

**Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and  
Relations between Kenya Wildlife Service  
(KWS) and Communities Surrounding Amboseli  
National Park**

**Nyongesa, Paul Udoto**

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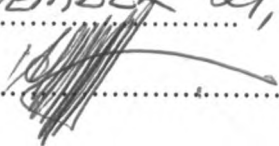
**October 2012**

## Declaration


I hereby declare that this research project is my original work and has not been presented for a degree or diploma in any other university.

Name: NYONGESA, PAUL USOP

Date: NOVEMBER 29, 2012

Signature:  .....

This research project has been submitted for examination with my approval as the supervisor at the School of Journalism and Mass Communication, University of Nairobi

Signature:  .....

Date: 1<sup>st</sup> DECEMBER, 2012 .....

Mr Reuben Nyangaga,

Lecturer,

School of Journalism and Mass Communication,

University of Nairobi.

## **Dedication**

I dedicate this research project to my parents for giving hope that I can make a difference in the world

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First and foremost, I thank the almighty God, the creator of heaven and earth for guiding me through the exciting times. I also appreciate the role played by my initial supervisor, the late Dr Peter Oriare Mbeke, and his replacement, Mr Reuben Nyangaga, for his tenacity that oversaw my completion of the research project.

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## **Abstract**

This study investigated Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and the relations between Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) and the communities surrounding Amboseli National Park. It specifically sought to find out the apparent ineffectiveness of the CSR projects in winning community cooperation for conservation and how CSR could be made more effective. The study was conceived due to the fact that despite KWS investments, the community in Amboseli remained hostile to the Park.

The study was conducted through the survey research design, data collected in October and November 2010 using questionnaires distributed to 60 respondents, out of which 47 filled and returned.

The data were analysed using qualitative and quantitative and qualitative techniques and presented in tables and narratives. The study established that the relations between KWS and the community were strained despite the CSR investments. It also established that KWS had responded to the situation by investing in social welfare and community development projects.

The study concluded that the CSR projects had only partly achieved the intended purpose of winning community support for wildlife conservation due to lack of relative advantage of the national park and a dysfunctional social structure of group ranches. Further, the study concluded that it was critical to use four key approaches in order to win community support in wildlife conservation: transparency and accountability, equitable distribution of wildlife benefits, education programmes and solving problems incurred by people as a result of having wildlife on their land.

Finally, the study recommended possible further research to enable a better understanding of the practice of CSR in managing relations between corporations and communities.

## **Abbreviations and Acronyms**

ARCP	Amboseli Research and Conservation Project
BAT	British Tobacco Company
CBI	Confederation of British Industry
CBO	Community-Based Organisation
CC	Corporate Citizen
COYA	Company of the Year Awards
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DPPs	District Development Plans
FiRE	Financial Reporting
FKE	Federation of Kenya Employers
ILO	International Labour Organisation
NSE	Nairobi Stock Exchange
MBA	Masters of Business Administration
KWS	Kenya Wildlife Service
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
PRSPs	Poverty Reduction Strategy Plans
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
UNESCO	United Nations Educational and Scientific and Cultural Organisation

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# Chapter One

## Introduction

### 1:1 Organisation of Study

This study is divided into five chapters, besides references and appendixes. A background to the study, definition of key terms and statement of the study problem are covered in chapter one. The chapter also has research questions, objectives and assumptions as well as the scope of the study and its limitations.

A review of literature dealing with Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and wildlife conservation are presented in chapter two. The chapter also brings out the knowledge gap that the study seeks to fill. The theoretical framework which guided the study is also discussed.

Chapter three deals with the research design and methodology adopted in the study. The sampling method, data collection procedures and instruments used to gather the data as well as data analysis procedures and their justification are also described.

The data collected are presented in chapter four as well as an analysis of the data and a discussion of the findings.

Finally, chapter five contains the summary, conclusions and recommendations for policy and further research. The study concludes with references and appendixes.

## 1:2 Definitions of Key Concepts and Terms

- a) Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR): Investment in the community as part of established organisational policy beyond the mandatory requirements of the law (Hockerts and Moir, 2004).
- b) Corporate: That pertaining to the whole organisation as a legal entity as opposed to individual or personal (Hemingway and Maclagan, 2004).
- c) Stakeholder: Groups and individuals who can affect, or are affected by the operations of an organisation. For purposes of this study, it is the communities surrounding Amboseli National Park (Godfrey and Hatch, 2007).
- d) National Park: Government-owned land set aside exclusively for the purposes of wildlife conservation for the benefit of the general public (Western, 1984).
- e) Group ranch: A communally-owned ranch operated co-operatively for common objectives and legally registered as such (Okello, 2009).
- f) Habitat: The home of any living creature (Lindsay, 1987).
- g) Land use: Human activity associated with a specific land (Kangwana, 1993)
- h) Innovation: Practices, objects or ideas that are perceived as new by an individual or unit of adoption (Rogers, 1995). For purposes of this study, it refers to establishment of Amboseli National Park in Kajiado District, Kenya.
- i) Diffusion: Process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among members of a social system (Rogers, 1995)

- j) **Wildlife:** Those species of wild and indigenous animals and plants, and their habitats, natural ecosystems and landscapes. For purposes of this study, wildlife refers to wild animals and their habitats.
- k) **Conservation:** The sustainable utilisation of wildlife resources without causing them undue harm and safeguarding against depletion (Ogada, 2009).
- l) **Ecosystem:** A dynamic complex plant, animal, micro-organism communities and their non-living environment interacting as a functional unit (Meguro, 2009)
- m) **Migratory and dispersal areas:** Communally or privately-owned land neighbouring national parks and reserves commonly used by wildlife for seasonal migration and dispersion (Kimani and Pickard, 1998).

### **1:3 Background to the Study**

There has been growing interest in CSR as a management practice across a range of disciplines (Miles et al 2006; Godfrey, 2005; Daugherty, 2001). In the last couple of decades, many businesses have adopted CSR in their strategic management and stakeholder social reporting (Schwartz, 2011; Daugherty, 2001). Indeed, CSR has emerged as one of the key platforms of stakeholder engagement as well as a way of framing business and society relations.

This is particularly important given the widely-held position that in modern society, the survival of any business depends on how it is perceived and relates with key stakeholders (Cornelissen, 2004; Freeman, 1984; Daugherty, 2001). The stakeholders include shareholders/stockholders, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), customers,

employees, the government, the media and members of the community where the business operates.

The importance of CSR has been further strengthened by public activism, globalization and technological advancements (Auka, 2006; Ufadhili, 2008; Miles et al, 2006).

Wildlife conservation as a business offers global and national benefits of saving species, habitats and ecosystems as well as biodiversity (Action Aid International Kenya, 2006; Lusigi, 1981). However, the actual cost of conservation is borne more by local communities who often get insufficient and inequitable benefits (Bulte et al., 2008, Kangwana, 1993, Okello, 2009; Campbell et al, 2002). This has posed various challenges to the management and conservation of wildlife.

The balance between costs and benefits of conservation to local communities has led to demands for CSR from wildlife authorities (Ringera, 2007; Action Aid International Kenya, 2006; Musyoki, 2007; Njogu, 2004).

The dangers facing Amboseli National Park are particularly troubling (Campbell et al., 2003; Mburu et al., 2003; Kangwana, 1993; Okello, 2009) given that it has once been held up as “a working model for other wildlife protection and tourism development projects” (Western, 1982). It is a classic case of the community engaging in activities that endanger conservation such as killing of wildlife, subdivision of land, adoption of agriculture, and incursion of livestock into the national park (Okello, 2009; Action Aid International Kenya, 2006). All these activities which endanger wildlife conservation are occurring despite KWS efforts to win community goodwill through its CSR projects (Kangwana, 1993; KWS 2008a).

Therefore, how successfully KWS nurtures and manages relations with the communities living adjacent to national parks and reserves is critical to the survival of Kenya's wildlife and the tourism industry.

Wildlife protected areas in Kenya occupy about 8.3 per cent of the total landmass as shown by a map of conservation areas in Appendix I (KWS, 2005 and 2008b). KWS is the government agency responsible for conservation and management of wildlife (Republic of Kenya, 1989). The organization has its headquarters in Nairobi, Kenya, and is organized as shown in the organogram in Appendix II.

The management of wildlife is faced with various challenges, including the escalation of human wildlife conflict, poaching, livestock incursion into national parks and shrinking and degraded wildlife habitats (Kangwana, 1993; Okello, 2009).

These challenges were best summed up by Lusigi (1981: 87) who said: "...the idea of national parks as presently conceived is alien and unacceptable to the African population. Making that idea culturally and socially acceptable to the people will require a transformation which has not yet taken place..."

Historically, it has been found that the creation of national parks and reserves was largely not preceded by consultation and sensitization of the public nor did it consider the dependence of local people's livelihoods on park resources (Musyoki, 2007, Ringera, 2007; Kangwana, 1993; Lusigi, 1981; Bulte et al., 2008). Neither did the protectionist or fortress approach to conservation consider the needs of the people who bore the costs of conservation (Lusigi, 1981). Besides, most national parks and reserves do not cover the entire ecosystem or the geographical range of migratory wild animals (Western, 1984). This implies that wild animals can only survive with safe access to private or community-



owned land outside national parks and reserves as well as strong law enforcement (KWS, 2008a).

Many landowners have borne the cost of co-existing with wildlife (Ringera, 2007 and Lusigi, 1981). Human wildlife conflict is most pronounced in wildlife dispersal areas and migratory corridors that have been used by wild animals over the years. Conflict is most intense when agriculture is involved and in particular where cropland borders national parks or national reserves (Kangwana, 1993). Over the years, toleration of wildlife by pastoralists has been more than that by farmers (Ringera, 2007; Kangwana, 1993).

The demand for compensation for loss of human life, property and injury to human beings is increasing, contributing to demand for CSR from wildlife authorities (Ringera, 2007; Western, 1982 and Anyonge-Bashir and Udoto, 2012).

According to the Wildlife (Conservation and Management) Act CAP 376, wildlife in Kenya is a public resource held in trust by the government, yet the habitat on which wild animals depend is often communally or privately-owned (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007). This implies that individual and community land owners have no ownership rights over the wildlife resource occupying their land.

One theme that runs through various KWS annual reports and strategic plans is that winning and maintaining community support for conservation is integral to achieving the conservation mandate (KWS, 2005; 2006; 2007; 2010; 2011).

The KWS CSR Community Outreach Programme, whose focus is on the provision of public education, health facilities and water to communities living in wildlife-inhabited areas, is one of the key strategies of changing community attitudes towards wildlife so as to view it as resource from which they benefit (KWS, 2008a; Anyonge-Bashir and Udoto, 2012).

The rationale behind the programme (KWS, 2006:22) is that: “If communities benefit from wildlife conservation, they will conserve it as a national heritage for future generations” (Bulte et al., 2008 and Anyonge-Bashir and Udoto, 2012).

## **1:4 Concept of CSR**

There has been growing interest in CSR across a range of disciplines (Godfrey and Hatch, 2007; Brown and Dacin, 1997 and Hemingway and MacLagan, 2004). There is no single universally accepted or established general definition of CSR (Gossling and Vocht, 2007; Ufadhili, 2008, Otachi, 2005 and Schwartz, 2011). According to Votaw (1972), CSR today “means something, but not always the same thing, to everybody”.

However, various concepts are connoted into it (Carroll, 1999; Ufadhili, 2008; Schwartz, 2011; Fombrun and Shanley, 1990 and Godfrey and Hatch, 2007). Indeed, confusion exists as to the universal definition and scope of CSR and its links with other dimensions of corporate responsibility such as business ethics, stakeholder management, sustainability and corporate citizenship (CC) (Schwartz, 2011).

Generally, CSR refers to transparent business practices that are based on ethical values, compliance with legal requirements, and respect for people, communities and the natural environment (Daugherty, 2001 and Armstrong, 2009).

Many definitions of CSR tend to focus on how companies manage their core businesses to add to social, environmental and economic value in order to produce a positive sustainable impact for both society and the business. CSR is based on the idea that businesses have to meet society’s expectations in their practices (Gossling and Vocht, 2007)

Virtually all definitions of CSR include the notion that organizations have obligations towards society beyond their economic obligations to shareholders (Ufadhili, 2008).

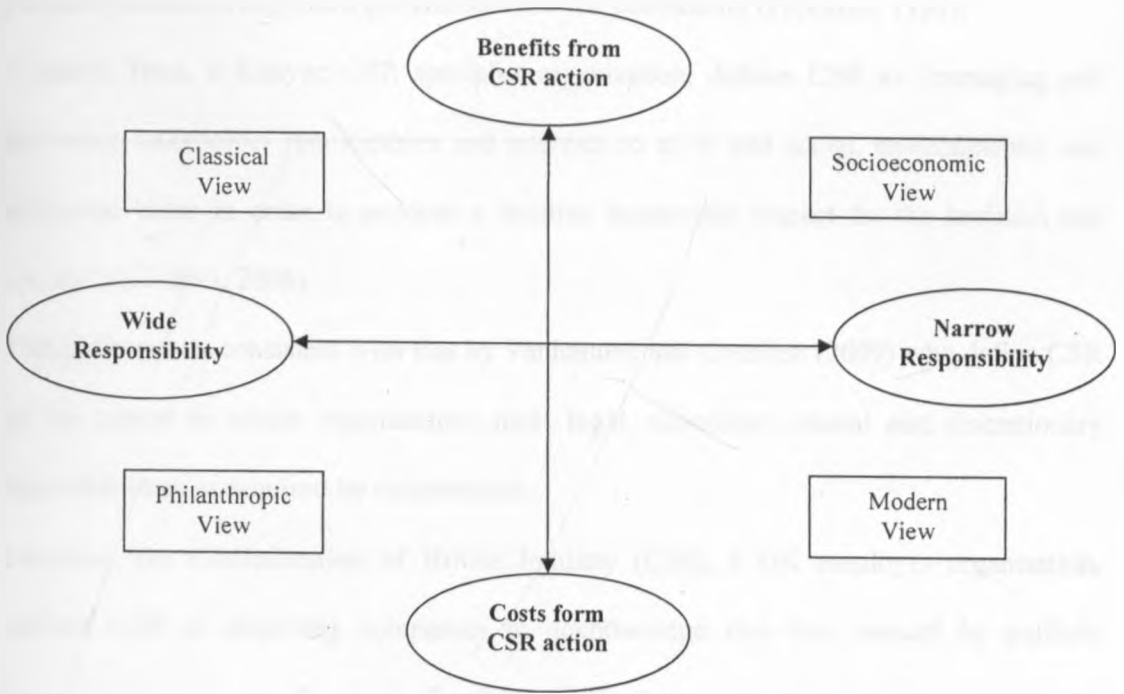
But other analysts like Friedman (1962) argue that this needn't be the case, bringing about a second and conflicting perspective of CSR. This classical school of thought argues that within the world of business, the main "responsibility" for corporations has historically been to make money and increase shareholder value. This stockholder perspective of business was best advocated by American economist Friedman (1962). He memorably stated his classical view of business in society as follows:

"Few trends could so thoroughly undermine the very foundations of our free society as the acceptance of corporate officials of a social responsibility other than to make as much money for the stockholders as possible," (Ufadhili, 2008) In other words, corporate financial responsibility has been the sole driving force. Friedman's maxim was that the social responsibility of business is to maximize profits within the bounds of the law or rules of the game.

Classical economists such as Friedman hold the view that the main purpose of business is to make profits for owners and other objectives are secondary to this as shown on the right side of Figure 1.1 (Friedman, 1970; Pinkston and Carroll, 1996). In this context, while business strives to ensure that shareholders get maximum returns, government meets other societal demands. Thus, historically the main "responsibility" for corporations has been to protect shareholder value.

However, in the last couple of decades, a movement defining broader corporate responsibilities, for the environment, local communities, working conditions and ethical practices, has gathered momentum and taken hold as shown on the left side of Figure 1.1. This new driving force is known as CSR (Pinkston and Carroll, 1996; Schwartz, 2011).

**Figure 1.1: Two dimensional model of CSR**



(Source: Quazi and O'Brien, [2000])

Scholar John Elkington coined the idea of “The Triple Bottom Line”, to refer to “People, Planet and Profit”: he argued that the profit for its own sake model of capitalism required realignment (Elkington, 1997). This idea refers to the totality of the corporation’s financial, social and environmental performance in conducting business. This is meant to ensure that the company is economically viable, environmentally sound and socially responsible.

CSR is a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with stakeholders on a voluntary basis. Thus, beyond making profits, companies are responsible for the totality of their impact on people and the planet.

The people include the company's shareholders, its employees, customers, business partners, investors, suppliers, government and the community (Freeman, 1984).

Ufadhili Trust, a Kenyan CSR specialist organization, defines CSR as "managing and balancing stakeholder relationships and interests so as to add social, environmental and economic value in order to produce a positive sustainable impact for the business and society" (Ufadhili, 2008).

This definition is consistent with that by Vanhamme and Grobbsen (2009) who define CSR as the extent to which organisations meet legal, economic, ethical and discretionary responsibilities as required by stakeholders.

Likewise, the Confederation of British Industry (CBI), a UK employer organisation, defines CSR as requiring companies to acknowledge that they should be publicly accountable not only for their financial performance but also for their social and environmental record. More broadly, CSR encompasses the extent to which companies should promote human rights, democracy, community improvement and sustainable development objectives throughout the world (CBI, 2001).

The development of CSR as a distinct academic subject traces its roots in the 19<sup>th</sup> century when large corporations engaged in philanthropy following pressure from civil rights, peace and environmental movements. These demands were partly driven by the fact that the unprecedented growth and expansion of corporations had brought about environmental degradation and abuse of human rights. In response to the pressure for accountability,

some corporations started issuing expanded public reports variously called social reporting, triple bottom line (economic, legal and social), CC and CSR.

Rigorous academic debate on CSR started to take shape in the 1930s and 1940s (Carroll, 1999). However, Archie Carroll, a leading CSR scholar, suggests that it was Harold Bowen's seminal work, *Social Responsibilities of the Businessman*, published in 1953, that set the stage for the future development of the CSR concept.

Bowen defined CSR as obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of objectives and values of our society (Shwartz, 2011). This reinforces one of the founding definitions of the modern concept of CSR which is the much cited four-part model of CSR by Carroll (1979).

According to this model (Carroll, 1979), the corporation has four types of responsibilities: first, the economic responsibility to be profitable and second, the legal responsibility to abide by the laws of the respective society. These two are the mandatory parts of the business responsibility. The third responsibility is ethical, and obliges corporations to do what is right, just and fair even when business is not compelled to do so by the laws of the country. The fourth area is philanthropic and describes those activities "desired" by society such as contributing resources to various kinds of social, educational, recreational or cultural purposes.

Other scholars, for instance, Hemingway and Maclagan (2004) raised the question of the role of individual values and motives as opposed to that of the corporate in driving CSR. They suggested the two dimensions in the analysis of CSR in practice. First, they posed: What is the motivational basis of CSR? Is it commercial, idealistic or even altruistic? Second, where is the locus of responsibility? Is it corporate or individual?

To other scholars (Freeman, 1984; Carroll, 1999; Brown and Dacin, 1997; L'Etang 1994), CSR refers to managements' obligation to set policies, make decisions and follow courses of action beyond the requirements of the law that are desirable in terms of the values and objectives of society

This ambiguity with the scope of CSR also invites the question as to whether complying with the law comprises CSR, or whether CSR is defined in terms of voluntary or discretionary actions that exceed legal standards and, indeed, anticipate public opinion.

On the one hand, some critics of CSR, for instance, (Friedman; 1970; Levitt, 1958) argue that a corporation's principal purpose is to maximize returns to its shareholders, while obeying the laws of the country within which it works. In his 1958 *Harvard Business Review* article "The dangers of social responsibility", Levitt (1958) warned that "government's job is not business, and business's job is not government" (Armstrong, 2009: 168).

On the other hand, other scholars (L'Etang, 1994; Brown and Dacin, 1997; Freeman, 1984; Ullman, 1985) argue that the only reason companies invest in social projects is utilitarian; that they see a commercial benefit in raising their reputation with the public or the government. This view is reinforced by literature which shows consumer skepticism about companies that use CSR as a tool to attain legitimacy (Webb and Mohr, 1998; Vanhamme and Grobbsen, 2009).

