

However, people are accustomed to plant trees and conservation in the religious places, monuments and cemeteries. The majority of respondents (95.8%) viewed that people carryout plantation and conservation and a few of respondent did not. (See Table 4.7: Respondents on Practices Community in UPFM in Appendix IV). The respondents (88.4%) felt that the community carryout plantation of trees species in public institution such as government offices, colleges, schools and community oriental houses, stadiums. Also 58.4% the respondents said that the community plants trees in river banks, streamlines, and riparian areas since it favors wildlife habitat, provides water access, accommodation hiking, picnicking and other day uses (Grey, 1996).

Eventhough, 41.6% people did not plant trees in the areas. Likewise, 58.8% of respondent said that local people unwilling to forestation activities in peri-urban lands and open spaces because of land tenure insecurity, unidentified benefit sharing system, lack of awareness, free grazing and agricultural land use and only 43.2% of respondent said local community carry out afforestation and reforestations.

Table 4.8 shows that local people often plant trees around religious houses. The indigenous species of trees were found around in these areas. The majority of respondent (34.4%) viewed people plant trees and conserve forest around religious houses, 39% respondent replied conservation and reforestation around religious houses were high, 20.8% moderate level and 5.8% it is low.

Table 4.8: Experience of community participation in UPFM

| N o. | Indicators/ | Level of Participation | | | | | | | | | |
|------|----------------------------|------------------------|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|
| | | V H | % | H | % | D | % | L | % | VL | % |
| 1 | Farmland, homestead | 14 | 9.1 | 38 | 24.7 | 41 | 26.6 | 39 | 25.3 | 22 | 14.3 |
| 2 | Streetsides, buildings | 9 | 6.0 | 28 | 18.7 | 55 | 36.7 | 39 | 26.0 | 19 | 12.7 |
| 3 | Parklots, boulevard | 14 | 9.3 | 34 | 22.5 | 47 | 31.1 | 38 | 25.2 | 18 | 11.9 |
| 4 | Hotels, central business | 9 | 5.9 | 19 | 12.4 | 49 | 32.0 | 53 | 34.6 | 23 | 15.1 |
| 5 | Religious houses | 53 | 34.4 | 60 | 39.0 | 32 | 20.8 | 9 | 5.8 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 | Monument, Cemeteries | 17 | 11.7 | 24 | 16.6 | 29 | 20.0 | 43 | 29.7 | 32 | 22.0 |
| 7 | Riversides, riparian areas | 11 | 7.2 | 16 | 10.4 | 43 | 28.1 | 48 | 31.4 | 35 | 22.9 |
| 8 | Periurban lands | 10 | 6.8 | 10 | 6.8 | 47 | 32.0 | 40 | 27.2 | 40 | 27.2 |
| 9 | Public institutions | 17 | 11.7 | 42 | 29.0 | 53 | 36.6 | 22 | 15.2 | 11 | 7.5 |

Source: Field Survey 2010

4.3.3 Factors Affecting Community Willingness to Participate UPFM

People’s willingness to participate in urban and peri-urban forest is widely favored, generously manifested and passionately griped in local level environmental protection, forest conservation and development. But there are awful lessons and practices in community participation co-management activities of forest in Sawla town that emanated from different political, social, economical and demographic point of views from past regimes.

The other most prominent problems and challenge that made local people unwilling participate were poverty and communal livelihood, urbanization & population pressure, lack of public

awareness on urban and peri-urban forest management, lack of clear urban and peri-urban forest management laws and regulation, lack of skilled manpower, lack of institutional arrangements and responsible organ to management UPF, land tenure insecurity entitlement and non- participatory planning management process by local government.

Poverty and Communal Livelihoods: People in the town entirely depend on forest products. The significant number of respondents (65.8%) felt that because of poverty dependence on forest products is very high. From respondents 23.7% viewed high, 7.9% dependable, and 3.5% low and very low. The focal group discussion and interview revealed that local people in the area are logging trees to carry out agricultural activities, quarry and excavation, logging trees for housing, logging trees for commercial activities in form of charcoal and firewood, free grazing.