The primary drive of ethical CSR in recent times came through campaigns by pressure groups such as Green Peace and Friends of the Earth in the US and Europe in the 1980s and 1990s. Consumer boycotts, direct action, shareholder action, ethical product labeling schemes, media campaigns and ethical competition became increasingly effective in changing corporate perceptions (Wanjiru, 2004; Brown and Dacin, 1997).

Some of the key challenges to the practice of CSR include a corporate law that a corporation's directors are prohibited from any activity that would reduce profits (Friedman, 1970; Armstrong, 2009).

At the other end of the continuum are critics who see CSR as a branch of public relations (L'Etang 1994, Godfrey, 2005; Webb and Mohr, 1998; Freeman, 1984), where companies undertake CSR as a form of insurance against disruption and reputational damage as well as to avoid mandatory regulation, rather than as a genuine attempt to facilitate development that benefits the poor and marginalized.

From the foregoing, two main schools of thought about CSR have emerged: firms should be socially responsible while the other the business of firms is to make profits and not serve other societal interests.

Predominant factors that have driven CSR include pressure from the society, moral obligation, need for publicity, corporate image, long term benefits from profitability, avoidance of unnecessary and costly regulation and pressure from labour unions (Auka, 2006; Godfrey and Hatch, 2007; Ufadhili, 2008).

Today, more and more companies are realizing that in order to stay productive, competitive and relevant in a rapidly changing world, they have to become socially responsible (Brown and Dacin, 1997; Vanhamme and Grobbsen, 2008; Hockerts and Moir, 2004).

Globalisation has also blurred national boundaries; technology has accelerated time and masked distance while image and reputation have acquired new urgency in the business environment (Cutlip et al, 1994; Seitel, 2007). Given this sea change in the corporate environment, companies want to increase their ability to make profits, mitigate risks, gain public licence to operate and protect their corporate images. How a company relates with



its workers, its host communities and the marketplace can greatly contribute to the sustainability of its economic success (Schwartz, 2011; Godfrey and Hatch, 2007).

While the measures of CSR activities may vary, the common focus of socially responsible practices relates to employees, customers, suppliers, communities and the natural environment (Ufadhili, 2008).

Globally, CSR is moving toward mainstream business practice as non governmental organisations (NGOs) such as the World Resources Institute (WRI), AccountAbility, Global Reporting Initiative (GRI), International Standards Organisation (ISO) and the United Nations (UN) implement initiatives towards improving the social involvement of the world's business community (Godfrey and Hatch, 2007).

Examples of CSR global regulations and guidelines include the UN Global Compact, Agenda 21, Dow Jones Sustainability Index, International Labour Organisation (ILO) Tripartite Declaration of Principles Concerning Multinational Enterprises, and UN Code on Transnational Corporations and the European Convention on Human Rights.

This study adopts the spirit of McWilliam's and Siegel's (2001) definition that CSR represents activities that appear to further social good, extend beyond the economic interests of an organisation and is not required by law.

## **1:5 Statement of the Research Problem**

Sustainable wildlife conservation in Kenya faces numerous challenges (KWS, 2008; 2008a; Anyonge-Bashir and Udoto, 2012; Action Aid International Kenya, 2006; Kioko, 2008) ranging from human/animal conflict, poaching, wildlife habitat degradation and loss to poverty in communities living adjacent to wildlife inhabited areas (Kangwana, 1993; Musyoki, 2007; Tonningen, 1993; Bulte et al, 2008).

Yet KWS has over the years established various CSR projects to win public support for wildlife conservation (KWS, 2008; Anyonge-Bashir and Udoto, 2012; Ringera, 2007, Western, 1982, Bulte et al., 2008; Western, 1982; Action Aid International Kenya, 2006). For these efforts, KWS has beaten both private sector and public institutions to win the 2009 Corporate Citizenship and Environmental Management category in the Company of the Year Awards (COYA) for its exemplary national CSR (Kenya Institute of Management, 2010). Thus, the communities' attitudes toward the KWS-managed Amboseli National Park in particular, and conservation in general, seem inconsistent with the CSR award (Kangwana, 1993; Tonningen, 1993; Kangwana, 1993; Bulte et al, 2008). Some members of the communities living in Amboseli have shown hostility to wild animals (Ngunjiri, 2008; Mangat, 2008; Western, Kangwana, 1993 and 1982, Bulte et al, 2008) through killing of elephants and lions (Ngunjiri, 2008; Mangat, 2008; Western, 1982, Kangwana, 1993 and Okello, 2009), sub-division of group ranches and adoption of incompatible land use practices like crop cultivation (Republic of Kenya, 2008; Kioko, 2008; Kimani and Pickard 1998, Western, 1982, Meguro, 2009; KWS, 2008a) to the communities' clamour for the downgrading of the park to a national reserve under the control of the county council (Mbaria, 2008; Bulte et al, 2008).

Yet various studies on CSR have consistently found positive attitudes to the sponsoring institutions (Kweyu, 1993; Kiarie, 1997; Korir, 2006; Too, 2005; Brown and Dacin, 1997 and Kamau, 2001). Furthermore, other studies have shown that the establishment of CSR projects generates goodwill for organisations that practise it since most people favour dealing with those that care about societal problems (Mulwa, 2002:30, Brown and Dacin, 1997 and Auka, 2006: 36). Indeed, many conservationists, for instance, Western (1982);

Okello (2009) and Anyonge-Bashir and Udoto (2012) suggest that the best management of wildlife protected areas involves partnership with local communities.

Studies on CSR by firms listed on the Nairobi Stock Exchange (NSE), for instance, Too, 2005; Gichana, 2004; Anyona, 2005; Mulwa, 2002; Auka, 2006; Otachi, 2005, have explored relations between corporations and communities through the voice of the corporation rather than that of the community. Yet community goodwill and cooperation are critical to any efforts aimed at wildlife conservation (Kangwana, 1993; Okello, 2009; Action Aid International Kenya 2006; and Lusigi, 1981). This study attempts to address this knowledge gap by shedding light on CSR from the community's perspective.

Hence, more studies are needed to explain why the communities in the Amboseli ecosystem have remained hostile to the Park and wildlife conservation despite KWS continued establishment of CSR projects in the area (Republic of Kenya, 2001: 49; Bulte et al, 2008; Western, 1982 and Kangwana, 1993).

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the role of CSR in managing the relations between KWS and the communities surrounding Amboseli National Park. The study was designed to specifically find out the apparent ineffectiveness of CSR projects in managing these relations.

## **1:6 Research Questions**

- (i) What are the relations subsisting between KWS and the communities living around Amboseli National Park?
- (ii) How has KWS responded to this situation?
- (iii) Why is the KWS response apparently ineffective?
- (iv) What can be done to enhance the effectiveness of the KWS response?

## **1:7 Overall Objective**

To examine the apparent ineffectiveness of the KWS CSR as a tool for managing relations with the communities living in Amboseli.

## **1:8 Specific objectives**

1. To establish relations subsisting between KWS and the communities surrounding Amboseli National Park.
2. To examine the KWS response to the situation.
3. To determine the factors responsible for the apparent ineffectiveness of the KWS response.
4. To find out ways of enhancing the effectiveness of CSR projects.

## **1:9 Justification of the Study**

This study is significant because of several reasons. First, Amboseli is fundamental to Kenya's tourism industry (Bulte et al., 2008; Kangwana, 1993) and leads other national parks in the number of visitors and revenue (KWS, 2008a; Okello, 2006). Therefore, problems faced by Amboseli pose a great risk to the future of Kenya's tourism, one of the six key priority sectors under the national 2030 Vision development blueprint (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2008).

Secondly, the contribution of the wildlife sector to various aspects of national development such as fisheries, energy, bio-prospecting, agriculture, national security and

transport is well-documented (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2008; KWS, 2005; Lusigi, 1981 and Udoto, 2012).

Thirdly, despite being a positive contribution to the national economy, wildlife conservation comes at a great cost, especially to local communities in terms of loss of pasture for livestock, property destruction, human injuries and deaths (Kangwana, 1993; ActionAid International Kenya, 2006; Lusigi, 1981; Okello, 2006). Therefore, this study is expected to contribute to policies that help to strike a balance between the national goal of promoting tourism through wildlife conservation and the local people's development needs.

Lastly, given the growing interest in CSR as a tool of stakeholder management and communication, this study's findings add to the growing literature on CSR. It provides clarification on the factors influencing the community rejection or adoption of the national park as a model of wildlife conservation. It also suggests ways of improving formulation and implementation. These are key to understanding the aspects of resistance or acceptance of the modern form of wildlife conservation in order to overcome barriers encountered by the wildlife authorities. Discovering the perceptions preventing the communities in Amboseli from accepting the national park helps draw a clearer picture for CSR policy makers.

## **1:10 Scope of the Study**

The study examined CSR and the relations between KWS and the communities living around Amboseli National Park in Kajiado County (See map of Kenya's conservation areas in Appendix I). The respondents were restricted to opinion leaders comprising selected former and current KWS employees and community leaders expected to possess in-depth knowledge on wildlife conservation and tourism in Amboseli by virtue of their experience from the development of the Amboseli National Park Management Plan (KWS, 2008a) and roles in the community. The contacts of the initial respondents were adapted from the participant's registration during the preparation of the Amboseli National Park Management Plan (KWS, 2008a). The initial respondents were further asked to provide contacts of other possible respondents whom they considered knowledgeable and experienced in wildlife conservation issues in the Amboseli ecosystem.

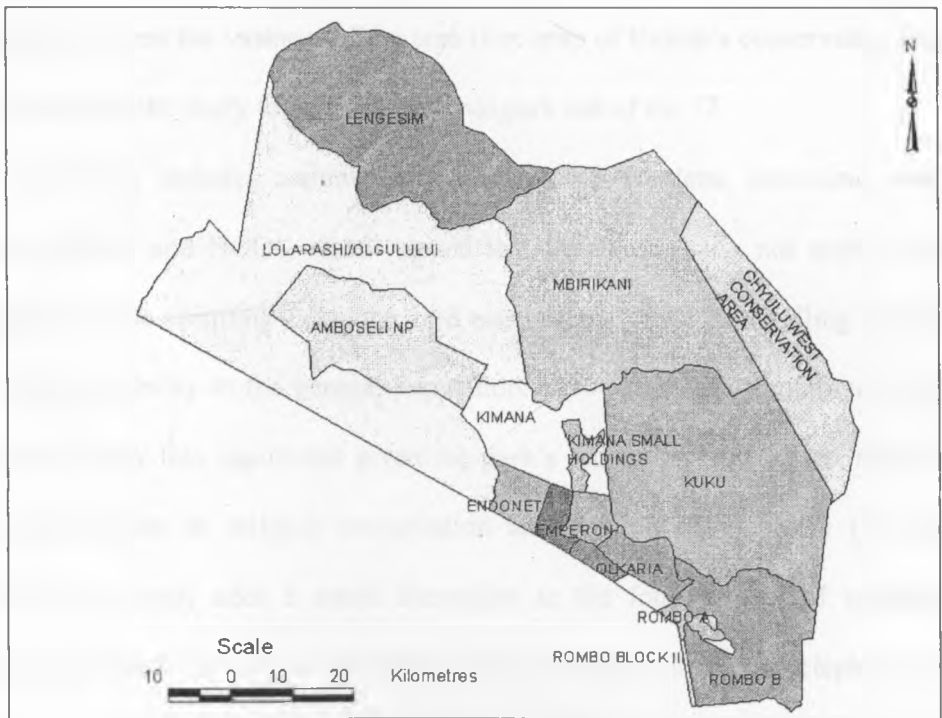
## **1:11 Assumptions of the Study**

- (a) The sample studied reflected the general thinking of the population in the Amboseli ecosystem.
- (b) The responses received from the respondents accurately reflected their opinions.
- (c) The respondents in the study answered all the questions in the questionnaire and interview openly and honestly.

## 1:12 Description of Study Site

The study area was restricted to Amboseli ecosystem which covers an area of about 5,700 km square stretching from Mt Kilimanjaro, Chyulu Hills, Tsavo West National Park to the Kenya-Tanzania border. It comprises Amboseli National Park and six communally-owned group ranches, which act as both resident and dispersal areas for migratory wildlife (Okello, 2009). This is the area covered under the *Amboseli Ecosystem Management Plan, 2008-2018* (KWS, 2008a) which is delineated by the movement trends of migratory animals as represented by a wildlife occupancy map generated by the Amboseli Research and Conservation Project (ARCP) as shown in Figure 1.2.

*Figure 1.2: Amboseli National Park and surrounding group ranches*



*(Source: Amboseli Ecosystem Management Plan, 2008-2018 [KWS, 2008a])*

The area is typical of African arid rangeland, generally arid to semi-arid in its agro-ecological zones and is more suitable for pastoralism than cultivation (Western, 1982). Administratively, the Amboseli ecosystem consists of the 392-km square Amboseli National Park (about 5 per cent of the wildlife dispersal area) and the surrounding group ranches. The group ranches which cover an area of 506, 329 hectares are: Kimana/Tikondo, Olgulului/Olalararashi, Selengei, Mbirikani, Kuku, and Rombo (Kenya Wildlife Service, 2008a and Okello, 2009).

### **1:13 Limitations of the Study**

This study focused on Amboseli National Park, so the findings cannot be generalized to 57 other national parks and reserves across the country. Limitations of time, funds and transport problems given the vastness of the area (See map of Kenya's conservation areas Appendix I) restricted the study to only one national park out of the 57.

The study population includes community leaders, KWS wardens, community-based organizations (CBOs) and NGOs, which means that the findings do not apply to the general population. The sampling technique used was purposive and snowballing reducing the study's generalisability to the general population. However, these limitations do not make the research any less significant given the park's pioneering role as the model of community participation in wildlife conservation and tourism development (Western, 1982). Besides, this study adds a social dimension to the four decades of ecological monitoring and research as well as two of the world's longest studies of elephants and primates that have brought Amboseli international scientific and conservation recognition (Kangwana, 1993).



# Chapter Two

## Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

### 2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on CSR as a means of providing background to the study. Information on KWS CSR projects in Amboseli is also presented. Previous studies and literature relating to relevant aspects of CSR and wildlife conservation are examined. The chapter also covers the theoretical framework which guided the study.

#### 2:1.0 Concept of CSR

Over the last few decades, the role of corporations within society has received increasing attention, and the expectations towards these corporations have increased accordingly (Ufadhili, 2008; Schwartz, 2011; Odhiambo, 2006; Too, 2005).

The rising expectations have been attributed various factors, including the protection of the environment, globalization, communication in the information age, realignments in the family and civil rights and the empowerment of individuals (Cutlip et al, 1994; Schwartz, 2011; Seitel, 2007).

The broad construct that has been coined for some of the expectations is 'corporate social responsibility' (CSR). It runs the gamut from a purely stockholder perspective, such as that advocated by Friedman (1962) where the sole focus is on a firm's responsibility to its equity holders to a broader stakeholder perspective that suggests that firms have an obligation to different stakeholders (Miles et al 2006; Tracey et al, 2005).

Several separate but interlinked forces have been cited for the pressure to adopt CSR including stakeholder theories of business, deregulation and globalization, rapid advances in communication technology, rise in the power of the consumer, governmental withdrawal from many social welfare engagements and sustainability (Ufadhili, 2008; Schwartz, 2011)

From a traditional economic perspective, the corporation is responsible only to its shareholders (Friedman, 1962), that is, the sole objective of the firm is to maximize shareholder value. Under this classical framework, the corporation has no obligation giving away shareholder money for altruistic reasons. In Friedman's (1970) view, corporate philanthropy amounts to managers of a firm stealing from shareholders.

But a conflicting stakeholder theory developed by Freeman (1984) posits that while keeping an eye on the bottom-line, the corporation must also do right to its employees, customers, suppliers, the natural environment and the local community. Under this view, corporate philanthropy is one of the duties expected of an upstanding CC.

The field of empirical CSR research generally has been hampered by the lack of a consistent definition of the construct of CSR, as well as its operationalisation and measurement, as pointed out by (McWilliams and Siegel, 2000)

This lack of consistency of CSR definitions across studies makes it difficult to evaluate and compare the findings from different studies because they usually refer to different dimensions of CSR.

Most research on CSR has focused on the consequences of CSR implementation — or lack of implementation — on financial performance with little attention to comparative issues (e.g. McWilliams and Siegel, 2000) the main exception being a meta-analysis which

includes studies conducted in the context of different countries (Orlitzky and Benjamin, 2001).

In general, CSR means that corporations are expected to do business in a responsible way. However, the meaning of this term is seen by some as a necessary addition to the meaning of 'business', while others have explained the meaning of CSR in terms of the meaning of 'business' itself. In other words, CSR is external or internal to the way of thinking that fits the processes of business and organisations.

Despite the wide spectrum of definitions to CSR (Odhiambo, 2006; Schwartz, 2011; Ufadhili, 2008), there is a general understanding of its key features. They include activities over and above legal requirements, voluntarily adopted such as respect for people, communities and the natural environment and intrinsically linked to the concept of sustainable development (Odhiambo, 2006; Ufadhili, 2008; Otachi, 2005).

The concept that corporations have an obligation to society can be traced to Bowen (1953). In his seminal book, *Social Responsibility of Business*, he argued that business managers should "pursue those policies, make those decisions, or follow those lines of actions which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society" (Bowen, 1953:6). This argument presupposes that corporations should invest their resources on objectives that are socially desirable, even if they are economically less so.

The notion of CSR has generated considerable debate in the last few decades. On one hand, a point of view argues that the only objective of business is to make a profit. Friedman (1970) asserted that resources devoted to CSR are better spent, from a social perspective, on increasing firm efficiency.

On the other hand, significant support has been provided to the concept of CSR. Freeman (1984) defended this viewpoint and developed the Stakeholder Theory. In this theory,

Freeman argued that firms have relationships with many constituent groups, who both affect and are affected by the actions of the firm.

CSR has received considerable attention in business management and communication research. Most of this research concluded that corporations have a responsibility to various stakeholder groups beyond maximizing stock price (Orlitzky and Benjamin, 2001) and that social responsibility is important in determining corporate effectiveness (Lachman and Wolfe, 1997).

Regarding research methodology in CSR, a number of these studies have used the descriptive approach, for instance, (Odhiambo, 2006; Ominde, 2006; Kariuki, 2008) while others have used the case study design (Kwalanda, 2007; Kariuki, 2008) and (Korir, 2006).

Most previous studies on CSR have focused on various sectors, including firms listed on the NSE, for instance, Too, 2005; Gichana, 2004; Anyona, 2005; Mulwa, 2002; and Auka, 2006.

However, there is scanty evidence of systematic investigation on the practice of CSR as a strategy of winning community goodwill towards natural resource management. As a result, little is known about the role CSR plays in winning community support for the Park and environmental conservation.

The limited understanding of the role of CSR in environmental conservation is unfortunate because findings from such studies would facilitate the development of appropriate interventions and greatly enhance current understanding of the dynamics underlying community perceptions of environmental conservation.

## 2.2.0 KWS CSR projects in Amboseli

The Amboseli ecosystem lies to the south-eastern end of Kajiado County in Kenya's Rift Valley Province, covering more than 2 million hectares (Republic of Kenya, 2008).

The migratory wildlife of the 392-km square Amboseli National Park (about 5 percent of the ecosystem) is heavily dependent on the wildlife dispersal area consisting of group ranches and privately as well as communally-owned land (Kangwana, 1993; Western, Okello, 2009; 1982; Bulte, et al., 2008; Action Aid International Kenya, 2006; KWS, 2008a). At the heart of the ecosystem is the park, the core of a United Nations Educational and Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) Man and the Biosphere Reserve. The main group ranches are Imbirikani, Kimana, Olgulului, Eselenkei, Kuku and Rombo (Kenya Wildlife Service, 2008a).

Amboseli was declared a national park in 1974 (Western, 1982). Before then, a much large area had been a national reserve with human activity allowed. Its permanent swamps were a vital part of the Maasai range. The local community only agreed to leave the Park in return for water sources in the form of a pipeline and boreholes being dug outside the park, among other benefits. However, these promises have never been adequately fulfilled (Western, 1982; Kangwana, 1993; Okello, 2009).

The problems being experienced in Amboseli go back to how the world's earliest national parks, Yosemite and Yellowstone in North America were founded more than 130 years ago. Both parks were aimed at preserving areas of scenic beauty and natural wonder. However, the subsequent adoption of this model of conservation to East Africa and other parts of the world ran into problems, especially with communities who had other forms of traditional conservation (Lusigi, 1981; Okello, 2009).

The Western model of conservation that sought to confine wildlife into protected areas (such as national parks) was alien to the African concept of conservation. (Okello, 2009). This concept was often introduced without consultation or acceptance by the local community (Okello, 2009; Musyoki, 2007, Ringera, 2007; Kangwana, 1993; Lusigi, 1981; Bulte et al., 2008). Many rural communities like the one in Amboseli depended on these resources for livelihood, water, pasture and space for survival. Hence, these uses were lost when the national park was created. All that remained were wild animals moving outside protected areas without concrete benefits to landowners and the community (Action Aid International Kenya, 2006 and Okello, 2009).

Many areas of wildlife concentration in the dry season fall within the Amboseli park boundaries and for wet months of the year, when water and pasture are more widespread, the wildlife moves out of the protected area into neighbouring dispersal areas. The Amboseli elephants concentrate within the park during the dry season while during the wet season they move over the larger Amboseli ecosystem (Western and Lindsay, 1984; Kangwana, 1993 and Western, 1982).

The ecosystem comprises land communally owned by the Maasai in a number of group ranches. This implies that wild animals can only survive with safe access to private or communally-owned land outside national parks and reserves as well as strong law enforcement (KWS, 2008a).

The critical role of the dispersal areas was best illustrated by the scenario where if the park were to be fenced off, then the population of most of the herbivores would have to be halved (Western, 1982).

The park is a Maasaí territory set aside by a co-operative agreement between the community and the government. Wild animals roam over the surrounding ecosystem of

8000 km square. When they are outside the park, the animals are on group ranches and privately-owned land. The local communities have been relatively tolerant of these wild animals; they have lived together for many years (Kangwana, 1993; Okello, 2009). However, increasing number of livestock heads, frequent and long droughts, increasing human population and changing land use practices have made wildlife conservation difficult (Okello, 2009; Kangwana, 1993). Competition for land and natural resources has escalated human wildlife conflicts. This has made some members of the local community to feel that the government does not take their plight seriously. As a result, retaliatory killings are made in protest of losses to wildlife (Okello, 2009)

Besides, money generated from parks and community conservancies benefits mostly local elites, foreign tour investors and the government (Okello, 2009; Thompson and Homewood, 2002).

To deal with problems of human wildlife conflict, loss of land and access to resources, government wildlife authorities have used various strategies (Kenya Wildlife Service, 2008a). These include schemes for sharing revenue generated by Amboseli National park with the local community which were initiated as early as the 1950s (Lovatt Smith, 1986; Western, 1982) but their success has been controversial (Western, 1982; Lindsay, 1987).

The benefit-sharing scheme was reinforced by the *1973 Development Plan*, which had various proposals to compensate the local community for excluding them from the Park (Kangwana, 1993 and Western, 1982). Group ranches were to receive water supplies outside the park while the maintenance of the existing boreholes and the construction of a pipeline to carry water to community water tanks. The responsibility of operating the pipeline and boreholes was handed to Park authorities.

Group ranches were to get direct benefits through the development of wildlife viewing circuits and tourist campsites while additional benefits included social services such as schools, a dispensary and a community centre at the Park headquarters for use by Park staff and the neighbouring community.

Although initially successful (Western, 1982), by 1980 the water system was operating poorly due to administrative and technical reasons, the grazing compensation fee was stopped in 1987 (Lindsay).

After KWS was set up in 1990, it was keen on sharing park entry fees with adjacent communities to influence landowners to host wildlife on their land (Western, 1982). Group ranches and the Ole Kejuado County Council were considered possible channels for revenue sharing.

Agreements between the community living around Amboseli and the government on local control of natural resources, especially water for livestock and revenue sharing as compensation for loss of land use were the first of their kind in Africa and embodied the principle of community participation in conservation (Tonningen, 1993; Kangwana, 1993). Over time, the model appears to have lost its initial effectiveness giving rise to current community frustration and hostility to wildlife conservation (Bulte, et al, 2008; Kangwana, 1993); yet today conservationists agree that the best management of protected areas includes partnership with local communities (Okello, 2009; Lusigi, 1981; Anyonge-Bashir and Udoto, 2012).

A series of land alienations and broken promises by wildlife authorities have led to a negative attitude among the Maasai towards Park administration (Kangwana, 1993)

Evidence of this hostility has seen increased killing of wild animals, subdivision of land and clamour for degazettment of Amboseli National Park (Kangwana, 1993; Western,



1982; Lindsay, 1987; Bulte, et al 2008; Okello, 2009; Ogada, 2009). Some studies indicate that the killing of wildlife through spearing has evolved as a way of expressing dissatisfaction with park management (Kangwana, 1993 and Tonningen, 1993).

Other studies, for instance, Bulte et al (2008) and Kangwana (1993) have found that the people living around Amboseli National Park are themselves divided about the benefits they obtain from wildlife. Moreover, interviews with some of the Amboseli ecosystem residents found highly negative perceptions of elephants (Kioko, 2008).

Amboseli National Park has a high concentration of mammal and bird life which include elephants, impala, giraffe, wildebeest, and pelicans, martial and the African fish eagles, pygmy falcon, kingfishers, bee-eaters, among others (Kangwana, 1993). The park is a critical dry season concentration area as it is a source of perennial water that flows from Mt Kilimanjaro, which is 5km from the park.

Even though the community knows the importance of wildlife (Kangwana, 1993), their struggle for survival makes mutual co-existence a challenge (Western, 1982; Okello, 2009 and Lusigi, 1981). Low technical expertise and education, ambiguous land tenure system and population growth have been cited as other challenges to conservation and economic development in the area.

Although there is increased wildlife-based tourism in the area (Bulte, et al, 2008), there are limited opportunities for local participation and investment due to poor financial endowment and expertise in tourism enterprises (Okello, 2009). There is also poor local institutional framework where the community benefits are dominated and mostly exploited by local elites to the disadvantage of the majority of the local people (Okello, 2009; Kangwana, 1993; Action Aid International Kenya, 2006). This lowers the economic

empowerment of the local community given the lack of economic alternatives and investments in the area (Okello, 2009).

Yet the continued availability of the dispersal areas and survival of migratory wildlife is dependent on a good relationship between KWS and the local community (Kangwana, 1993; Lovatt Smith, 1986; Lindsay, 1987). Gaining local support for protected areas and making conservation more equitable to local people involves a delicate balancing of costs and benefits.

According to the *Amboseli Ecosystem Management Plan 2008-2018* (Kenya Wildlife Service, 2008a), three things stand out as key to the conservation of wildlife in the community-owned land in the ecosystem:

- (i) Increasing community participation in decision-making to create an environment for sound land use planning
- (ii) Creating economic incentives for conserving wildlife
- (iii) Reducing cost of living with wildlife through the implementation of prudent measures to manage escalating human wildlife conflict.

### **2.3.0 Nature of CSR in Kenya**

Many corporations in Kenya are yet to embrace CSR fully in terms of what it truly entails (Ufadhili, 2008 and Makau, 2006). Ufadhili Trust, a specialist CSR organization, conducted an exploratory study on CSR in Kenya in 2003 and established that the level of awareness in many organisations did not go beyond corporate philanthropy (Kivuitu et al, 2005). The study established that most activities identified by companies themselves as CSR could broadly be described as philanthropy.

Another study by the same organization (Ufadhili, 2008) found that the most popular form of corporate community engagement in East Africa is charitable giving.

Indeed, most surveys in Kenya suggest that the cause receiving the highest proportion of corporate donations is health and medical provision. Donations are also directed towards education and training, HIV/AIDS; agriculture and food security; and underprivileged children (Gichana, 2004; Odhiambo, 2006; Obusubiri, 2006).

Beyond philanthropic activities, another prominent aspect of CSR in Kenya is action on HIV/AIDS which is widely identified as the most serious health and development issue (Too, 2005; Makau, 2006; and Korir, 2006).

The justification for such philanthropic activities has been tied to the sense that companies should “give something back” to the communities in which they operate (Ufadhili, 2008; Murunyu, 2006; Gichana, 2004; Okeyo, 2004). But according to Kivuitu (2005), CSR is merely a buzz word that companies use to outdo each other in awards such as COYA and Financial Reporting (FiRE).

Many MBA studies in Kenya on CSR have been conducted on companies listed on the NSE (Cheruiyot, 2010; Too, 2005; Ominde, 2006; Mwangi, 2011; Kiniu, 2011). Despite

conflicting results, most of the studies found a positive relationship between CSR and financial performance. But others, for instance, Williams and Siegel (2001) found no relationship between CSR and financial performance, while Waddock and Graves (1997) found a negative relationship.

Some of the studies established a new trend of companies in Kenya forming foundations to handle their CSR as a focus on social concerns, for instance, East Africa Breweries Ltd (EABL), Safaricom Ltd and British Tobacco Company (BAT) (Ominde, 2006; Makau, 2006.) These companies plough back a certain percentage of their profits to the foundations. Such companies have adopted social reporting guidelines developed by the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI). According to Muthuri (2005) the formation of such foundations is a trend towards voluntary standards and social reporting.

To further establish the practice of CSR in Kenya, the Federation of Kenya Employers (FKE) together with ILO has developed guidelines on CSR policy, implementation and reporting.

#### **2.4.0 Perceptions of CSR Projects**

A study by Ufadhili (2008) found that the major reasons that drive companies to engage in CSR include giving back to the community, corporate sustainability and credibility and company adherence to mission statements. This is consistent with the findings by other studies on CSR (Auka, 2006; Okeyo, 2004; Gichana, 2004).

Other studies of CSR have established that some of the benefits of the practice include enhanced corporate image, sales and customer loyalty and increased productivity (Fombrun and Shanley, 1990; Moon, 2004; Brown and Dacin, 1997; Okeyo, 2004).

Some scholars have questioned the use of CSR as a public relations tool and motivation of organizations which invest in CSR (L'Etang, 1994; Webb and Mohr, 1998; Kivuitu, 2005). Other studies, for instance, (Okeyo, 2004; Anyonge-Munira and Udoto, 2012; Tracey et al, 2005) have raised questions on the sustainability of CSR programmes.

With regard to justification for CSR, various studies have found that proponents of the practice advance four key arguments in making their case: moral obligation, sustainability, license to operate and reputation (Gichana, 2004; Kwalanda, 2007; Auka, 2006)

Studies touching on some aspects of CSR within wildlife conservation have covered human-wildlife conflict and local community needs and aspirations (Hill, 2000; Musyoki, 2007; Kangwana, 1993; Muruthi, 2005).

Other researchers have investigated the impact of wildlife conservation on socio-economic development of local people as well as sharing of benefits derived from wildlife conservation (Naughton-Treves, 1996; Wambuguh, 1998; Kangwana, 1993; Kiiru, 1995; Tonningen, 1993).

Yet other studies have investigated whether individual households have economic incentives when provided with broad community development or social infrastructure (Emerton, 2000). Under this framework, benefits from wildlife conservation accrue to the community as a whole, yet not all members of the community incur wildlife-related losses (Kangwana, 1993; Okello, 2009 and Action Aid International Kenya, 2006) Thus, benefits accruing to the community may not trickle down to the household level where the wildlife-related losses are most felt.

Indeed, some researchers such as Tonningen (1993:5) have questioned the dominant attitudes towards wildlife conservation in Africa as defined by the North in terms of global benefits to be gained.

Tonningen (1993:5) says:

**....upon closer examination it becomes apparent that the objective pursued cannot be attained without the cooperation of the people most directly. For they share the same ecosystems as the wildlife, and their cooperation will not be forthcoming unless they perceive themselves as sharing the benefits thereof.**

According to Emerton (2000), the form in which benefits accrue to communities rarely provided subsistence, income or secure livelihoods and thus may not provide enough incentives for community support for conservation.

According to Lusigi (1981:88), Africans perceived national parks as a “mechanism that forced him from his home” while confrontation with laws governing wildlife “have solidified the negative attitudes toward wildlife and its conservation”.

As a result of wildlife policies and laws that neglected the needs of the local communities, “national parks are surrounded by a hostile population which has no sympathy for the park system or for the conservation efforts” Lusigi (1981).

A study by Wambuguh (1998) in Laikipia District indicated that even with a fully-developed wildlife utilisation programme, it was doubtful that the level of wildlife benefits would ever exceed the cost landowners endured as a result of wildlife on their land.

Some researchers have also described the role of conservation education in changing attitudes of people towards wildlife (Omondi, 1994; Wambuguh 1998; Muruthi, 2005). However, few studies except Kangwana (1993) have investigated the perception of the community as beneficiaries of CSR (Kariuki, 2008).

## 2.5.0 Communicating CSR

Various studies have questioned the use of CSR as a public relations tool and motivation of organizations which invest in CSR (L'Etang, 1994; Webb and Mohr, 1998)

Companies have been criticized for promoting themselves by publicizing their corporate contribution to society (Kivuitu, 2005). The possibility that the effectiveness of CSR can be measured by the amount of publicity received, and not a sense of duty or obligation to society, suggests a self-interested motivation (L'Etang, 1994; Kivuitu, 2005). Notwithstanding the motivation for investing in CSR, organizations ultimately communicate the rationale for their investment.

Studies have shown that many channels have been used by other organisations to communicate about CSR (Ziek, 2009, Ufadhili, 2008; L'Etang, 1994).

A study by Ufadhili (2008) found that companies communicate to stakeholders in various ways but the most frequent were advertisements in newspapers/newsletters/in-house magazines (73 percent), postings on company websites (34 percent) company meetings/field days (32 percent), word of mouth 23 percent) and documentaries (5 percent). Others included intranet, quarterly and annual reports, use of company notice-boards, journals, exhibitions, local leaders and one-on-one meetings.

Other studies have shown that although people don't proactively look for information on CSR, such messages can be embedded in mainstream publications such as the annual report (Ziek, 2009). A study by Odhiambo (2006) found that majority of the companies surveyed had little published on CSR beyond a few lines in the audited accounts and website.

## 2.6.0 Effect of CSR Projects

Managers of business have cited the potential for corporate philanthropy to generate intangible strategic assets like reputational capital, employee commitment, trust, positive action or better relationship with regulatory and legislative bodies (Godfrey, 2005; Ufadhili, 2008).

The various studies that have investigated various aspects of CSR include relationship with corporate strategy (Ominde, 2006), portfolio performance at the NSE (Obusubiri, 2006) managerial attitudes and awareness (Kweyu, 1993; Kiarie, 1997; Korir, 2006; Too, 2005), influence on customer purchase decisions (Makau, 2006; Brown and Dacin, 1997) and its use as a strategic tool for stakeholder management (Odhiambo, 2006).

Studies on the perception of CSR by managers have consistently shown positive attitudes and awareness of the practice (Kweyu, 1993; Kiarie, 1997; Korir, 2006; Too, 2005, Kamau, 2001). However, some studies have found that some managers who have positive attitude towards CSR have failed to implement it because of financial constraints (Tirfie, 2003), (Kamau, 2001) and (Anyona, 2005) or reward-penalty system that relies on tangible quantitative results (Kweyu, 1993).

Studies on the relationship between CSR and portfolio performance have shown inconsistent results. Obusubiri (2006) found a positive correlation between CSR and financial performance of companies listed on the NSE. Related studies on the relationship between social responsibility and profits by Anyona (2005) and Thuo (2006) found that commercial banks that spend more on social responsibility had higher profits. However, these studies did not investigate the causal relationship between social responsibility and profit.



So far, available studies attribute the inconsistency to differences in methodology and the choice of portfolio and CSR measures (Ullman, 1985; Griffin and Mahon, 1997).

Kweyu (1993) investigated attitudes and awareness of executives of medium-scale manufacturing companies to social responsibility and found them to be well aware of the concept and the arguments against and for it. A survey by Kiarie (1997) among executives of middle-scale manufacturing firms in Nairobi found a high level of awareness and engagement in CSR.

Another study by Odhiambo (2006) found that support for education was a top CSR objective for large scale enterprises in Kenya. The same study found that CSR was perceived as a means of dealing with external stakeholders and had a huge impact on the publicity of the organisation. The main reason for CSR was positive public image through location in marketing departments and improved employee morale (Odhiambo, 2006).

In most of the surveyed companies (31 out of 32 respondents), employees were involved in policy formulation while the community and other stakeholders were mainly involved in implementation.

Studies on factors that influence firms' involvement in CSR have found mixed results (Auka, 2006; Okeyo, 2004; Thuo, 2006). Other studies have investigated the role of CSR in enhancing corporate image (Njoga, 2007) and student perceptions of CSR (Elias, 2004). According to a study by Auka (2006), corporate image, moral obligations and societal problems were some of the key factors influencing the practice of CSR among 16 financial institutions in Kenya. A related research by Okeyo (2004) found four dominant rationales for Kenyan firms' involvement in CSR namely long-term strategy, high-public visibility, responsibility and concern for the society as well as competitive advantage. The same study established that the average profitability, industry sector and management style were

the key factors that determined levels of CSR involvement. But a study by Thuo (2006) found that staff contribution and initiatives, customer preference for institutions involved in CSR and government pressure and encouragement were key factors for involvement in CSR.

Research has also explored the relationship between CSR and organisational effectiveness. Studies have shown that CSR generates goodwill for organisations that embrace it since most people tend to prefer dealing with organisations that care about societal problems (Mulwa, 2002; Auka, 2006, 36; Brown and Dacin, 1997).

This was supported by Njoga (2007) whose study in Kajiado found that CSR was instrumental in enhancing the corporate image and creating a competitive edge of Magadi Soda Company. These findings were consistent with those of an investigation by Makau (2006) among 100 economically active respondents in Nairobi supermarkets who were found to be more inclined to buy products from companies that show concern for the community. However, the researcher noted that the purchase decision was not absolute as there were other intervening variables such as price, benefits quality, brand perception, among others. The same study (Makau, 2006) also found that CSR activities considered important by consumers in descending order were employee welfare, education, health and community development while the least important were environmental concerns and responsible communication.

A similar study found that Nairobi residents preferred a bank that engaged in CSR investments (Mulwa, 2002:30). Brown and Dacin (1997) found that CSR can enhance product evaluation. These study findings are consistent with those of other studies, for instance, (Makau, 2006; Mulwa, 2002; Thuo, 2006)

Based on the importance of social responsibility in firm profitability, Waddock and Graves (1997) developed "The Theory of Good Management". The authors showed that good social responsibility performance contributed to improved financial performance and argued that managers who develop good relationships with various shareholders will be rewarded with stronger corporate performance. Anyona's (2005) survey on commercial banks in Kenya found that the amount of funds invested in CSR depends on profitability and financial position. This implies that more profitable banks spend more on CSR than the less profitable ones. However, this does not imply a causal relationship between social responsibility and profit.

Other research has advocated long-term success of the firm as a measure of effectiveness compared to a focus on short-term gains. For example, Porter and Kramer (2002) criticized many corporations for instituting philanthropy programmes as short-term indicators of social responsibility without a corresponding long-term strategy for serving the communities where they operate.

## **2.7 Theoretical Framework**

### **2.7.0 Introduction**

A theoretical framework is instrumental in understanding, organising, and integrating the many activities and purposes of a given phenomenon, in this case the acceptance of the establishment of the concept of a national park into a community living in the larger Amboseli ecosystem. This study is guided by the Diffusion of Innovations Theory pioneered by Everett Rogers.

### **2.7.1 Diffusion of Innovations Theory**

This study was guided by the Diffusion of Innovations Theory which suggests that new ideas and changes spread through a community or social system in a predictable manner (Severin and Tankard, 2001). The theory provides a way of explaining the adoption or rejection of new ideas and practices and the conditions under which this is most likely to take place.

Rogers (1995) defines innovation as a new idea, practice, or object perceived as a new emergence. The newness in Rogers' perception is not only to new knowledge, but might also include persuasion or decision to adopt. Diffusion, on the other hand, is defined as the process that an innovation needs to spread through communication channels over time among people in a community (Almobarraz, 2007).

In the context of this study, the innovation is the establishment of Amboseli National Park in 1974 (Western, 1984), a Western model of wildlife conservation (Lusigi, 1981; Okello, 2009) among the Maasai community, which is the social system (Almobarraz, 2007)

Under the theory, the innovation or new idea is adopted by five adopter categories namely first by innovators (2.5%), followed by early adopters (13.5%), early majority (34%), late majority (34%) and last by laggards (16%) (Rogers, 1995).