People in the area also greatly depend on biofuel and logging trees to sell firewood and charcoal. According to Melaku (2008), the traditional energy consumption in the form of bio fuel account for 82 % in Sawla town and Demba Gofa and electricity 18%. From survey made, out of 119 respondents 64.7% respondents were frequent users of wood fuel for household energy, 19% sometimes and few respondents (16.3%) did not use wood for household energy. The majority of respondents (74.3%) replied that people in their neighborhoods were cutting trees from peri-urban area for their livelihoods. (See Table 4.9: Response on Cause of Community Unwillingness to Participate in LG UPFM in Appendix VI)

Local community awareness: Out of 133 respondents 61.9% felt that lack of awareness of community very high and 14.2% high level, 11.5% dependable, 9.7% low and 2.7% is very low. This shows that local people face resulting in unwillingness to participate in forest management.

Legal and institutional framework: There is no clear legal document for urban and peri-urban forestry and greening (Knuth, 2005). It is true that Ethiopia has forest development, conservation and utilization policy, strategy and law that is, Proclamation No.542/2007, but it says nothing about urban forestry. According the survey, from 124 respondents 58% viewed that lack of clear laws and regulations urban and peri-urban forest management and poor enforcement civil laws was a very big challenge. People felt that if there were no clear participatory regulation and procedure people are reluctant to participate.

Land tenure insecurity: The lack of secure land tenure or forest user rights is a key factor affecting local people's committed them to participatory forest conservation. People without such rights face an uncertain future and are less willing to invest their labour in conserving forests. It has been accustomed that past three regimes forced eviction and expropriate continued as entire focal group discussion and interview revealed. During Haile Silassie's regime, land was largely owned by landlords and petty capitalists and the poor were discriminated from landholding. At the time forest resources conservation, management, development and benefits sharing from forest products depend on whim and will of landlords and the rich people. Local people did not graze their cattle, carry out agricultural activities, use forest product for their livelihood from forest. No benefit sharing system from forest at all as focal group discussion and other informants revealed.

In 1980's Derg introduced afforestation and reforestation program with aid of FAO and WFP and local leaders evicted and expropriated the local people's farms and forestlands to plant trees and enclosure area as focal group and interviewee argued. Respondents (36.4%) felt that land tenure insecurity was a very big problem to local people unwilling to participate in forest management. Other respondents 22.6% viewed it was high, 17.3% moderate, 15.5% poor and 8.2% respondents felt very low level that affecting public participation in urban and peri-urban forest management.

The town is expanding in all directions and the private land expropriation still continues for new settlement in peri-urban land areas. These population and urban pressure cause very big problem local people to willingly participate in urban forest management. Table 4.3 shows that 64% respondents felt very high, 23.7% high, 5.3% and 7% low level that eroded local people's willingness to participate co-management activities.

4.4 Forms Local Community Participation UPFM Programs

Local community expresses their preferences to manage UPFM in different institutional arrangements regardless of socio-economic conditions and religious and cultural beliefs in the past. The focal group discussion preferred the form of participation should be on the basis of types of forest such as peasant forestry, functional group forestry, fundamental group forestry (such as *Tsoosa, Gimiza and Koora*) village forestry and public forestry. The local community was asked to give their preferences on forms of community participate in management of UPF. Table 4.10 shows the majority of respondents (87.9%) felt that private management system is very effective

to secure ownership. On the other hand, 66.8% of respondents preferred CBO/Religious organizations management and they asserted that it would help the local communities maintain stake over forest resources. Of total respondents (84.2%) preferred cooperatives. The others responded (81.1%) insisted that Town/Kebele Administration nearer to local community should coordinate and integrate UPFM activities. However, 70% of respondents preferred joint management (private-public). The result of analysis reveals that local communities preferred more private management of other institutional management regimes because of government’s complete failure in checking encroachment on forestlands and preventing extensive deforestation in the study area.

Table 4.10: Respondents Preferences on Forms of Participation in UPFM

| No. | Type of Participation | Respondents | | | |
|-----|-----------------------------|-------------|------|---------------|------|
| | | Willingness | | Unwillingness | |
| | | Fr. | % | Fr. | % |
| 1 | Private | 167 | 87.9 | 23 | 12.1 |
| 2 | CBO/Religious organizations | 127 | 66.8 | 63 | 33.2 |
| 3 | Cooperatives | 160 | 84.2 | 30 | 17.8 |
| 4 | Town/Kebele Administration | 154 | 81.1 | 54 | 18.9 |
| 6 | Joint Management | 133 | 70 | 57 | 30 |

Source: Field Survey, 2010

Local communities were encouraged to rejuvenate urban and peri-urban forest through involvement of management activities such as afforestation and reforestation programs, prevention of forest fire, ensure smuggling activities on forest products, stop overgrazing, prevent illegal settlement in peri-urban lands and encroachment and like and about 86.3 of respondents expressed willingness to participate in such activities. Another 57.9% of respondents were willing to pay for UPF conservation, management and development works. However, about 82.6% of the respondents were interested in extending their labour without consideration of ages, education, income level and ethnicity. The local communities’ willingness/unwillingness to participate in UPFM by involvement of forest conservation activities, paying money and extending their labour is presented in Table 4.11

Table 4.11 Respondents Willingness Preferences to Contribute UPFM

| No. | Methods | Respondents | |
|-----|---------|-------------|---------------|
| | | Willingness | Unwillingness |

| | | Fr. | % | Fr. | % |
|---|------------------------------------|-----|------|-----|------|
| 1 | Involve in Conservation Activities | 164 | 86.3 | 26 | 13.7 |
| 2 | Pay Money | 110 | 57.9 | 80 | 42.1 |
| 3 | Extending Labour | 157 | 82.6 | 33 | 17.4 |

Source: Field Survey 2010

4.5 Institutionalization and Community Participation in UPFM

4.5.1 Community Participation in UPF Co-management Activities

The assessment has been done on local community willingness in local government (LG) urban and peri-urban planning and co-management activities. The assessments based on local community knowledge on the presence of local government urban and peri-urban forestry plan. The results implied that 45.5% were sure the presence of a plan, 23.6% responded that there is not yet a plan and 30.9% said they don't know whether there is plan or not. These results imply the significant number of respondent (54.5%) does not know the presence of the local government urban and peri-urban forest management plan.

Table 4.12: Respondent perception Community participation in LG UPFMP

| No. | Does local government has UPF plan | No. of Respondent (n=165) | |
|-----|------------------------------------|---------------------------|------------|
| | | Frequency | Percentage |
| | Yes | 75 | 45.5% |
| | No | 39 | 23.6% |
| | I don't know | 51 | 30.9% |

Source: Field Survey, 2010

When we see the knowledge of local community participation in forest management the majority (45.3%) of the respondents revealed people participate in urban and peri-urban forest management and 27.9% said there is disregard for participation and 26.8% sometimes participation in apparent (see table). However, the assessment has been made on 28 Sawla town officials on the presence of forest management plan, 57.2% respondents assure the presence of the plan, 35.7% responded their no plan and 7.1% didn't know the plan and planning processes. In terms of community-based planning, 50% of the respondent felt the planning processes do not involve the community, 27.8% respondent confirmed the process is participatory and 22.2% didn't know whether the planning process is participatory or not.

Table 4.13: Respondents Knowledge on community participation in UPFM

| No. | Community participation in urban & periurban forest management | No. of Respondent (n=190) | |
|-----|--|---------------------------|------------|
| | | Frequency | Percentage |
| | Yes | 86 | 45.3% |
| | No | 53 | 27.9% |
| | Sometimes | 51 | 26.8% |

Source: Field Survey, 2010

Local community participation in problem identification, planning, implementation and co-management phases in urban and peri-urban forest management was assessed. The result suggested that people participate in all phases. However, the significant number of respondents revealed the level community participation in forest management is very poor or low.