The characteristics of each of these groups influence the acceptance. The speed of acceptance is accelerated by the use of opinion leaders to convey the ideas to the target populations (Jacobson et al, 2006; Rogers, 1995).

The theory was developed by Prof Everett Rogers in 1962 in which he combined the information flow research findings with studies about personal influence (Baran and Davis, 2006). This was largely an extension of Paul Lazarsfeld's original idea of the two-step flow theory, in which messages pass from the media through opinion leaders to opinion followers. This theory evolved gradually into a multi-step flow one (Severin and Tankard, 2001).

The four main elements in the classical model of the diffusion of innovations that emerged include (1) the innovation, defined as an idea, practice, or object perceived as new by an individual; (2) which is communicated through certain channels (3) over time (4) among members of a social system (Rogers, 1976; Severin and Tankard, 2001). Rogers broke down the adoption into five stages namely awareness, interest, evaluation, trial and adoption (Rogers, 1995).

He pointed out that innovation may be rejected during any stage of the adoption process. This is different from discontinuance which occurs after adoption of the innovation. Rogers (1995) identifies two types of discontinuance, namely disenchantment discontinuance where a decision to reject an innovation is a result of dissatisfaction with its performance or replacement discontinuance where an innovation is rejected in order to adopt a better innovation.

On one hand, the killing of wild animals by some members of the community in Amboseli as a way of expressing displeasure with the performance of the Park (Lusigi, 1981; Kangwana, 1993; Okello, 2009) is a form of disenchantment discontinuance. The same applies for other negative activities such as land subdivision, poaching and livestock incursion into the Park.

On the other hand, the adoption of alternative land use practices that are incompatible with wildlife conservation, for instance, onion farming (Bulte et al, 2008; Okello, 2009) is a form replacement discontinuance.

Regardless of the nature and characteristics of the people, the properties of an innovation itself affect its rate of adoption in the society. Rogers (1995) identified the five characteristics as being relative advantage, compatibility with existing values and practices, simplicity and ease of use, triability and observable results.

Innovations that are perceived by individuals as having greater relative advantage, compatibility, triability, observability and less complex will be adopted more rapidly than other innovations (Almobarraz, 2007).

When the establishment of Amboseli National Park in Kajiado in 1974 ((Western, 1984) is measured against these properties, it has subsequently been criticized for being “unacceptable” (Lusigi, 1981); “hostile” (Kangwana, 1993) and “alien” (Okello, 2009). Right from introduction, the national park system risked rejection for lack of consultation and consideration of local community needs (Lusigi, 1981, Kangwana, 1993; Okello, 2009).

The Diffusion of Innovations Theory suggests that ideas flow from the media to opinion leaders, who in turn inform others through interpersonal conversations. But this has since been modified to a multi-step flow process in which media are more effective than

interpersonal conversations in spreading information. Interpersonal communication is more effective than mass media in forming or changing predisposition toward an issue of innovation (Rogers, 1995).

Rogers (1995) divided the channels for information exchange into two main categories, mass media and interpersonal. Mass media channels are more useful in creating knowledge about an innovation while interpersonal channels are more useful in changing attitudes about a new idea and subsequently changing behaviour.

Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) contented that a “combination of mass media and interpersonal communication is the most effective way of reaching people with new ideas and persuading them to utilize these innovations”.

Opinion leaders are usually recognized in social systems for their technical competence, social acceptability and conformity to social systems. In addition, compared to their followers, opinion leaders are generally more exposed to external communication, more networked and not averse to taking risks (Rogers, 1995).

In the context of this study, the opinion leaders are the group ranch officials while change agents are NGO and KWS officials.

Rogers assembled data from numerous empirical studies to show that when new technological innovations are introduced, they will pass through a series of stages before being widely adopted (Baran and Davis, 2006; Almobarraz, 2007)

First, most people will become aware of the innovation, often through information from the mass media. Second, the innovations will be adopted by a very small group of innovators or early adopters. Third, opinion leaders will learn from the early adopters and try the innovation themselves. Fourth, if opinion leaders find the innovation useful, they

encourage their friends --- the opinion followers. Finally, after most people have adopted the innovation, a group of laggards or late adopters make the change.

The two-step flow theory by Elihu Katz and Paul Lazarsfeld surfaced at a time of rapid scientific advancement in the fields of medicine and agriculture (Griffin, 2000). The model accurately described the diffusion of innovation among American doctors and farmers in the 1950s. In the two-step model, the mass media channels are used to reach community leaders who then influence the public.

The first stage of communication is the direct transmission of information to a small group of people who stay well-informed. This could be through newspaper articles, television stories, and other mass media techniques that can reach large audiences with basic information. In the second stage, these opinion leaders pass on and interpret the messages to others in face-to-face discussions.

Diffusion of innovation will normally involve different communication sources – mass media, official agencies of change and informal social contacts. Each source may be important at different stages and for different functions. Thus, mass media may produce awareness and knowledge, official agencies at the local level may persuade while personal influence may be important for the decision to adopt or not (McQuail and Windhal, 1981). According to Jacobson et al (2006), if opinion leaders are among those who understand the innovation and believe in its benefits, their testimony and leadership could help diffuse the idea more quickly. But when it comes to action, personal contact with friends, neighbours, opinion leaders and educators makes the difference. This is done through techniques of demonstrations, workshops, meetings and events where people interact with each other. Each member of the social system follows a five-step process involving knowledge, persuasion, decision, implementation and confirmation (McQuail and Windhal, 1981).



The most striking feature of the diffusion of innovations theory is that for most members of a social system or population, the innovation decision process depends on the innovation decisions of other members of the system.

The innovation decision is made through a cost-benefit analysis where the major obstacle is uncertainty (Rogers, 1995). People will adopt an innovation if they believe that it will, all factors considered, enhance their utility. So they must believe that the innovation may yield some relative advantages to the idea that it supersedes. People also determine to what degree the innovation would disrupt other functioning aspects of their daily life. They ask themselves various questions: Is it compatible with existing habits and values? Is it hard to use? Does the newness and unfamiliarity of an innovation infuse the cost-benefit analysis with a large dose of uncertainty? It sounds good but does it work?

This theory assigns a limited role to mass media. The media mainly create awareness of new innovations. Only the early adopters are influenced by media content. Others adopt innovations only after being influenced by other people (change agents). Media are used as a means to draw attention to innovations and as a basis for group discussions led by change agents (Baran and Davis, 2006)

The mass media's most powerful effect on diffusion is that it spreads knowledge of innovations to a large population rapidly. It can even lead to changes in weakly held attitudes. But strong interpersonal ties are usually more effective in the formation and change of strongly held attitudes (Severin and Tankard, 2001). Research has shown that firm attitudes are developed through communication exchanges about the innovation with peers and opinion leaders (Rogers, 1995). Thus, persuading opinion leaders is the easiest way to foment positive attitudes toward an innovation. Rogers explains that the types of

the opinion leaders that the change agents should target depend on the nature of the social system. Social systems can be characterized as heterophilous or homophilous.

On one hand, heterophilous social systems tend to encourage change from system norms. In them, there is more interaction between people from different backgrounds, indicating a greater interest in being exposed to new ideas. These systems have opinion leadership that is more innovative because these systems are desirous of innovation. On the hand, homophilous social systems tend toward system norms. Most interaction within them is between people from similar backgrounds. People and ideas that differ from the norm are seen as strange and undesirable. These systems have opinion leadership that is not very creative because these systems are averse to innovation.

Successful efforts to diffuse an innovation depend on characteristics of the situation. To eliminate a deficit of awareness of an innovation, mass media channels are most appropriate. To change prevailing attitudes about an innovation, it is best to persuade opinion leaders. However, homophilous systems are likely to frustrate change agents with their resistance to change (Rogers, 1995 and Severin and Tankard, 2001)).

This theory has been credited with integration of a large amount of empirical findings into a useful theory and represents an advance over earlier limited-effects theories (Baran and Davis, 2006 and McQuail and Windhal, 1981). It has also been credited with drawing from existing empirical generalizations and synthesizing them into a coherent, insightful perspective. It is not only practical but is also consistent with most findings from effects surveys and persuasion experiments.

However, it has been criticized for various drawbacks especially for underestimating the power of media, especially contemporary media (Baran and Davis, 2006). The theory has been criticized for being prescriptive and involving assumptions which may not always fit

actual conditions. For instance, the model is designed from the perspective of an external or superior agent of change. Yet in reality, change can and should occur from below those who need it (McQuail and Windhal, 1981).

The model has also been criticized for presupposing a linear, source-dominated, rational sequence of events, planned in advance and with criteria of rationality. In real life, there is randomness and many elements of chance in decision-making. The model also lacks feedback loops from decision-making and confirmation to knowledge and attitude (McQuail and Windhal, 1981).

The theory has also been faulted for drawbacks stemming from its application (Baran and Davis, 2006:175). For instance, the theory facilitated “the adoption of innovations that were sometimes not well understood or even desired by adopters.”

# Chapter Three

## Research Methodology

### 3.0 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research methodology, including the research design as well as data techniques used to analyse and present data. The population of the study and its sample and sampling techniques are explained. Measurement instruments used for data collection are also described. In a nutshell, the chapter describes what was done and how it was done. The choice of methodology was primarily based on the problem to be investigated, purpose of the study, theoretical framework, and nature of the data as well as the researcher's skills (Oso and Onen, 2009).

#### 3.1.0 Research Design

Research design describes the pattern that the research intends to follow, the plan or strategy for conducting the research. The choice of a design was guided by the purpose, objectives and questions of the study (Oso and Onen, 2009).

Survey research design was chosen for this study because it enabled the researcher to meet the objectives by providing information that helped answer the research questions (Babbie, 1995). The choice of the survey research design was also guided by such considerations as the economy of the design and rapid data collection. The design was also selected because it was considered the most appropriate in enabling the researcher to find out the respondents' opinions, attitudes and behaviour in a large population (Babbie, 1995).

The study population comprised opinion leaders from Amboseli, who were expected to have deeper knowledge of KWS CSR projects by virtue of their experience in developing the Amboseli National Park Management Plan (Kenya Wildlife Service, 2008a) and other similar roles in the community.

The choice of opinion leaders was guided by innovation diffusion theory which suggests that new ideas and changes spread through a community in a predictable manner, accepted first by innovators, followed by early adopters, early majority, late majority and last by laggards (Rogers, 1995; Jacobson et al, 2006; Baran and Davis 2006). The speed of acceptance is accelerated by the use of opinion leaders to convey the ideas to target audiences (Baran and Davis, 2006; Jacobson et al, 2006). In this case, the acceptance of the national park and conservation is dependent on group ranch officials' dissemination of the benefits of conservation to the community.

Amboseli is one of the many national parks in Kenya where KWS has initiated CSR projects (KWS 2006; Kangwana, 1993; Western, 1982; Bulte et al, 2008; Okello, 2009).

According to Ngechu (2006), qualitative methods are preferred by researchers whose main focus is study of individuals, communities, groups and societies' attitudes, values and beliefs. Such methods are preferred because they encourage greater interaction between the researcher and the target community members and bring out holistic data to solve immediate problems. They also elicit from the community in-depth holistic information, skills and attitudes, values and knowledge.

According to Glatthorn and Joyner (2005) the qualitative perspective is concerned with exploring, describing and explaining a phenomenon. Although designs for qualitative methods are flexible, economic and subject to modification by participants, their results are not generalisable to the entire population (Ngechu, 2006).

The qualitative approach was successfully used by Kariuki (2008) while investigating the practice of CSR by British American Tobacco in Mbeere District in Kenya where it generated rich and detailed data.

Similarly, many MBA studies on CSR have been conducted on companies listed on the NSE (Ominde, 2006; Kweyu, 1993; Anyona, 2005; Auka 2006; Njoga, 2007; Makau; 2006; Mulwa, 2002 and Tirfie, 2003) using the questionnaires and the 'drop and pick later' method of data collection supplemented by face-to-face interviews and telephone interviews (Odhiambo, 2006; Makau, 2006; Kwalanda, 2007).

The preference for descriptive approach and questionnaires was probably because they collected numerical data that was easily statistically analyzed (Babbie, 1995). Most of these studies focused on Nairobi save for (Njoga, 2007; Muthuri (2005) who conducted their study in Kajiado County.

A preliminary reconnaissance visit to Amboseli was conducted to enable the researcher to gain a better understanding of the people as well as recruit field assistants and interpreters where necessary.

### **3.2.0 Sampling Procedures and Population**

The choice of the Amboseli ecosystem as the study site has been informed by the fact the future of one of Kenya's leading national parks in the number of visitors and revenue is bleak if the current trend continues (Bulte, et al, 2008; Western, 1982, Kangwana, 1993 and Okello, 2009).

For purposes of this research, non-probability sampling techniques were used. In particular, purposive/judgmental and snowball sampling were chosen.

Purposive sampling involved selecting for the sample respondents the researcher judged were familiar with the CSR projects sponsored by KWS. The initial respondents with the desired characteristics further referred the researcher to others whom they knew had the same experience and knowledge as explained by (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999 and Oso and Onen, 2009).

The purposive/judgmental and snowball sampling techniques were preferred because the target respondents were expected to have more in-depth understanding of CSR given their roles as opinion leaders and experience (Kangwana, 1993; Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999 and Rogers, 1962). The respondents, who had basic education, and were familiar with wildlife conservation and tourism, were also more likely to fill out the questionnaires and return them. This technique relied on the subjective judgement of the research as suggested by (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996).

Although the non-probability sampling technique is biased, it is justified on the basis of the objectives of the research and the shortage of resources (Balso and Lewis, 2001). In the case of this study, the information collected provided useful insights into the practice of CSR and the relationship between the community living around Amboseli National Park and KWS.

The population of study included KWS former and current employees, government officials and community leaders in the larger Amboseli ecosystem, including group ranch leaders, clan elders, church leaders and non governmental organisations as well as community-based organisations in the ecosystem.

Community leaders were chosen as respondents because they reflect communities' attitudes and they also influence communities' participation in events (Bolton, 1991; Zachary, 2000). Community leaders also play a key role in policy decision-making as well

as providing direction, initiative and inspiration. The choice of community leaders was guided by the Diffusion of Innovations model of communication effects, which suggests that ideas flow from the media to opinion leaders, who in turn inform others through interpersonal conversations (McQuail and Windhal, 1981; Baran and Davis, 2006; Rogers, 1995). Therefore, the targeted respondents were considered best placed to provide the required information on CSR.

Five wardens in the region where the Amboseli National Park is located were purposively selected to participate in this study by virtue of their significant role in working with the local communities.

Key informants included KWS officials, who had worked in Amboseli or had participated in the preparation of the park's management plans (KWS, 2008a). Therefore, the respondents were expected to be more knowledgeable on wildlife conservation issues in the study site.

The general criteria for selecting respondents in the study included:

- (a) Participation in the preparation of the Amboseli Ecosystem Management Plan.
- (b) Employment by Kenya Wildlife Service in a role that has a direct bearing on the CSR programme.
- (c) Have been voluntarily involved in CSR projects sponsored by KWS



### **3.3 Sampling method**

This study used non-probability sampling. The purposive or judgmental sampling was chosen because of the researcher's judgement and knowledge of the population, its elements, the expertise of the respondents and the nature of the research aims (Baxter and Babbie, 2004; Beins, 2004). The sampling method was also used by Kariuki (2008) who found it useful in gathering the desired data.

The choice of community leaders, especially group ranch officials, has also been guided by the two-step/multi-step flow of information in which opinion leaders screen media messages and pass on those messages to help others share their views (Baran and Davis, 2006; Rogers, 1962).

In order to get information about how CSR was conceived and how it has been implemented, a number of key KWS personnel were interviewed namely, the community warden, the senior warden in charge of the park, former senior wardens in the park, and the assistant director for the region.

The community leaders, NGO/CBO officials and former and current KWS employees suggested other possible respondents with the required information.

## **3.4 Data Collection Methods**

### **3.4.1 Reconnaissance Visit**

A one-week reconnaissance visit was made to the study site in August 2010. This visit provided useful feedback. Appropriate changes were made to questionnaires to simplify the questions and provide an easier format for recording answers. The visit was followed

by the actual data collection in September and October. From September 1 to 7, 2010, 60 questionnaires (Appendix III) were distributed to community leaders.

Since this study was conducted two years ago, the strained relationship between KWS and the communities in Amboseli is still prevalent as demonstrated by the recent killing of elephants and lions (Lion Guardians, 2012; Jackman, 2012). This means that from the time the data were collected to date, the situation has remained more or less the same. Therefore, the data are still up to date and valid.

An introductory letter of approval by the KWS Director for the research (Appendix IV) was included describing the purpose of the research. Respondents were assured that their personal identities and that of their organizations would be treated as confidential. Each of the respondents was asked to fill in the questionnaire within one week. By October 15, there were a total of 47 completed questionnaires, a 78 per cent response rate. This was regarded as a very good response whose results were considered reliable. This is because a response rate of at least 50 per cent is considered adequate for analysis and reporting (Babbie, 1995; Odhiambo, 2006; Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999).

The reconnaissance visit was necessary to enable the researcher to gain a better understanding of the people in the area under study as well as recruit field assistants and interpreters where necessary. The visit was also used for familiarization of the site study and pre-testing of the questionnaire. The pre-test of the questionnaires looked at various aspects of the data collection instruments, including length of time required, clarity of wording, appropriate format, and convenience (Hoyle, et al., 2002).

During the visit, preliminary discussions were held with some key informants, namely KWS employees both at the headquarters and in the field as well as the selected community leaders. They were informed about the overall purpose of the study and the

aim of every individual question, so they could confirm whether the question was understood as intended. The comments and reactions of the pretest respondents were noted as clues to questions that might be misunderstood or have other difficulties. The pretest respondents were also asked to critique the questionnaire, point out difficulties they had in following the sequence and explain particular questions.

The pretest was used to identify unforeseen problems in question wording, question sequence or questionnaire administration before the actual study.

### **3.4.2 Data Collection**

The choice of tool and instrument depended mainly on the attributes of the subjects, research topic, problem, question, objectives, design, expected data and results (Ngechu, 2006).

Both secondary and primary data were collected. Primary data was collected through the use of questionnaires with key informants from KWS, selected government agencies and community leaders in the district.

A pre-test of the questionnaire was conducted to enhance its validity and reliability as well as to guide on probable response rate (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999).

The purpose was to gain insight into why the local community in the Amboseli ecosystem has remained hostile to conservation despite the KWS investment in CSR activities.

KWS employees to take part in the study were selected on the basis of their knowledge and experience in the Amboseli ecosystem. Other interviewees included community-based group leaders, government agency officials, NGOs and community-based organisation

leaders as well as private enterprises involved in wildlife conservation. These were considered knowledgeable on KWS CSR.

Questionnaires were used in collecting primary data for this research. This involved self-administered questionnaire to community leaders in the Amboseli ecosystem and the relevant KWS employees.

Most of the questions were open-ended to accord the respondents the freedom to express their ideas and views concerning such questions as 'what, why and explain' (Babbie, 1995). Such questions allowed the respondents to point out factors other than those that the researcher may have considered as well as to reveal the reasoning behind their answers (McBurney and White, 2007).

Such questions were time-consuming and difficult to analyse or code because the answers are in narrative form. Degrees of detail in the answers also varied. In addition, open-ended questions required more effort from respondents and more literate or articulate respondents felt less intimidated in providing answers to open ended questions than less literate or articulate respondents.

For purposes of this study, most of the questions were open-ended. The flexibility of open-ended questions makes them more useful for smaller and preliminary studies like this one. This permitted the data to provide some insights into the respondents' views of the CSR (McBurney and White, 2007: 239).

The 'drop-and-pick later' method was used to distribute the questionnaires. Five questionnaires were emailed to respondents who preferred this method of distribution. Follow-ups were made to enhance the response rate of the questionnaires.

The method of distributing questionnaires among community leaders and KWS employees has been chosen because of various advantages (McBurney and White, 2007; Babbie,

1995; Hoyle, et al., 2002). The advantages include low cost, limited potential interviewer bias, less pressure for immediate responses and offer respondents a greater feeling of anonymity. A feeling of anonymity encourages open responses to sensitive questions.

However, the questionnaire method suffers the drawback of potential poor quality of data and low response rate. The interviewer also lacks control over the question order and the context of question answering, especially the influence of other people. The questionnaires do not allow the interviewer to correct misunderstandings or answer any questions that the respondent might have (McBurney and White, 2007). In such cases, the respondent might answer incorrectly or not at all out of confusion or frustration.