Table 4.14 Respondents Perception towards level of Community participation UPFM

| No | Indicators/ | Level of Participation in co-management activities | | | | | | | | | |
|----|---------------------------|--|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|
| | | VH | % | H | % | D | % | L | % | VL | % |
| 1 | Problem Identification | 19 | 11.9 | 27 | 17 | 34 | 22.4 | 59 | 37.1 | 20 | 12.6 |
| 2 | Planning and designing | 11 | 7.4 | 24 | 16.1 | 29 | 19.5 | 63 | 42.3 | 22 | 14.7 |
| 3 | Implementation | 6 | 3.9 | 4 | 2.6 | 42 | 27.3 | 74 | 48 | 28 | 18.2 |
| 4 | Monitoring and evaluation | 7 | 4.6 | 9 | 5.8 | 28 | 18.3 | 74 | 48.4 | 35 | 22.9 |
| 5 | Corrective action | 10 | 6.6 | 8 | 5.3 | 28 | 18.6 | 60 | 39.7 | 45 | 29.8 |

Note: VH= Very High, H=high, D=Dependable, L=Low/ Poor, VL= Very low

Source: Field Survey, 2010

Community Participation in Problem Identification Phases: When we see Table 4.14 the respondents considered their participation in problem identification is low/poor. From the respondents, in terms of problem identification and analysis 37.1% of the respondents replied that the participation is at low level, 22.4% reasonable, 17% high, 12.6%, very poor 11.9% very high. According to Patwary (2007), in stakeholder participation in co-management activities in protected areas in Chianti Wildlife Sanctuary in Bangladesh, 60% of respondents are passive and 40% active in participation and majority of respondent felt that they knew their community, it was local elites and outsiders analyze the problems.

Participation in Planning Phases: In terms of planning phases the level of participation of community, 42.3% respondents revealed that the community participation in urban and peri-urban forest management planning is at low or poor level, 19.5% dependable, 16.1% high, 14.7% very

low and 7.4% very high level. The result shows that the majority of respondent (61.8%) feel that community participation in the planning process is low level. They feel that planning processes are done by the Town Administration or Municipal Manager, and a few people are involved in Municipal council meeting and approve the plans.

Participation in Implementation Phases: The result shows that of 48% of respondents felt local community participation in implementation of the plans were at low or poor, 27.3% moderate, 18.2% very poor, 2.6% high and 3.9% very high of participation. The majority of local community participation (66.2%) in plan implementation is poor. From the 26 local heads interviewed (92.3%) of them revealed that people participate in nursery development, plantation of seedlings in selected sites, protection of existing trees and forest areas and marketing of harvestable trees by Municipal manager, local government officials or Kebele Administration.

Participation in Monitoring and Evaluation Phases: Likewise, from the assessment on monitoring and evaluation of urban and peri-urban forestry management plan, 48.4% respondents viewed the community participation in performance monitoring and evaluation system is poor, 22.9% very poor, 18.3% dependable, 5.8% high and 4.6% very high. The respondents felt that local people did not participated in monitoring and evaluation activities and a few (10.4%) felt the community participate in monitoring and evaluation processes through Municipal Council in quarterly and annual meetings. In terms of decision-making and corrective action taken by the local and upper tiers of governments, the majority of respondents (39.7%) revealed that public participation in forest co-management activities were poor and 29.8% very poor, 18.6% viewed it as dependable. A few respondents 6.6% said there is very high and 5.3% high level of participation through quarterly and annual meetings.

Most respondents (69.2%) confirmed that the decisions affecting the community livelihoods, rules and regulation adopted by town administration council, officials and outsider not clear for their localities. The local community said that the co-management activities of urban and peri-urban forestry and other development decision were carried out mainly by local government officials and upper tiers (Zone and Regional state) government officials.

4.5.2 Legal and Institutional Framework

There are no clear legal instruments for urban and peri-urban forestry and greening (Knuth, 2005). However, urban forests are known to provide ecologically, economically, socially and aesthetically benefits to cities and their residents (Erickson, 2004). The ignorance this important issue caused devastation of the social, ecological, economical and aesthetical benefits of society. The most important instruments relevant to UPFG in Ethiopia are the Ethiopian Constitution, Environment Policy and Forest Development, Conservation and Utilization Proclamation. Ethiopia entered into international agreement, protocols and treaties that Ethiopian Government signed adopted and ratified to local laws.