To increase the rate of response, a number of strategies were used including a letter of approval for the research from the KWS Director (see Appendix IV)

The sources of secondary data for the study included government reports such as District Development Plans (DDPs), wildlife-related laws and policies, KWS publications, including annual reports, strategic plans and other relevant reports.

### **3.5.0 Data Analysis Procedures**

Once data were collected, they were cleaned, coded and organised in a systematic manner to facilitate analysis. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used in the analysis of the data where appropriate.

The analysis employed descriptive statistics such as frequency distribution and percentages where appropriate to describe the demographic characteristics of the respondents as well as their responses. Quantitative data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The descriptive statistics was used to summarise and organise the data in an effective and meaningful way.

On the other hand, the qualitative data from open-ended questions were analysed following steps identified by Miles and Huberman (1994). The data were cleaned, edited and coded based on key themes and coherent categories. Content analysis was conducted on the data and results presented in narratives and tables where appropriate (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Berelson, 1952; Weber 1990). This was mainly for data collected from Sections B, C and D, which covered issues that were the key focus of the research, namely the relations subsisting between KWS and the communities living around Amboseli National Park, KWS response to the situation, why the apparent ineffectiveness of the response and problems experienced in implementation. Suggestions for improvement were also made. The results are presented and analysed in the next chapter.

# Chapter Four

## Data Analysis Presentation and Discussion

### 4.0. Introduction

This study investigated the role of CSR projects in managing the relationship between KWS and the Amboseli communities. This was prompted by the fact that despite KWS efforts to win community goodwill through CSR projects dating back to the 1950s (Kenya Wildlife Service, 2006; Okello, 2009 and Kangwana, 1993), the future of the Amboseli ecosystem is bleak owing to local community's hostile actions which threaten conservation (Bulte, et al, 2008; Campbell et al., 2003 Kangwana, 1993; Okello, 2009 and Western, 1982).

In this chapter, the data collected through questionnaires were analysed using both quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques, presented and discussed. A copy of the questionnaire used to gather the data from respondents is provided (Appendix III). The findings are presented under the following five sub-headings:

- (i) Rate of return of data collection instruments
- (ii) Respondents' demographic information
- (iii) Relations subsisting between KWS and the community living around Amboseli National Park
- (iv) KWS response to the situation
- (v) Why apparent ineffective KWS response
- (vi) Enhancing effectiveness of the CSR projects

#### **4.1.0 Rate of Return of Data Collection Instruments**

A total of 60 questionnaires were distributed to respondents, out of which 47 filled and returned, representing a 78 percent response rate. This was regarded as a very good response whose results were considered reliable. This is because a response rate of at least 50 per cent is considered adequate for analysis and reporting (Babbie, 1995; Odhiambo, 2006; Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999).

#### **4.2.0 Respondents' Demographic Information**

The researcher gathered the following respondents' demographic information: sex, age, academic and professional qualification, occupation and working experience. The results are presented in the following sections and summarized in table 4.1.



Table 4.1: Respondents' demographic information

Respondents' demographic information n=47		Frequency	Percentage*
Sex	Male	38	80.9
	Female	9	19.1
Age (years)	20-30	22	46.8
	31-40	11	23.4
	41-50	12	25.5
	Over 50	2	4.3
Academic & professional qualification	Primary	1	2.1
	Secondary	17	36.2
	College/Diploma/Certificate	21	44.7
	University/Degree	8	17.0
Occupation	Teacher/lecturer/group ranch officials	22	46.8
	KWS current and former employees	8	17.0
	Provincial Administration	6	12.7
	Non governmental organisation/community based organisation	3	6.4
	Not indicated	3	6.4
	Volunteer	2	4.3
	Farmer	2	4.3
	Business	1	2.1
Working experience (years)	Less than 1	6	12.7
	1-5	15	31.9
	6-10	9	19.2
	Above 10	17	36.2

(Source: Primary analysis by author)

\*Percentage response is out of 47 respondents and is not cumulative. Hence, the percentages do not add up to 100%

#### 4.2.1 Distribution of respondents by sex

The study had a total of 60 targeted participants, out of whom 45 were male and 15 female, representing 75 and 25 percent respectively. This is summarized in table 4.1

Out of the 47 respondents who filled questionnaires and returned them, a total of 38 were males, representing 80.9 percent while 9 were females representing 19.1 percent as shown in table 4.1. The predominance of male respondents in this study is a reflection of gender inequality in leadership positions in the community under study (Kangwana, 1993 and Okello, 2009). The 19.1 percent of respondents being women is a significant proportion given that the community under study is stratified and patriarchal with each of the social groups experiencing different problems or having different perceptions of a problem. Women and men have been found to experience living with wildlife differently (Kangwana, 1993). Indeed, women in the study area are excluded from the membership of group ranch yet benefits from wildlife are only channeled through group ranches (Kangwana, 1993). In addition, fewer females volunteered to take part in the study due to the fact that the instrument of collecting the data was self-administered questionnaires which required a high level of literacy (Babbie, 1995). A study by Kangwana (1993) found that social standing on the basis of age-set and gender within the Maasai community in Amboseli were some of the key factors influencing attitudes towards wildlife and KWS. From this study's lower number of women respondents, it's evident that male dominance and patriarchy still holds. The exclusion of women from leadership positions in group ranches implies that a significant population of the community was not exposed to the right information by opinion leaders under the Diffusion of Innovations Theory (Rogers, 1995; Severin and Tankard, 2001)

#### **4.2.2 Distribution of respondents by age**

Twenty-two of the respondents representing 46.8 per cent were youthful opinion leaders in the age bracket of 20-30 years as shown in table 4.1 Such opinion leaders are more likely

to be better educated and could be more actively involved in community development. This age bracket could also include more direct beneficiaries of the education bursaries offered under KWS CSR projects. This finding of youthful opinion leaders concurs with that of (Kangwana, 1993) who found that group ranch membership is educated men. In the second rank were 12 respondents in the 41-50 age bracket representing 25.5 per cent. These might be parents of the beneficiaries of the CSR programmes. The third category were 11 respondents aged 31 to 40 years representing 23.4 per cent. They could be young working class parents or yet to have school going children in need of bursaries. For respondents aged over 50, only two returned filled questionnaires, representing 4.3 percent. These age bracket group is likely to have more illiterate respondents and those unwilling to take part in such studies. However, they are likely to have better institutional memory about the wildlife conservation and the community.

Research by Kangwana (1993) found significant differences in attitudes to wildlife based on gender and age. The differences were attributed to the stratification of the Maasai community with elders at the top of the age-set system. Such elders are the ones who attend group ranch meetings with some *morans*, "but never women" and know more about the benefits to be received from wildlife (Kangwana, 1993). This implies that age and gender stratification has a major bearing on community attitudes towards wildlife and KWS. The exclusion of women from the group ranch meetings has a major bearing on their acceptance of the Amboseli National Park as an innovation when considered under the Diffusion of Innovations Theory (Rogers, 1995; Severin and Tankard, 2001). Women are unlikely to receive information as envisaged in the multi-step flow of information through opinion leaders.

#### **4.2.3 Distribution of respondents by academic and professional qualifications**

A total of 21 respondents representing 44.7 percent attained a minimum of college, diploma and certificate education. This finding could be attributed to the fact that this study's targeted sample was biased in favour of educated opinion leaders who had been involved in wildlife conservation. Only 1 per cent finished primary school as the highest level of educational attainment. This reflected their minority status as opinion leaders. The finding that nearly half of the respondents (44.7 percent) had at least post-secondary education contrasts with the finding that low levels of technical expertise and education in the Amboseli community had made it difficult for the Maasai to benefit more from their natural resources or use them in a sustainable way (Okello, 2009). The contrast could be attributed to the purposive and snowball sampling techniques used in this study that targeted opinion leaders and not the general community. Education is an important variable as it informs the way land is utilized and harnessed for the benefit of local communities. Indeed, higher levels of literacy are often associated with more responsible, environmental compatible approach to using land (Okello, 2009). Under the Diffusion of Innovations Theory, education is one determinant of the higher socio-economic status of the innovators and early adopters (Rogers, 1995). This implies a higher acceptance of the innovation of a national park among the educated than the illiterate.

#### **4.2.4 Distribution of respondents by occupation**

A total of 22 respondents indicated that they were teachers, representing 46.8 percent as summarized in table 4.1. This was followed by 8 respondents, representing 17 per cent, who indicated that they were either former or current employees of KWS. The third

category was Provincial Administration comprising 6 respondents, representing 12.7 percent. Non governmental organisation (NGO)/community-based organisation (CBO) officials and those who didn't indicate their occupation each had 3 respondents, representing 6.4 percent each. These were followed by farmers and volunteers with each having 2 respondents, representing 4.3 percent each. Lastly, was one business person, representing 2.1 per cent. The predominance of teachers among this study's respondents could be attributed to their easier availability in schools and their willingness to participate in the study. Besides, teachers are opinion leaders by virtue of their education and socio-economic status in area under study. The breakdown of the respondents is shown in table 4.1

#### **4.2.5 Working experience in wildlife conservation**

From the study, 17 of the respondents representing 36.2 percent indicated that they had been engaged in wildlife conservation issues for more than 10 years as shown in table 4.1. This group was expected to have a better institutional memory of the dynamics of the KWS CSR projects in the study area. This implied that their observations and suggestions are more likely borne from their long experience. The second category of respondents comprising 15 respondents indicated that they had an experience of between one to five years. This was followed by 9 respondents representing 19.2 per cent for those with 6 to 10 years. Those with less than one year experience were only 6 representing 12.7 percent. Generally, experience could be a factor in attaining positions of opinion leaders who were the preferred respondents in this study. Respondents' working experience in wildlife conservation is important given that Amboseli pioneered the distribution of benefits from wildlife to local people to win their cooperation (Kangwana, 1993; Lindsay, 1987 and

Western, 1982). This implies that findings from Amboseli could be useful in other areas in Kenya and beyond that adopt similar strategies in winning community goodwill for wildlife conservation.

### 4.3.0 Relations between KWS and the Amboseli community

The first objective of this study was to establish the relations subsisting between KWS and the community living around Amboseli National Park. To achieve this objective, respondents were asked to rate the usefulness of the projects as well as explain their responses. Respondents were also asked to state why KWS established CSR projects in Amboseli and if the goals had been achieved. They were also asked to state whether the CSR projects had made the community view wildlife conservation positively. Respondents were also asked to mention any benefits KWS had derived from the CSR investment as well as community feelings towards the CSR projects.

#### 4.3.1. Distribution of respondents' by direct engagement in KWS CSR projects

Table 4.2: Distribution of respondents' by direct engagement in KWS CSR project

Respondents' reengagement in KWS CSR projects		
Respondents' answer n=47	Frequency	Percentage response
Yes	26	55.3
No	21	44.7
Total	47	100

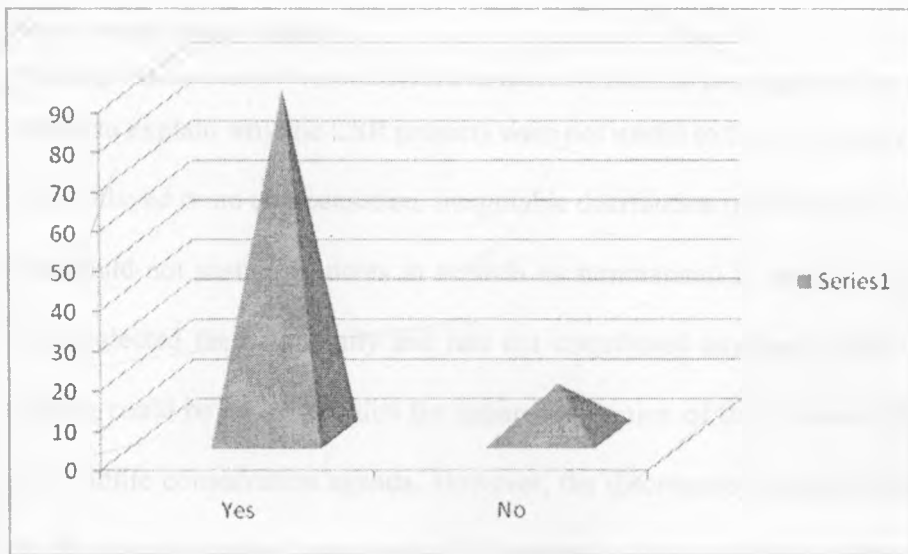
(Source: Primary analysis by author)

Twenty six respondents representing 55.3 per cent reported that they had direct engagement with KWS community projects while a close 21 respondents representing

44.7 percent lacked direct engagement as shown in Table 4.2. This proportion implies that the respondents were varied and not necessarily those of a homogenous group with same level of experience or exposure. The respondents' direct engagement with KWS CSR projects was expected to provide first hand knowledge of KWS CSR projects. According to the Diffusion of Innovations Theory, it is more difficult for a new idea to be adopted by members such a heterophilous group of the social system (Severin and Tankard, 2001 and Rogers, 1995). More effective communication occurs when two or more individuals are homophilous.

### 4.3.2 Respondents' rating of KWS CSR projects' usefulness to the community

Figure 4.1: Respondents' rating of KWS projects usefulness to the community



(Source: Primary analysis by author)

An overwhelming majority of 41 respondents representing 87.2 per cent of the study respondents indicated, that the KWS CSR projects were useful to the community as shown in Figure 4.1 4.6. Only 6 respondents representing 12.8 per cent said the projects were not

useful to the community. Figure 4.1 clearly shows the magnitude of the respondents indicating that the usefulness of the KWS CSR projects

Table 4.3: Respondents' explanation of the rating of the usefulness of KWS CSR projects to the community

Explanation of the rating of the usefulness of KWS CSR projects to the community			
Respondents answers	n=47	Frequency	Percentage *
Employment		16	34.0
Education		15	31.9
Reduced human wildlife conflict		12	25.5
Public sensitization on importance of wildlife conservation		10	21.3
Water		10	21.3
Compensation		4	8.5
Not indicated		3	6.4

(Source: Primary analysis by author)

\*Percentage response is out of 47 respondents and is not cumulative. Hence, the percentages do not add up to 100%

Asked to explain why the CSR projects were not useful to the community, the respondents cited delayed or no compensation, inequitable distribution of the benefits, too little bursary that could not sustain students in schools as summarized in table 4.3. Others said KWS had neglected the community and had not contributed anything to the community. This finding could be an explanation for apparent rejection of the Amboseli National Park and the wildlife conservation agenda. However, the discrepancy between this study's finding on the opinion leaders' awareness (87.2 percent of the usefulness of the CSR projects as seen in table 4.5 and the bleak future of Amboseli National Park as found by other studies (Bulte et al 2008; Okello, 2009 and Campbell et al, 2000) could be a pointer to other factors at work. Some studies have cited inequitable distribution of the economic benefits from wildlife conservation as one of the possible explanations (Kellert *et al*, 2000; Kangwana, 1993; Action Aid Kenya International, 2006; Okello, 2009; Campbell et al.,



2002 and Mburu et al., 2003). Others have cited escalating human wildlife conflicts as a possible reason. Bulte et al., (2008) says the local community is divided about the benefits from the park in the form of revenue sharing and job opportunities. Indeed, some members of the community indicated that they were frustrated that certain beneficial policies that were promised to them when the park was created are yet to be implemented, such as water boreholes outside the park (Bulte et al., 2008; Kangwana, 1993 and Western, 1982). A study by Action Aid International Kenya (2006) established that the main beneficiaries from wildlife were communities whose land bordered Amboseli. The benefits included yearly payouts, school bursaries, community development projects and involvement in ecotourism activities. However, communities that didn't border the park and were not involved in ecotourism ventures "did not benefit despite suffering equally from the brunt of wildlife" Three of this study's respondents representing 6.4 percent did not provide an explanation on their rating of the usefulness of KWS CSR projects to the community.

The 41 respondents representing 87.2 per cent who rated the KWS projects as useful to the community cited various benefits including employment, education, reduced human wildlife conflict, public sensitization of the importance wildlife conservation, water, health, compensation as shown in table 4.6. This finding concurs with research by Kangwana (1993) in Amboseli in which just over half of the respondents (50.9 percent) were opposed to the removal of wildlife citing benefits such as jobs and schools.

#### **4.4.0 KWS Response to the Situation**

The second objective of this study was to establish how KWS responded to the above situation. To achieve this objective, the respondents were asked to state the different kinds of CSR projects KWS had established in Amboseli and how they were selected. They

were also asked how they came to know about the CSR projects and which communication methods they considered most effective in creating community awareness about the CSR projects. Respondents were also requested to state why they considered the communication methods effective and to state how KWS could communicate better about its community projects. Respondents were finally asked to suggest ways KWS could improve the way CSR projects were selected and developed as well as to state whether the projects had been useful to the community.

#### 4.4.1 Types of KWS CSR projects in Amboseli

Table 4 4: Respondents' knowledge on nature of KWS CSR projects in Amboseli

KWS CSR projects established in Amboseli		
Answer Options	Frequency	Percentage*
Education	34	72.3
Water	22	46.8
Employment	16	34.0
Protection and security	13	27.7
Nature-based micro enterprises	8	17.0
Compensation and security	7	14.9
Health	4	8.5
Not indicated	3	6.4
Transport	2	4.3
Afforestation	1	2.1

(Source: Primary analysis by author)

\*Percentage response is out of 47 respondents and is not cumulative. Hence, the percentages do not add up to 100%

When asked to name different kinds of CSR projects KWS had established in Amboseli, the respondents identified 9 of them as summarized in table 4.4. This compares well with KWS official publications and other studies which indicated that the organisation's CSR projects focused on public education, health facilities and water (Kenya Wildlife Service 2006; 2007; 2008 and Anyonge-Bashir and Udoto, 2012). Interestingly, this finding shows that the respondents in Amboseli were aware of more CSR projects than what KWS had indicated in its official documents. However, 4 respondents representing 8.5 percent indicated that they were not aware of any KWS CSR project in the area of study.

A majority 34 respondents representing 72.3 percent identified education as one type of KWS CSR project in the area. The predominance of respondents identifying education-related CSR projects could be attributed to their majority being teachers. Some of the respondents could also be beneficiaries of the KWS bursaries. This result confirms other studies on KWS CSR projects (Action Aid International Kenya, 2006:49; Kangwana 1993 and Okello, 2009)

This was followed by 22 respondents representing 46.8 percent who indicated water as the second kind of CSR project. Amboseli falls within a water-scarce zone (Western, 1982; Kangwana, 1993 and Okello, 2009) and any initiative meant to alleviate this problem was quickly recalled by the respondents. However other studies (Bulte *et al*, 2008 and Kangwana, 1993) have cited breakdown in water pipes and failure to dig boreholes in areas outside the Park as a source of dissatisfaction in the community.

In the third place was employment identified by 16 respondents representing 34.0 per cent. Respondents who identified this category of projects mentioned employment in KWS and NGOs like Amboseli Trust for Elephants and Born Free Foundation. It's likely that the respondents were aware of community members who had secured employment due to the

presence of the national park in the area of study. In the fourth place was protection and security identified by 13 respondents representing 27.6 percent. Although protection of people and their property from destruction by wildlife is a legal mandate of KWS, the respondents identified it as a contribution to community welfare. The fifth category of project was nature-based micro-enterprises identified by 8 respondents representing 17.0 percent. The respondents cited community *boma* cultural centres, which host fee-paying visitors who also visit the park. Compensation for wildlife-related losses was mentioned by 7 respondents representing 14.9 percent. The mere fact that some respondents indicated this as an optional CSR activity implies lack of community awareness of the fact that this is a government legal mandate, and not KWS CSR. Health, which is one of the core pillars of the KWS CRS project, (KWS, 2006) was number 7 with 4 respondents representing 8.5 percent of the total respondents. The low ranking of health could be attributed to the community confusion about the difference between the KWS legal mandate and CSR projects. In the 8th position was transport with 2 respondents representing 4.3 percent while in the last position was afforestation mentioned by 1 respondent representing 2.1 percent. Given the vastness of the area and lack of reliable means of transport especially on market days, community appreciates the contribution by KWS although this is not reflected in various KWS policy documents and other publications. Other respondents indicated that the KWS CSR projects included game scouts, fencing water sources, creating wildlife corridors and establishment of Maasai *manyattas* as community-managed tourist attraction centres. Knowledge about KWS CSR projects in Amboseli has been found to be a function of various factors including age, gender, education and group ranch membership (Kangwana, 1993).