Ethiopian Constitution's Articles 44 and 92 says all people of Ethiopia have right to live in clean and healthy environment and right to consultation and expression of views in planning and implementation of environmental policies and projects. According to SNNPR State Constitution Proclamation No. 35/2001 Articles 44 & 120 clearly state the same idea as Federal Constitution. But, people participation in the study area reasonably underestimated as informants revealed.

The Ethiopian Sectoral policies for forest, Woodland and Tree Resources in the environmental policy (1997) clearly point out the need to plan and create green spaces within urban areas, including community forests and woodlands for fuel wood as well as for recreational amenity, providing habitats for plants and animals and ameliorating urban micro climates; afforestation with exotic species be restricted to backyard woodlots, to peri-urban plantations and to plantations for specific industrial and other projects and promotion of the involvement of local communities inside and outside protected areas in the planning and management of such areas. These provisions are not fully put into practice.

On the other hand, Ethiopian forest development, conservation and utilization policy, strategy and laws (Proclamation No. 542/2007) clearly elucidated forest conservation, development, utilization, types of forest, management and institutional arrangements, and penalty for smugglers of and encroachments into forest products. SNNPR State Forest Proclamation No.77/2004 also ensures local community participation in forest managements. In the legislations nothing has been said about urban and peri-urban forestry and greening and survey and focal group discussions indicated that local people are not aware of the laws and provisions. There was also low level of laws enforcement.

4.6 Conclusion

Local community participation is the integral part for urban and peri-urban forest management. The assessments have been done on local community's willingness or unwillingness to participate in UPFM. The traditional local community participation in forest conservation and management was mainly in worshiping places, cemeteries and local endeavors in the study area. In past regimes people participatory in UPFM was neglected, collapsed, eroded and dwindled.

The results show that local community participation discriminated in problem analysis, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation and decision-making. People willingness to participate was eroded because of lack of awareness, lack of participatory planning process, community daily livelihood, poverty problems, lack of benefit sharing and incentive mechanisms, lack of institutional framework and lack of clear legal framework and its enforcement. The next chapter deals with the recommendation and conclusion of the study.

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CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

In this concluding chapter summarize views of the study. In section 5.1 conclusions from the study are discussed based on objectives. In the second section 5.2 recommendation for urban and peri-urban forest management with people's participation in the study area is proposed and strategic implications emerging from the analysis have been furnished.

5.1 Conclusions

Urban forestry is defined as the planned, integrated and systematic approach to managing urban and peri-urban forests for their present and potential contribution in and around urban community ecosystems to the economic, environmental, sociological and psychological well-being of urban society (Knuth, 2005). The total urban forestry environment includes all the physical, institutional, social, legal, and political factors that either facilitate or inhibit management (Grey, 1996).

The study was undertaken with the objectives of studying the importance of local community willingness to participate urban and peri-urban forests management to meet economic, social, ecological and aesthetic need urban centers and estimating the extent local community participatory practices on the forests for their livelihood, evaluating the status of local government to incorporate local community potential on forest management in the study area.

The study used both primary and secondary data for interpreting the analysis. Random sampling technique was used in selection of households. A total of 200 households from town were selected and focal group discussion, interview, question survey and observation was done. The statistical techniques of averages, percentage and pictorial were used in analyzing the data.

5.1.1 Community Willingness to Participate In UPFM

The research findings revealed that there are several of opportunities that foster community willingness to participate in UPFM. The informants assured that local people plant trees in their farmlands, streetsides and buildings, park lots, boulevards and recreation areas, hotels and central business areas, religious houses, monuments, cemeteries, riversides and streamlines, open spaces, periurban lands and public institutions. The factors that affects local community willingness to participate are prevailing poverty and communal livelihood, lack public awareness on UPF for social, economic and ecological benefits, none participatory planning processes, land tenure insecurity entitlement, lack of institutional and responsible organ to promote participation, lack of clear UPF forest laws and regulation, lack of skilled manpower and urbanization & population pressure.

5.1.2. Local community Practices in UPFM

The findings and discussion shows that local people there preferences of participation and UPFM. The community preference form of participation could be on the basis of types of forest such as

peasant forestry, functional group forestry, fundamental group forestry, village forestry and public forestry. The local community preferred the forms of community participate in managing of UPF (87.9%) felt that private management system, 66.8% of respondents preferred CBO/Religious organizations management, (84.2%) preferred cooperatives, (81.1%) Town/Kebele Administration and 70% preferred joint management.

Local communities were encouraged to rejuvenate urban and peri-urban forest through involvement of management activities such as afforestation and reforestation programs, prevention of forest fire, ensure smuggling activities on forest products, stop overgrazing, prevent illegal settlement in peri-urban lands and encroachment, willing to pay money, and extending their labour UPF conservation, management and development works.

5.1.3 Institutionalization and Community Participation in UPFM

The co-management activities such problem identification, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation and decision-making are given less attention Forest Management in general urban and peri-urban forest plans are often decided by a few officials and/or regional and national-level. In fact, the political appointees on these planning processes often have little understanding of local realities. Local governmental officials do not sufficiently understand new concepts, strategies, and participatory methods of urban forest management, agroforestry, and joint/collaborative forest management lack skills in facilitation, community organization, and the local social setting which would help them work effectively with communities.

There are important instruments relevant for UPFG in Ethiopia such as Ethiopian Constitution, Environment Policy and Forest Development, Conservation and Utilization Proclamation. Ethiopia entered into international agreement, protocols and treaties that Ethiopian Government signed adopted and ratified to local laws. However there is poor enforcement and no institutional setting to develop, manage and conserve urban and peri-urban forests.

4.2 Recommendation

Based on the findings and the conclusions reached, the following recommendations are forwarded.

Enhancement of Community Participation

The local government should give value for local community and grassroots community participatory structures and development capacities such as Kebele administration, hamlet development establishments, CBOs (like *Iqub*, *Idir*, and *Mahiber*), religious organization, municipal councils, schools and other educational institutions, business community, NGOs as well as researcher and local community traditional forest management ethos.

Introduction of Participatory Planning Processes

The local government should introduce community-based afforestation and reforestation program in the town (including peri-urban lands). In doing these, problems analysis, planning, implementation and corrective measure must consider the whole community. The local government will consider the forms of community participations such as peasant forestry, functional group forestry, fundamental group forestry, village forestry and public forestry.

Enhancing Employment Opportunities and Job Creation

The local government should have to introduce and strengthen small and micro-enterprise (SME) activities for those who are landless and poor their livelihoods stick to forest products. Such SME activities like urban agriculture on horticulture, sericulture, planting fruit trees such as avocado, mango, lemon, orange and poultry production, etc. are very important aspect to community livelihoods and enhancing local people participation in forest management.

Legal, Institutional framework and Local Government Capacity Building

The cities/town administration should have a competent urban environmental protection and urban forestry management bodies with clear mandates. Besides, capacitate local government and recruit professionals and institutionalization of local community participation structures and innovative endeavours. In general, the innovative mechanisms including legal and regulatory development, institutions of participation, benefit-sharing mechanisms, and development of community based forestry enterprises, and biodiversity conservations based on regional and national policy and programs.

Education and Awareness Creation

The local government must urge to inculcate ecological conscience to community through awareness creation programmes. These may be information, education and communication (IEC, BCC) by audiovisual materials, films, local media, newsletters, college and schools clubs, CBOs,

professional, youth and women associations about urban forestry benefits to mankind and the ecosystem.

Land Use Planning and Geographical Information System and Reporting System

The government should observe land administration system and introduce appropriate compensation for peri-urban dwellers. There should be documentation and reporting system for urban and peri-urban forests. GIS must be employed through full participation community for land use planning and administration, carry out aerial mapping and socio-economic and biophysical survey to determine forested areas.

Enhancing Alternative Sources and Energy Saving Technology

Local community in Sawla still heavily dependent upon fuelwood and forest products for their domestic energy needs. Forest is vital component for household energy consumption. Therefore, the local government should enhance new alternative energy sources and energy saving technology to replace wood fuel and charcoal.

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