Other studies (Godfrey and Hatch, 2007) have raised the question of which CSR activities should an organisation engage in and how should the organisation manage tradeoffs between different sphere of an activity.

This study's findings on the types of CSR projects most known to respondents being social welfare and the environment are consistent with other studies (Kwalanda, 2007; Auka, 2006; Makau, 2006; Gichana, 2004 and Too, 2005).

According to Anyonge-Bashir and Udoto (2012) the key pillars of the KWS CSR were public education on wildlife matters, provision of health facilities and clean water to communities which interact with wildlife and bear the cost of its conservation and management. Generally, this study's results showed that the respondents' knowledge of KWS CSR projects concurred with that in various KWS publications (Kenya Wildlife Service 2006; 2007 and 2008). This finding confirms what documented literature has on the benefits the communities living around Amboseli have received since exclusion from the Park in 1977. For instance, the *1973 Amboseli Development Plan* provided for grazing compensation payable to group ranches (Kangwana, 1993). It also provided for employment of the local people in lodges and use of amenities such as schools and building of dispensary to be shared by Park staff and the community (Western, 1982). From these responses, it is evident that there is confusion among some community members about what is optional as CSR and what KWS is obliged to do as the government agency in charge of wildlife. Overall, the study revealed that the respondents were aware that KWS had invested in various CSR projects in social welfare and community development, especially education, water, nature-based enterprises and health. These could be due to the fact that the projects were implemented as part of negotiations between Group Ranch leaders and KWS. However, the community perceives other non-

documented contributions to the community like transport to market places as CSR sponsored by KWS

#### 4.4.2 Community projects selection

Table 4.5: Respondents' knowledge on how CSR projects were selected

How are these projects selected?		
Respondent options	Frequency	Percentage *
Community meetings	40	85.1
Not aware	12	25.5
KWS policy	10	21.3
Proposal writing	6	12.8

(Source: Primary analysis by author)

\*Percentage response is out of 47 respondents and is not cumulative. Hence, the percentages do not add up to 100%

With regards to the respondent's knowledge of the selection of community projects, 12 respondents representing 25.5 percent said they were not aware of how projects were selected as summarized in table 4.5. These could be some of the respondents who had indicated that they were not aware of any community projects established by KWS as shown in table 4.2. Research by Action Aid International Kenya ((2006:28) also found that none of the respondents in the study were aware of the revenue generated in Amboseli National Park.

However, in this study an overwhelming 40 respondents representing 85.1 percent mentioned community meetings as the leading way KWS uses to select projects as shown in table 4.3. In this category, group ranch officials meetings were the most cited others being workshops, seminars, community leaders and interviews. A study by Kangwana (1993) indicated wildlife authorities wrongly assumed that negotiations with a few representatives of community will be relevant to all members of the group ranches

whereas “Maasai democracy is very localized” such negotiations over-concentrated on more educated and agriculturalist Maasai around Namelok to the disadvantage of the pastoralist Maasai.

At the same time, this study’s finding could be an indicator of KWS involvement of the community in the selection of projects and their implementation. It is important to note that this study favoured opinion leaders and it is likely that the respondents were part of the local elites, who are believed to be responsible for the inequitable sharing of benefits from wildlife (Kangwana, 1993).

Group ranch committee members usually spent money at their discretion on local projects including education, water and livestock. Some researchers have also argued that there is poor local institutional framework where communal benefits and property are exploited by local elites (Okello, 2009; Sindiga, 1995 and Thompson and Homewood, 2002). It’s important to note that group ranches came into being shortly before the creation of the Park and became the main channels of wildlife benefits to the community. The criticisms against group ranch officials could partly explain the community’s rejection of the Park. The findings demonstrate a failure of the opinion leadership role as envisaged in the Diffusion of Innovations Theory where the opinion leaders are expected to be at the centre of interpersonal communication after receiving information from the mass media (Rogers, 1995).

From the study as shown in table 4.5, 10 respondents representing 21.3 per cent mentioned KWS policy as one way in which CSR projects are selected. This is a relatively low figure given the fact that most of the respondents in the study had direct engagement with KWS CSR projects. That KWS has a CSR policy is not in doubt (Anyonge-Bashir and Udoto, 2012). Therefore, the low rating of such policy in project selection might be an indication

that KWS has not widely disseminated information on its CSR policy and criteria for selecting projects. Only 6 respondents representing 12.8 percent indicated that KWS selects its CSR projects through proposal writing. Proposal writing is an involving exercise that requires a high level of literacy. Given that the area under study has low levels of literacy (Okello, 2009) this method of selecting projects is unlikely to be dominant.

#### 4.4.3 Improvement of project selection and development

Table 4.6: Respondents' suggestions on how KWS can improve project selection and development

How KWS can improve selection and development of projects?		
Respondents answers n=47	Frequency	Percentage response*
Community involvement and collaboration	43	91.5
Governance structures	40	85.1
Capacity building in project management	10	21.3
Public sensitization	10	21.3
Project monitoring and evaluation	4	8.5
Not aware	2	4.3

(Source: Primary analysis by author)

\*Percentage response is out of 47 respondents and is not cumulative. Hence, the percentages do not add up to 100%

The 47 respondents, who participated in the study, had five broad categories of suggestions on how KWS could improve the selection and development of CSR projects as shown in table 4.6. Two respondents representing 4.3 percent of the respondents indicated that they were not aware of how KWS selects and develops CSR projects. These could be the respondents with low literacy level and did not understand the question or those who had indicated that they were not aware of the CSR projects existence. The majority of respondents at 43 representing 91.5 per cent suggested more community



involvement and collaboration. The majority of respondents cited frequent community meetings, community participation in the selection and implementation of CSR projects as well as collaboration with NGOs and other government agencies. This was closely followed by governance structures category which was indicated by 40 respondents representing 85.1 percent. This implies a lack of transparency and accountability in the way the CSR projects are selected and developed. This might have a bearing on the sense of community ownership. For instance, some respondents suggested that the process should avoid “clannism and politics”, “avoid politicians” “involvement community in decision making and “have more equitable distribution of projects” as well as employment in the projects be “done on merit”. Some respondents suggested “better prioritization”, “avoid group ranches” and “get community representatives at the village level” They also suggested that community needs assessment be conducted before projects are selected. Yet according to Anyonge Bashir and Udoto (2012), KWS selected projects “after participatory rural appraisals with target beneficiaries”. It’s evident from this study that such appraisals might not have been effective nor achieved the intended purpose.

Respondents’ suggestions on community capacity building in project management and public sensitization tied with each having 10 respondents representing 21.3 percent. This suggestion implies that if the community members are equipped with the relevant skills and knowledge, they were ready to take the centre-stage in the selection and implementation of their CSR projects. This re-affirms findings on Magadi Soda Company’s CSR projects in the same Kajiado District by Njoga (2007) where respondents highlighted the need for public awareness and community capacity building in project management. Project monitoring and evaluation was suggested by 4 respondents representing 8.5 percent. This suggestion could have arisen out the hostility shown to

wildlife conservation yet KWS has invested in various CSR projects. Probably, the monitoring and evaluation could have provided baseline data on the impact of CSR projects. The gist of these suggestions dovetails with the need to revamp governance structures to ensure transparency and accountability in the KWS CSR projects.

#### 4.5.0 Factors for Apparent Ineffectiveness of KWS Response

The third objective of this study was to determine the factors responsible for the apparent ineffectiveness of the KWS response. To achieve this objective, respondents were asked to provide the reasons why KWS established CSR projects in Amboseli and their views on whether these goals were achieved. The respondents were also asked to state whether the projects had made locals to view conservation positively and their views on the benefits KWS has derived from investment in the projects. Further, the respondents were asked community feelings and knowledge on KWS CSR projects. They were also asked on the methods of communication about the projects and their opinion on how KWS could communicate better about them.

#### 4.5.1 Reasons for KWS establishment of CSR projects in Amboseli

Table 4.7: Respondents' reasons for KWS establishment of CSR projects

Reasons for KWS establishment of CSR projects		
Respondents answers	Frequency	Percentage response*
Raise living standards in the community	33	70.2
Create good relationship between KWS and community	20	42.6
Wildlife conservation	13	27.7
Reduction in human wildlife conflict	12	25.5
Community sensitization on importance of wildlife conservation	10	21.3

Source: Primary analysis by author

\*Percentage response is out of 47 respondents and is not cumulative. Hence, the percentages do not add up to 100%

Asked to indicate reasons why KWS established CSR projects in Amboseli, 33 of the 47 respondents representing 70.2 percent indicated that the projects were established to help raise the living standards in the community as shown in table 4.7. It's evident that these responses reflect the overall benefits the community had received from the projects. The respondents cited school bursaries, employment, revenue sharing, improved living standards and shorter distances to water points. The second reason cited by 20 respondents representing 42.6 percent was creation of a good relationship between KWS and the community. The third reason provided by respondents was to conserve wildlife with 13 respondents representing 27.7 percent. The ranking of this reason at the third position shows that CSR projects have not fully achieved the KWS motivation of winning community goodwill to conserve wildlife. Yet wildlife conservation should be the top priority given that it is the legal mandate of the organisation. In the fourth position was reduction in human wildlife conflict provided by 12 respondents representing 25.5 percent. The protection of people and their property from destruction by wildlife is a core mandate of KWS. Finally, 10 respondents representing 21.3 percent indicated that KWS established CSR projects to sensitize the community on the importance of wildlife conservation. This reflects the low attention paid to the KWS core mandate of public knowledge of wildlife. It implies that KWS might not have conducted enough public sensitization programmes on the importance of wildlife conservation.

According to Anyonge-Bashir and Udoto (2012), the objective of the KWS CSR policy is to assist communities benefit from wildlife conservation by changing “the attitude from viewing wildlife as a menace to seeing it as an economic asset that can improve livelihoods, create wealth and alleviate poverty”.

Yet a study by Kangwana (1993) found that although some respondents were receiving some benefits from wildlife, they did not associate these benefits with wildlife. This inconsistency between the purpose of the CSR and community perception could be an indicator of members of the community confusion between the KWS legal obligations and the CSR projects.

#### **4.5.2. Respondents' views on whether KWS CSR project goals were achieved**

Twenty respondents representing 42.6 percent indicated that KWS had achieved its goals in establishing CSR projects as presented in Figure 4.2. Nine respondents representing 19.1 percent indicated that KWS had not achieved its goals while 15 respondents representing 31.9 percent indicated that KWS had partially achieved its goals. Four respondents representing 8.5 percent did not indicate their views. Respondents who indicated that KWS had achieved its goals cited improved standard of living in the community and appreciation of the benefits of wildlife conservation. A respondent indicated "community friendly game scouts" while another cited "friendly settling of conflicts". Those who said goals had not been achieved cited slow rate of compensation, harassment from KWS rangers, lack of community involvement, and low investment in community compared to revenues from tourism. One respondent indicated that "KWS is more concerned about wild animals than human beings". This negative comment on KWS officials as change agents undermines their influence in using opinion leaders to change community awareness and attitudes towards Amboseli National Park.

If the 9 respondents who indicated that the CSR project goals had not been achieved are combined with the 15 who indicated that the goals had been partially achieved, this brings to a total of 24 respondents representing 51 percent. This is a significant proportion of the

respondents and could explain why conservation activities are facing rejection. Since the respondents were opinion leaders and many could be direct beneficiaries of CSR projects, the general population was likely to harbour more negative assessment and attitudes. This finding is consistent with that of Okello (2009) who indicated that little money ever reaches local people despite the fact that they are the ones who share land and resources with wildlife. However, a study by Kangwana (1993) found that knowledge of benefits, level of education and standard of living were some of the key determinants of attitudes towards park management.

Another research by Action Aid International Kenya (2006) noted that lack of or skewed benefits had disenfranchised respondents who strongly favoured land subdivision to engage in alternative and independent land use. Therefore, conservation will only be valuable to most local communities if tangible economic and other benefits are realized (McNeely, 1993:144-150; Norton-Griffiths and Southey, 1995 and Emerton, 2000:7-20).

#### 4.5.3. Respondents' views on whether KWS CSR projects have made locals to view conservation positively

Table 4.8: Respondents' views on whether CSR projects have made local people view wildlife conservation positively

Local people's attitudes towards wildlife conservation		
Respondents' answers n=47	Frequency	Percentage response
Yes	27	57.5
No	9	19.1
Partially	8	17.0
Not indicated	3	6.4
Total	47	100

(Source: Primary analysis by author)

Twenty seven respondents representing 57.5 percent indicated that the KWS involvement in CSR projects had made the local people view wildlife conservation positively as summarized in table 4.8. These could be considered as early adopters and early majority adopters of innovations in the Diffusion of Innovations Theory (Severin and Tankard, 2001). They cited benefits like education, employment, nature-based micro enterprises, compensation and reduction in wildlife poaching. Even though the respondents indicated that the KWS involvement in CSR projects had made the local people view wildlife conservation positively, this did not seem to reflect the KWS core mandate of wildlife conservation. This could explain why the community doesn't see the link between those CSR projects and the KWS mandate of wildlife conservation. The 9 respondents representing 19.1 percent who indicated that the involvement had not made local people to view wildlife positively cited KWS rangers' mistreatment of the community, exclusion of community from stakeholders and minimal involvement of the community in the CSR projects. The 8 respondents representing 10.6 percent who indicated that the KWS CSR projects had made the local people partially view wildlife conservation positive cited lack of monitoring and evaluation of the existing projects by KWS. They also indicated that KWS had taken advantage of the community and that they had co-existed with the wildlife peacefully without KWS. The respondents also indicated that the CSR projects were not equitably distributed in the community. Therefore, hostility to wildlife conservation could be largely by those who left out or discriminated against. This concurs with the finding by Kangwana (1993) that some respondents in the area believed the Park belonged to the government and tourists and was no longer theirs (the Maasai). From these responses, Kangwana concluded that with the creation of the park, "at least some Maasai felt a sense of loss at being alienated from their land" Kangwana (1993: 103).

Yet Western (1982) had years ago held up Amboseli is a “working model for other wildlife protection and tourism development projects”. Three respondents representing 6.4 percent did not provide responses to the question. Probably, they did not understand the question or lack the required information. These could be the same respondents who had indicated that they were not aware of KWS projects in Amboseli as shown in table 4.2

Generally, Maasai attitudes to wildlife were positive having lived with wildlife for millennia while that to KWS was negative due to false promises, land alienation and negative incidents with wildlife authorities.

The Park is seen as imposed and unnecessary by many, and its purpose in conserving wildlife either unknown or considered futile (Kangwana, 1993: 132)

Kangwana (1993) study in Amboseli found that attitudes to wildlife differed primarily as a function of gender and age, with elders having more positive attitudes than morans and women. It was speculated that this could have been due to the greater awareness among elders of the benefits received from wildlife as they were members of the community who attended Group Ranch meetings where information on benefits and local developments is shared.

Although slightly beyond half of the respondents (57.5 percent) indicated that CSR had been beneficial, the remaining 42.5 percent is contrary to findings by other studies which found a positive correlation between CSR and portfolio performance (Obusubiri, 2006; Auka, 2006)

#### 4.5.4. Respondents' views on the benefits KWS has derived from investment in CSR projects

Table 4.9: Respondents' views on KWS benefits from CSR projects

KWS benefits from CSR projects		
Respondents' answers	Frequency	Percentage response*
Human wildlife conflict	21	44.7
Enhanced wildlife conservation	14	29.8
Increased tourism earnings	13	27.7
Not indicated	8	17.0
Public sensitization	7	14.9

(Source: Primary analysis by author)

\*Percentage response is out of 47 respondents and is not cumulative. Hence, the percentages do not add up to 100%

In order to determine respondents' views on KWS gains from the investment, they were asked to state how the organisation had benefited from the CSR projects. Twenty one respondents representing 44.7 percent indicated that KWS had benefited through reduction in human wildlife conflict as summarized in table 4.9.

Fourteen respondents representing 29.9 percent indicated enhanced wildlife conservation. These two responses being highly ranked by the respondents is an indicator of how the community perceives KWS effort. They believe that the CSR projects were meant to benefit KWS, and not necessarily the community. This is also in line with 13 respondents representing 27.7 percent who indicated that KWS had received higher income from tourism earnings as a result of wildlife in Amboseli.

Some respondents had interesting responses for instance "free movement of wildlife" and "The killing of the wild animals coming to an end" Others indicated that the numbers of wild animals had increased while there had been no encroachment on park land. Some



respondents indicated that they had set aside their land for wildlife conservation while KWS had benefited from cheaper game scouts from the community.

Eight respondents representing 17.0 percent did not indicate any response on the benefits. Finally, only 7 respondents representing 14.9 percent indicated that KWS had benefited from public sensitization. This low rating of public sensitization reveals how KWS has done little to educate the community on the importance of wildlife. Yet, this is the core KWS mandate.

#### 4.5.5 Community feelings about KWS CSR projects

Table 4.10: Respondents' views on community feelings about KWS CSR projects

Community feelings about CSR projects			
Respondents' answers	n=47	Frequency	Percentage response
Appreciated		30	63.8
Not appreciated		10	21.3
Not indicated		7	14.9

(Source: Primary analysis by author)

The 30 respondents representing 63.8 percent who indicated that the community appreciated the contribution of the KWS CSR projects cited various reasons for their views as summarized in table 4.10. They indicated that the attitude of the community towards wildlife had changed for the better and feel part of the conservation efforts. They also indicated that the projects were appreciated for alleviating poverty and funding of education programmes. However, 10 respondents representing 21.3 percent indicated that the community viewed the KWS CSR projects negatively. They cited property destruction, shortage of water and 'wrong approach' by KWS officials. They also indicated that the community felt the KWS CSR projects negatively because of lack of policy and

governance structures. Others indicated that the projects were poorly managed and inadequate. This finding of negative feelings is consistent with feelings of disappointment by some members the community after the government failed to deliver on some promises made when the national park was created (Kangwana, 1993:) For instance, the grazing compensation fee was only received from 1977 to 1981, after which it stopped due to lack of funds (Kangwana, 1993) while trophy licence fees also stopped after the government ban on hunting in 1977 (Lindsay).

A study by Action Aid International Kenya (2006:49) concluded that “individual community members remain disenfranchised” largely due to perceived incompetence and corruption at the hands of county councils and group ranches. The research indicated that the “majority of community members complained about a system of patronage that allocates benefits to wealthier and more influential members at the expense of the poor.”

This is a major indictment on the effectiveness of the group ranches system which not only excludes women but is rife with corruption as confirmed by other studies (Okello, 2009 and Western, 1982).

A study by Bulte *et al* (2008) noted that some beneficial policies such as water boreholes outside the park had never been implemented and that some factions were dissatisfied with the benefits they obtain and “threaten to intensify pressure on key resources in the Park (mainly forage and water) unless they receive a larger share of the Park’s proceeds. Yet by its own admission, KWS has been implementing CSR projects as a way of changing community attitudes towards wildlife conservation (Anyonge-Bashir and Udoto 2012; Kenya Wildlife Service 2008).

Overall, the study revealed that the community members were divided on the benefits they get from wildlife. A majority of the respondents at 87.2 percent cited the various benefits

in social welfare and environmental conservation for their positive attitudes. However, the study revealed unresolved issues including failed promises by wildlife authorities, inequitable distribution of the projects, lack of accountability and some respondents' inability to associate the benefits with wildlife.

#### 4.4.8 Knowledge about KWS CSR projects

Table 4.11: Respondents knowledge about KWS CSR projects

Knowledge about the KWS community projects			
Answer Options	n=47	Frequency	Percentage response*
Community leaders and meetings		45	95.7
Mass media		14	29.8
KWS officials and publications		13	27.7
CSR project beneficiaries		11	23.4
NGOs/CBOs		11	23.4
Not indicated		4	8.5

(Source: Primary analysis by author)

\*Percentage response is out of 47 respondents and is not cumulative. Hence, the percentages do not add up to 100%

An overwhelming 45 respondents representing 95.7 percent indicated that they learnt of the KWS CSR projects through community leaders and meetings as summarised in table 4.11. They cited meetings with group ranch leaders, religious leaders, Provincial Administration officials, other government officials and teachers. This finding is consistent with the fact that the main benefits from wildlife are channeled through group ranches (Kangwana, 1993 and Action Aid International Kenya, 2006).

This was followed by 14 respondents representing 29.8 percent who indicated various mass media channels. These included radio, newspapers, websites television and magazines. In the third place was interaction with KWS officials and publications which was indicated by 13 respondents representing 27.7 percent. The channels cited included

the KWS website, annual reports and newsletters. Both CSR project beneficiaries and NGOs/CBOs were indicated by 11 respondents each representing 23.4 percent for each. Finally, 4 respondents did not indicate how they learned of the KWS CSR projects. The lack of response by the 4 respondents could be a result of failure to recall or they are the respondents who had earlier indicated that they were not aware of any KWS CSR projects. These could be considered laggards in the Rogers (1995) categorization of adopters. The predominance of community leaders and public meetings is an indicator of the reliance on interpersonal communication in the community. Given the low levels of literacy in the community (Okello, 2009), it is likely that many rely on such meetings as a source of information on development projects. Besides, this underscores the important role group ranches play in communication given that they are the main channels through which the community gets benefits from wildlife (Kangwana, 1993). Group ranch committee members spent money at their discretion on various local projects, including sponsoring students in boarding schools, buying fuel for borehole water pumps and maintaining cattle dips (Kangwana, 1993). These findings are inconsistent with the postulates of the Diffusion of Innovations theory (Rogers, 1995) which holds that mass media channels reach large audiences rapidly and change weakly held attitudes. According to Severin and Tankard (2001) in the process of diffusion of an innovation, mass media channels are relatively important at the knowledge stage, whereas the interpersonal channels are more effective at the persuasion stage.

The reliance on interpersonal communication in the community under study could be attributed to the level of development in area without widespread access to mass media.

#### 4.4.9 Methods of communication about KWS CSR projects

Table 4.12: Respondents' views on the most effective communication methods in creating awareness about KWS CSR

Effective communication methods on KWS CSR projects			
Answer Options	n=47	Frequency	Percentage response*
Community leaders and meetings		39	83
KWS officials and publications		28	59.6
Mass media		12	25.5
NGOs and CBOs		10	21.3
Not indicated		5	10.6

(Source: Primary analysis by author)

\*Percentage response is out of 47 respondents and is not cumulative. Hence, the percentages do not add up to 100%

An overwhelming 39 respondents representing 83 percent of respondents indicated that interaction with various community leaders and meetings were the most effective way of communicating about KWS CSR projects as shown in table 4.12.

A respondent indicated that meetings “help the community members to express their grievances and challenges”. This response is consistent with a recommendation by Action Aid International Kenya (2006) that called for frequent workshops and local meetings for information dissemination and feedback from the community.

In the second place were KWS officials and publications by 28 respondents representing 59.6 percent. Respondents indicated publications such the annual report, strategic plans and the website as their source of information on CSR.

In the third place were mass media indicated by 12 respondents representing 25.5 percent.

In the second last place were NGOs and CBOs who were indicated by 10 respondents representing 21.3 percent. Finally, 5 respondents representing 10.6 percent did not indicate any method of communication. Some of the respondents who indicated mass media suggested short radio programmes in the local language while others preferred a

newsletter. Studies have shown that many channels have been used by other organisations to communicate about CSR (Ziek, 2009 and L’Etang, 1994). These include annual report, annual shareholders letter, non financial reports and internet. Other studies have shown that although people don’t proactively look for information on CSR, such messages can be embedded in mainstream publications such as the annual report. A study by Odhiambo (2006) found that majority of the companies surveyed had little published on CSR beyond a few lines in the audited accounts and website. According to Severin and Tankard (2001), evidence shows that the greatest effect is achieved when media messages advocating innovation or attitude change are coupled with small group discussions. Overall, it is evident from this study that given the community literacy levels, the most appropriate channels of communication remain interpersonal sources through face-to-face meetings. This is consistent with the postulates of the Diffusion of Innovations Theory, which hold that interpersonal channels are more effective in forming and changing attitudes towards a new idea, and thus in influencing the decision to adopt or reject a new idea.

#### 4.4.10 How KWS can communicate better about its CSR projects

Table 4.13: Respondents’ views on how KWS can communicate better about its CSR projects

KWS communication about its CSR projects			
Respondents answers	n=47	Frequency	Percentage
Use of community leaders		33	70.2
Regular meetings		28	59.6
Cultural events		10	21.3
Mass media		9	19.1
NGOs and CBOs		4	8.5
KWS officials		4	8.5

Source: Primary analysis by author

\*Percentage response is out of 47 respondents and is not cumulative. Hence, the percentages do not add up to 100%

A majority of 33 respondents representing 70.2 percent suggested community leaders while 28 representing 59.6. However, some respondents suggested that KWS should avoid relying on group ranch leaders and use “representatives from the village level” Cultural events were indicated by 10 respondents representing 21.3 percent while mass media was indicated by 4 respondents representing 8.5 percent. NGOs and CBOs as well as KWS officials were suggested by 4 respondents each representing 8.5 percent. This finding suggests that the community still relies on interpersonal communication and their leaders. The suggestions on cultural events especially song, dance and drama could be an indicator of the low access to modern communication channels. Those who indicated mass media singled out radio in the local language. However, the low ranking of KWS officials could be an indicator of the poor relationship the wildlife authorities have with the community (Kangwana, 1993 and Okello, 2009). This finding undermines the role of change agents who are described by Severin and Tankard (2001:211) as “a professional person who attempts to influence adoption decisions in a direction he or she feels is desirable.” Overall, the community prefers to use interpersonal communication through their leaders and cultural events as opposed to official channels like KWS or NGOs. The inconsistency with the postulates of the Diffusion of Innovations Theory could be attributed to lack of modern mass media technology in the area under study.

#### **4.6 Enhancing effectiveness of KWS CSR projects**

The fourth objective of this study was to find out ways of enhancing the effectiveness of CSR projects in managing relations between KWS and the community in Amboseli. To achieve this objective, the respondents were asked to state the main problems faced in implementing CSR projects, suggest how these challenges could be overcome and ways of

enhancing the effectiveness of CSR activities as one of the tools of managing community relations.

#### 4.6.1 Problems faced in implementing KWS CSR projects

Table 4.14: Respondent's views on the main problems faced by the community and KWS in ensuring the projects' success

Respondent's opinions on the main problems faced by the community and KWS in ensuring the projects succeed.			
Respondents' answers	n=47	Frequency	Percentage response*
Lack of sustainability		32	68.0
Poor KWS/community relations		22	46.8
Lack of transparency and accountability/governance		20	42.6
Inequitable sharing of benefits from wildlife		10	25.5

(Source: Primary analysis by author)

\*Percentage response is out of 47 respondents and is not cumulative. Hence, the percentages do not add up to 100%

An overwhelming 32 respondents representing 68 percent identified lack of sustainability as a problem as shown in table 4.14. This response reflected flaws in the way the projects were selected and implemented as well as the capacity of the community to sustain them. Some of respondents cited the breakdown in boreholes and cattle dips as well as "lack of exit strategy" as evidence of lack of sustainability. Other respondents cited "lack of community ownership of the projects" and lack of maintenance provisions.

However, these findings contradict Anyonge-Bashir and Udoto (2012) who indicated that the projects were initiated by the communities to ensure ownership and sustainability.

In the second place was poor KWS-community relations as indicated by 22 respondents representing 46.8 percent. Some respondents raised historical issues of failed promises when the park was set up while others indicated mistreatment at the hands of KWS rangers over cattle incursions into the park. Some respondents cited lack of confidence by the



community, poor prioritization of projects, fear of KWS in the community, communication breakdown and harassment of the community by KWS officials. Others raised the issue of negligible members of the local community at the Park headquarters, ignorance of KWS officials as well as opposition to the CSR projects by some community members.

The finding that there is 'fear of KWS officials' in the community undermines their role as change agents. Rogers (1995) defines a change agent as an individual who influences client's innovation decision in a direction deemed desirable by a change agency. These are professionals who represent change agencies external to the system.

These findings concur with those of Kangwana (1993) who attributed negative attitudes towards the park management to "years of broken promises, land alienation and negative incidents with wildlife authorities". The study also found that the community perceived the park as "imposed and unnecessary authority by many, its purpose in conserving wildlife either unknown or considered futile"

Indeed, some respondents indicated that "wildlife existed before the Park" and the community consider it an unnecessary effort since they had been effective custodians of the animals and the land for centuries.

The third problem identified by 20 respondents representing 42.6 percent was lack of transparency and accountability. The respondents cited misuse of funds, corruption by both group ranch and KWS officials. This finding draws attention to the role of KWS officials as change agents and group ranch officials as opinion leaders in the apparent community rejection of the national park.

The lack of transparency and accountability was also raised in a study by Action Aid International Kenya ((2006) which found that none of the respondents were aware of the

revenue generated in Amboseli National Park. The study noted that “the amount of revenue shared out to communities is fraught with controversy”.

“Though Amboseli paid out Sh850,000 to each neighbouring group ranch, there was no clear criteria used to disburse this benefit to community members” (Action Aid International Kenya, 2006: 28).

The same study found that Amboseli was an area where “patronage that allocates benefits to wealthier and more influential members at the expense of the poor” was cited as a reason for the disenfranchisement of individual members of the community. This is consistent with findings in other studies (Okello, 2009, Thompson and Homewood, 2002). It was observed that this situation prevailed in most group ranches where a majority of stakeholders are routing for subdivision. The study indicated that even when benefit accrued, community members decried lack of transparency and accountability by the managers. The research concluded that if the benefits continued to be skewed, “disillusioned members will cease to cooperate in wildlife management”. Missing information on benefits due to the community was also cited as evidence of lack of transparency and accountability. Research by Kangwana (1993) indicated that some of the respondents could not make the connection between benefits from tourism and group ranches.

Inequitable sharing of benefits of wildlife was identified by 10 respondents representing 25.5 percent. Some respondents noted that some areas had not been covered by the projects.

These results are consistent with those of another study by Bulte et al (2008) which noted that the communities surrounding the park were divided about benefits such as job

opportunities and revenue sharing and “are frustrated that certain beneficial policies that were promised have never been implemented.”

#### 4.6.2 Overcoming challenges in implementing KWS CSR projects

Table 4.15: Respondents’ suggestions on how CSR project challenges can be overcome

Respondents’ suggestions on how CSR project challenges be overcome			
Answer Options	n=47	Frequency	Percentage response*
Transparency and accountability		38	80.9
Capacity building in the community		20	42.6
Sustainability provisions		16	34
Enhance KWS and community relations		16	34
Conflict resolution mechanisms		10	21.3

Source: Primary analysis by author

\*Percentage response is out of 47 respondents and is not cumulative. Hence, the percentages do not add up to 100%

A clear majority of 38 respondents representing 80.9 percent suggested transparency and accountability as a preferred way of overcoming challenges of KWS CSR projects as summarized in Table 4.15. The respondents cited clear information on benefit sharing and clarity in role of community members in the projects as ways of overcoming challenges in KWS CSR projects. Others called for “zero tolerance to corruption by KWS” and “sincerely punishing those involved in corruption”

In the second place was building the capacity of the community to select and implement such CSR projects. Some respondents raised the issue of equipping members of the local community with project management and technical skills as well as knowledge on the projects without over-relying on group ranches. This corroborates a study by Action Aid International Kenya (2006) which concluded that group ranches lacked competent

management. Yet Rogers (1995) defines opinion leadership is the degree to which an individual is able to influence other individual's attitudes or over behaviour.

Respondents in that study indicated that "it was necessary to involve the community in wildlife conservation at village level to national level." Apart from employing skilled people, some respondents indicated that project implementers need to be equipped with skills on proposal writing and communication.

The third category of suggestion was sustainability by 16 respondents representing 34 percent. Some respondents cited clear exit strategies and maintenance of projects while indicated that KWS could "join up with other donors to come up with sustainable projects". Issues of sustainability, accountability, proper management, community participation and equitable sharing of benefits from wildlife have been found to be key to the success of ecotourism projects (Bashir-Anyonge and Udoto, 2012; Kangwana, 1993 and Okello, 2009). Overall, the rejection of the Park could be attributed to dysfunctional opinion leadership in the social structure as represented by group ranch officials.

### 4.6.3 Using CSR projects to enhance relations between KWS and community

Table 4.16: Respondents' suggestions on how CSR project can be used to enhance relations between KWS and Amboseli community

Using CSR projects to enhance KWS-Amboseli community relations		
Answer Options	Frequency	Percentage response
Transparency and accountability	35	74.0
Enhanced communication	20	42.6
More community involvement	18	38.3
Enhanced sustainability of projects	16	34.0
Not indicated	4	8.5

(Source: Primary analysis by author)

\*Percentage response is out of 47 respondents and is not cumulative. Hence, the percentages do not add up to 100%

When asked how KWS could use CSR projects to enhance relations with the local community, an overwhelming 35 respondents representing 74.0 percent indicated transparency and accountability as shown in table 4.16. Some of them cited non-discrimination in the distribution of benefits. However, 4 respondents representing 8.5 percent did not provide any suggestions. Action Aid International Kenya (2006) cites lack of quantitative assessment of these projects as one factor that makes it difficult to determine their success. "Records are inaccessible and an official wall is ever present." The study concluded that group ranches lacked competent management.

The second suggestion was enhanced communication indicated by 20 respondents representing 42.6 percent. The respondents called for change from over-reliance on group ranch officials. The respondents called for more innovative ways of reaching women and the youth. This calls for a rethink on the role of opinion leaders and change agents as envisaged in the Diffusion of Innovations Theory by (Severin and Tankard, 2001; Rogers, 1995). This suggestion is consistent with an Action Aid International Kenya (2006) study which recommended that the role of both male and female members of the communities

should be recognised. One respondent indicated: “Relationship officers to use their public relations skills in operations while other responses indicated “by having good rapport” and “giving the results of the initiated projects”.

The third category on more community involvement was indicated by 18 respondents representing 38.3 percent while 16 respondents representing 34 percent suggested sustainability of projects. “Provide long-term, self-sustaining enterprises”. This suggestion reflects a desire by the community for more long-term engagement as active partners in social development rather than as passive recipients of corporate donations.

The last suggestion was enhance the sustainability of projects which was indicated by 16 respondents representing 34 percent. This reaffirms findings of a study by Kangwana (1993) on the breakdown of water pipes and boreholes for lack of maintenance and clear apportionment of responsibility.

From the findings of this study, it is evident that the apparent rejection of the national park as a preferred mode of wildlife conservation can be explained by variables determining the rate of adoption or rejection of an innovation. According to Rogers (1995; Almobarraz, 2007), these variables include perceived attributes of innovations, type of innovation decision, communication channels, nature of the social system and the extent of the change agents’ promotion efforts (Almobarraz, 2007). The characteristics of innovations that help to explain the different rates of adoption regardless of the nature and characteristics of the people include relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, triability and observability.

This study revealed that the national park could have been rejected due to its lack of relative advantage over the traditional model of conservation, dysfunctional social structure of corrupt and incompetent group ranch leadership and incompatibility with the

community's norms. This is because the national park system excluded the local people and their livestock from the park yet the traditional wildlife conservation allowed free interaction between people and wildlife (Okello, 2009; Western, 1984; Kangwana, 1993). The creation of the national park in 1974 did not consider the dependence of local people's livelihoods on park resources, especially water and pasture (Musyoki, 2007; Ringera, 2007; Lusigi, 1981; Bulte et al., 2008). Besides, the national park whose revenues largely benefit the national government and private investors (Okello, 2009; Thompson and Homewood, 2002) offers no relative advantage over the local people's traditional means of livelihood, especially livestock keeping and agriculture. Usually, the innovation decision is made through a cost-benefit analysis where the major obstacle is uncertainty (Rogers, 1995). People will adopt an innovation if they believe that it will, all factors considered, enhance their utility. So, the people must believe that the innovation may yield some relative advantages to the idea that it supersedes. People also determine to what degree the innovation would disrupt other functioning aspects of their daily life. The establishment of the national park did not give the local people an opportunity for trial to reduce uncertainty. Neither did it have room for observation, which would have enhanced the possibility of adoption. This may explain the rejection of the park by the community.

Overall, the study revealed the purpose for the CSR projects would be achieved more if the wildlife authorities adopted values of transparency and accountability, sustainability, equitable sharing of benefits from wildlife, capacity building of the local community and more public participation in line with the spirit and letter of the Kenya Constitution 2010.

# Chapter Five

## Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

### 5.0 Introduction

This study had four major objectives, namely to establish the relations subsisting between KWS and the community surrounding Amboseli National Park, to examine how KWS had responded to the situation and to determine the factors accounting for the apparent ineffectiveness of the KWS response. The study also sought to find out ways of enhancing the effectiveness of CSR investments. Data analysis and interpretation of responses from the targeted population revealed the following major findings.

#### 5.1.0 Summary of Findings

This study investigated the relationship between KWS and the communities surrounding Amboseli National Park. It specifically sought to establish the apparent ineffectiveness of the CSR projects in winning community support for wildlife conservation. This was with regard to the rejection of the continued existence of Amboseli National Park and the Western model of wildlife conservation agenda.

From the study findings, it emerged that the relations between KWS and the communities living around Amboseli National Park were strained. This study revealed that the national park could have been rejected due to its lack of relative advantage over traditional sources of livelihoods, dependence on a dysfunctional social structure of corrupt and incompetent group ranch leadership and incompatibility of the Western model of conservation with the local people's norms. The findings indicated that the problem was not with the investment



in CSR projects but in the way they were being implemented. It was established that the community rejection of the national park could also be attributed to the perceived harsh way KWS officials were enforcing the law. It was also found that the community was divided on the benefits derived from wildlife due to unresolved issues, including failed promises on CSR, inadequate community benefits, inequitable distribution of the benefits from tourism earnings, lack of business management skills and inability to link the benefits with wildlife. The results also revealed that lack of transparency and accountability in group ranches could have undermined the credibility of group ranch officials as opinion leaders.

The study also established that KWS had responded to the strained relationship by investing in various CSR projects in social welfare and community development, especially education, water, nature-based enterprises and health. Interestingly, the results revealed undocumented support to the community's welfare, for instance, Maasai cultural bomas and the use of KWS vehicle to offer lifts to the community. It is important to note that the community wrongly perceived KWS statutory roles in compensation for wildlife losses and protection from wildlife destruction as discretionary CSR projects.

This study also investigated the communication tools used by KWS to publicise CSR and found that community relied on interpersonal channels of communication and had a limited role for mass media. It was established that although communication about CSR projects had helped in improving community attitudes towards wildlife, more equitable distribution of benefits of wildlife conservation as well as enhanced transparency and accountability in the projects would be key ingredients in winning community cooperation in wildlife conservation and management.

## 5.2.0 Conclusion

Several conclusions were drawn based on the findings of this study. There is no doubt that that the relationship between KWS and the community living around Amboseli National Park is strained. Although KWS has implemented a number of CSR projects in Amboseli including education, water, employment, nature-based enterprises and health, the intended goal of community acceptance of the innovation of a national park is yet to be achieved.

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher concluded that CSR activities established by KWS in Amboseli were yet to achieve their purpose in changing the community's attitudes towards modern wildlife conservation and KWS. Therefore, it's important that the continued existence of the national park offer relative advantage to the alternative means of livelihood for the community. Furthermore, this study demonstrated conservation will only be valuable to the local community if tangible economic and other benefits are realized and shared equitably. In addition, the overreliance on the dysfunctional social structure of the group ranch leadership was found to be faulty owing to lack of transparency, male dominance and elitism. Reconciling conservation and community needs is a delicate task that calls for public education, improvement of local community livelihoods and strong governance structures in community projects.

Finally, although the largely positive attitude of the community in Amboseli toward wildlife provides reason to believe the future of wildlife in the area is hopeful, it was critical to use four key approaches to win community co-operation in wildlife conservation: transparency and accountability, equitable distribution of wildlife benefits, public education programmes and solving problems incurred by people as a result of hosting wildlife on their land.

### **5.3.0 Recommendations for policy**

The findings of this study have shown that KWS CSR projects have partly contributed to positive attitudes in the community towards Amboseli National Park and the Western model of wildlife conservation but yet to fully achieve the intended purpose.

The study has also shown the need to rethink the strategy of relying on a dysfunctional group ranch system in the social structure to channel benefits to the community. This is because social structure of the Maasai society keeps the knowledge of the benefits of wildlife among very few in group ranches. Restructuring this system would probably demonstrate the relative advantage of the innovation of Western model of wildlife conservation to the community.

Despite the study's limitation of relying on opinion leaders, this study offered useful insight into the apparent ineffectiveness of the KWS response to stakeholder needs.

Basing on these findings, the researcher recommends that KWS and her partners develop and implement a comprehensive public outreach programme to build public awareness of the difference between KWS CSR projects and its statutory obligations. The programme should also seek to create public awareness about the association between benefits derived from wildlife and the responsibilities of the community.

Attention also needs to be paid to the relative advantage of wildlife conservation as opposed to other land use practice such as agriculture and livestock keeping. The community needs effective mechanisms of compensation for the costs incurred because of wildlife presence. A clear distinction needs to be made between statutory compensation to individuals for their losses and benefits to the community as a whole.

A policy addressing education and awareness of local communities through training in legal, technical and management skills as well as access to records held by wildlife

managers and group ranch officials needs to be formulated by KWS and the group ranch officials.

There is need for KWS and group ranch officials to develop clear policies on public access to records held by both of them on community projects and revenues. Further, any revenues to the community should be fully accounted for as a way of enhancing transparency and accountability as well as facilitating assessment of the projects' success.

From the study, it is also recommended that KWS should strive to improve community attitudes towards wildlife conservation and the Park through transparent and accountable distribution of benefits of wildlife. This could be reinforced by appropriate communication channels.

The study also recommends that the government undertakes a clear policy and legislative review to revamp the group ranch system and its leadership. Such a policy should include monitoring systems based on accountability, transparency, and good governance. There is need to inculcate interactive management practices that raise public awareness and participation in line with the letter and spirit of the Kenyan Constitution 2010. This could be done through frequent workshops and local meetings for information dissemination and feedback.

The study recommended that right from the time the projects are initiated, records need to be available backed by clear policies that ensure such records are available to all stakeholders. The implementers of projects and their partners should strive to communicate to the community the link between wildlife and the benefits to the community.

Given the history of conservation authorities imposing their will and plans on the Maasai and failed promises, it is recommended that KWS and other partners in conservation

devise ways of listening to the community as its members express their opinions and aspirations for the present and the future on their land and act on these.

#### **5.4.0 Recommendations for further research**

This research, while providing some answers, also served to define questions that need to be studied in future. The findings of this study brought to the fore a number of issues that could be investigated further. Looking forward, many fruitful avenues for future research exist.

First, in examining how CSR projects have been used to manage relations between KWS and the communities in Amboseli, it pointed to other possible studies into the broad concept of CSR not just in public institutions like KWS but in private ones as well.

Secondly, this study used purposive and snowball sampling techniques and a questionnaire as data collection instrument. This limited the study participants to opinion leaders. It might be important to use other methods of data collection like focus group discussions and interviews. A new study could also use probability sampling techniques in the general population.

In addition, this study focused on opinion leaders around one national park. Future research would also benefit greatly from respondents drawn from the general community in the same area of study or in other national parks and reserves. Similarly, a study could be conducted on the KWS management's attitudes towards CSR as a strategy of community engagement.

Apart from the above possible studies, it would be interesting if a similar study would be carried out in other public institutions managing natural resources like forests or oil with a view to comparing the results.

Other aspects of CSR in public institutions could also be investigated. For instance, one might be interested in investigating the factors that influence CSR behaviour of public institutions.

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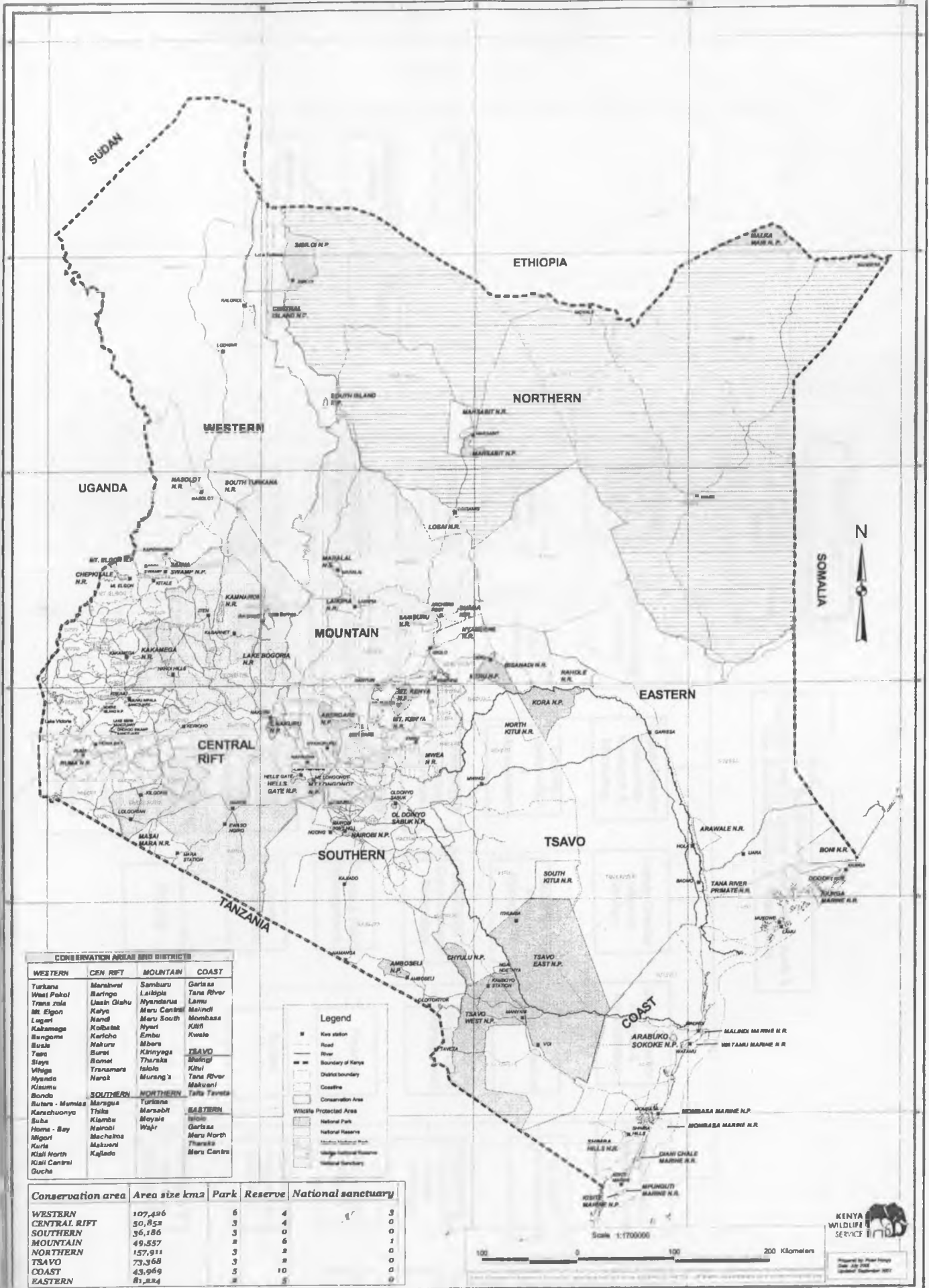
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# KENYA WILDLIFE SERVICE CONSERVATION AREAS



CONSERVATION AREAS AND DISTRICTS

WESTERN	CEN RIFT	MOUNTAIN	COAST
Turkana	Marakwet	Samburu	Garissa
West Pokot	Baringo	Laisios	Tana River
Tana Tola	Uasin Gishu	Nyeri	Lamu
Mt. Elgon	Kakamega	Meru Central	Malindi
Lagot	Nandi	Meru South	Mombasa
Kakamega	Kakamega	Nyeri	KWR
Bungoma	Kericho	Embu	Kwale
Busia	Nakuru	Mbora	TSAVO
Taita	Bomet	Kisumu	TSAVO
Siaya	Bomet	Tharaka	TSAVO
Wajir	Transmara	Isiolo	TSAVO
Nyandarua	Narok	Murang'a	TSAVO
Kisumu			TSAVO
Bondo			TSAVO
Butera - Mumias	Maragua	Turkana	TSAVO
Karachuonyo	Thika	Marakwet	TSAVO
Saba	Kisumu	Meru	TSAVO
Homa - Bay	Nairobi	Wajir	TSAVO
Migori	Machakos		TSAVO
Kuria	Makueni		TSAVO
Kisii North	Kajiado		TSAVO
Kisii Central			TSAVO
Gucha			TSAVO

**Legend**

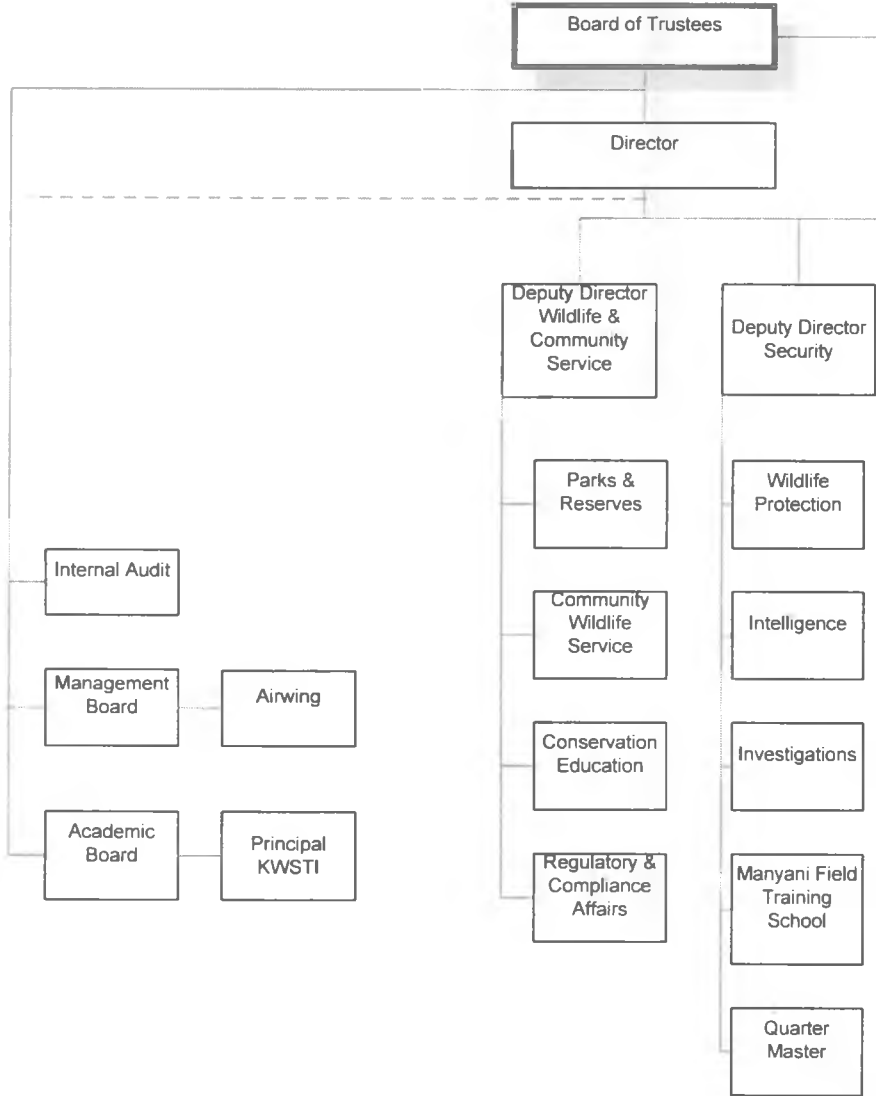
- Key station
- Road
- River
- District boundary
- County boundary
- Conservation Area
- ▨ Wildlife
- ▨ National Park
- ▨ National Reserve
- ▨ National Sanctuary
- ▨ Wildlife Sanctuary
- ▨ National Sanctuary

Conservation area	Area size km <sup>2</sup>	Park	Reserve	National sanctuary
WESTERN	107,496	6	4	3
CENTRAL RIFT	50,853	3	4	0
SOUTHERN	36,186	3	0	0
MOUNTAIN	49,557	1	6	2
NORTHERN	157,911	3	2	0
TSAVO	73,958	3	2	0
COAST	43,969	5	10	0
EASTERN	81,224	5	5	0



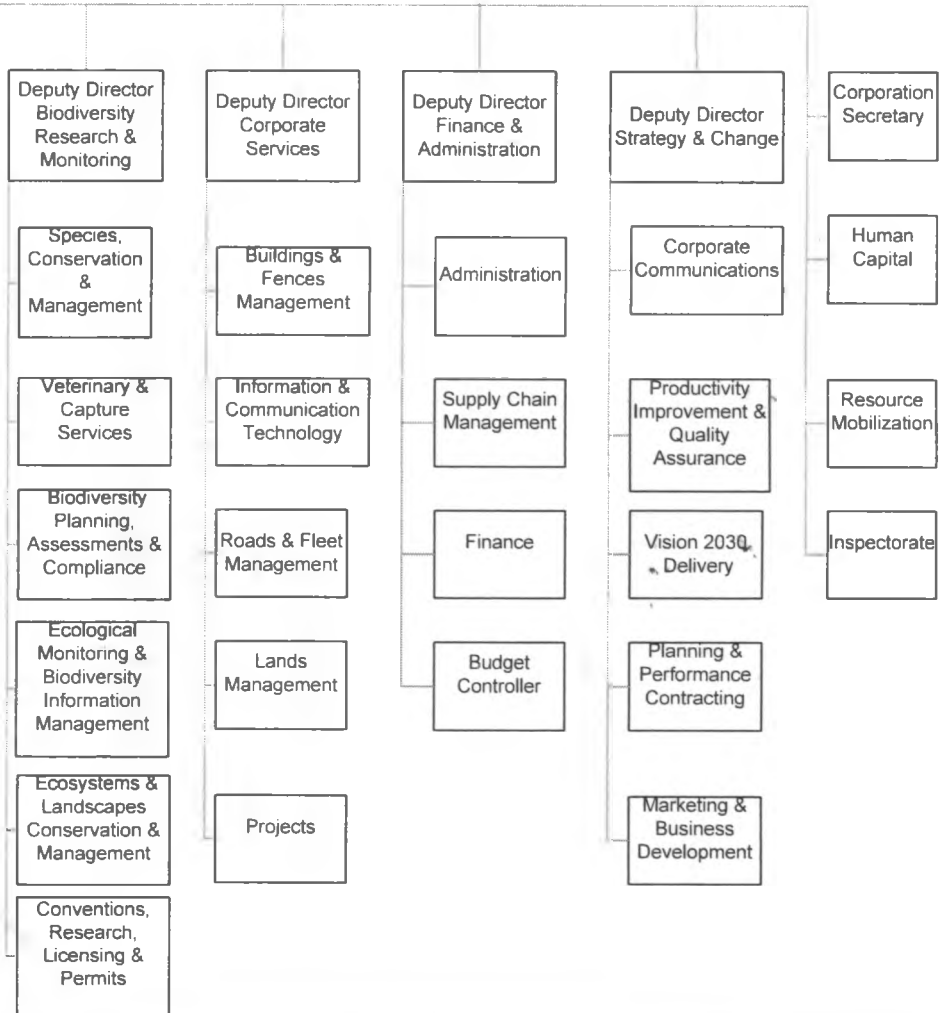
Kenya Wildlife Service

APPENDIX I



Board Committees

Finance & Human Capital, Conservation, Audit & Risk, Business, Strategy & Infrastructure



**APPENDIX III**  
**Research Questionnaire**

**INTRODUCTION**

Dear Respondent,

I am glad to let you know that you have been selected to participate in a study on the community projects supported by the Kenya Wildlife Service in the area around Amboseli National Park.

You have been chosen because of your active involvement in activities on wildlife conservation.

This study would like to share your thoughts and experiences.

I would like to assure you that your identity and personal details will be kept confidential and the information you provide will be strictly for research purposes.

Please do not write your name anywhere in this questionnaire.

**Please hand in your filled in questionnaire to the Senior Warden, Amboseli National Park or email to [pauludoto@gmail.com](mailto:pauludoto@gmail.com).**

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**INSTRUCTIONS:**

Kindly fill in the blank spaces provided in the questionnaire or tick (✓) against the choices provided.

**PART A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION**

To assist with the classification of responses, please indicate the following:

1. Sex: Male [ ] Female [ ]

2. Indicate your age bracket in years

20-30 [ ]

31-40 [ ]

41-50 [ ]

Over 50 [ ]

3. Your highest educational level

Primary [ ]

Secondary [ ]

College/Diploma/Certificate [ ]

University/Degree [ ]

4. Your current job title or occupation

.....

5. How many years have you worked with the Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) or collaborated with the organisation on wildlife conservation issues.

Less than one year [ ]

1-5 years [ ]

6-10 years [ ]

Above 10 years [ ]

**PART B: NATURE OF COMMUNITY PROJECTS AND PERCEPTION**

6. Have you been directly engaged in the KWS community supported projects? Please tick one: Yes [ ] No [ ]

7. What community projects has KWS established in Amboseli?

- a. -----
- b. -----
- c. -----
- d. -----

8. How are these projects selected?

- a. -----
- b. -----
- c. -----
- d. -----

9. Suggest how KWS can improve the way of selecting and developing the projects

- a. -----
- b. -----

- c. -----
- d. -----
- e. -----

10. Would you rate KWS supported projects as useful to the community?

Yes [ ] No. [ ]

11. Briefly explain your answer above

- a. -----
- b. -----
- c. -----
- d. -----
- e. -----

12. Why did KWS establish community projects in Amboseli?

- a. -----
- b. -----
- c. -----
- d. -----
- e. -----

13. In your opinion, have these goals been achieved? Please briefly explain.

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14. Do you think KWS involvement in community projects has made the local people view wildlife conservation positively? Please briefly explain your answer.

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-----

15. What benefits has KWS derived from its investment in community support activities in Amboseli?

- a. -----
- b. -----
- c. -----
- d. -----
- e. -----

16. How does the community feel about the KWS supported community projects? Please explain.

- a. -----
- b. -----
- c. -----
- d. -----
- e. -----

**PART C: COMMUNITY PROJECTS COMMUNICATION TOOLS**

17. How did you know about the KWS supported community projects?

- a. -----
- b. -----
- c. -----
- d. -----

18. Which communication method(s) do you consider most effective in creating community awareness of the KWS projects?

- a. -----
  - b. -----
  - c. -----
  - d. -----
- 

19. Why do you consider the above methods to be the most effective in creating community awareness of the KWS projects?

- a. -----
- b. -----
- c. -----
- d. -----
- e. -----

20. How can KWS communicate better about its community supported programmes?

- a. -----
- b. -----
- c. -----
- d. -----
- e. -----

**SECTION D: PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED AND SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT**

21. In your opinion, what are the main problems faced by the community and KWS in ensuring the projects succeed.

- a. -----
- b. -----
- c. -----
- d. -----
- e. -----
- f. -----

22. How can these challenges be overcome and the community supported activities enhanced?

- a. -----
- b. -----
- c. -----
- d. -----
- e. -----

23. In what ways can the KWS projects be made more effective in building the relationship between the community and KWS?

- a. -----
- b. -----
- c. -----
- d. -----
- e. -----

-----ENDS-----

Thank you very much for your time and effort



Paul Udoto Nyongesa  
P.O. Box 9407 00300  
Ronald Ngala NAIROBI  
March 15, 2010

The Director,  
Kenya Wildlife Service  
P.O Box 40241 00100  
NAIROBI

Dear Sir,

*Approved*  
*16/3/10*

**RE: PERMISSION FOR KWS STAFF TO BE RESEARCH PROJECT RESPONDENTS**

I am carrying out a research project as a requirement towards the award of the degree of Master of Arts in Communication Studies at the University of Nairobi, which I am currently pursuing.

My area of study is: "The role of corporate social responsibility in managing relations between the Kenya Wildlife Service and communities living around the Amboseli National Park. The respondents include opinion leaders in the larger Amboseli ecosystem as well as Kenya Wildlife Service employees in Amboseli and headquarters, as well as those who have worked there before.

The purpose of this letter is to request for your permission for KWS employees to be some of the respondents for this research project in March and April, 2010.

I will provide a copy of the research project to KWS Library.

I look forward to your response.

Yours faithfully,

PAUL UDOTO