Conservation Of Terrestrial Flora And Fauna In Rachuonyo South Sub-County, Kenya: Situational Analysis Of Vegetation Clearance

AUTHOR

Abstract

The Yearly Extinction Rates Of Flora And Fauna Species Are 25% And 34% Globally And 69% And 68% In Kenya Respectively. However, The Depletion Rate And The Status Of Species In Rachuonyo South Is Not Specified In Any Literature And Yet, The Rise Of Human Population In Rachuonyo South Has Increased Anthropogenic Activities For Instance 74% And 97% Of Population Depends On Agriculture And Wood Fuel Respectively Thus Posing A Great Threat To The Habitat. The Objectives Of This Study Were To: Identify The Terrestrial Flora And Fauna Species Threatened By Anthropogenic Activities And Determine The Effect Of Vegetation Clearance On Terrestrial Flora And Fauna Species Conservation. A Cross-Sectional Survey Was Used. Sample Size Of 379 Household Heads Was Obtained Through Stratified Random Sampling. Purposive Sampling Was Also Used To Get 11 Key Informants. Data Was Collected Through Questionnaires, Key Informant Interviews, Photography And Field Observation. The Results Indicated That A Total Of 80 And 25 Species Of Terrestrial Flora And Fauna Were Under Threat. Terrestrial Flora And Fauna Species Were In A Declining Trend (Mean=1.96, Standard Deviation=0.487 And Mean=1.97, Standard Deviation=0.462). Vegetation Clearance Was Highly Prevalent (Mean=1.11 And Standard Deviation=0.309), Vegetation Clearance Was Greatly Affecting Terrestrial Flora And Fauna Species (Mean=1.26, Standard Deviation=0.439). The Frequency Of Vegetation Clearance Was Extremely High (Mean=2.90, Standard Deviation= 1.006). The Rate Of Vegetation Clearance Was Increasing In Trend (Mean= 1.20, Standard Deviation= 0.398). The Respondents Were Not Sure Whether There Were Effective Conservation Measures In Place To Mitigate The Effects Of Vegetation Clearance (Mean=1.70, Standard Deviation=0.457). The Study Concluded That The Survival Of Terrestrial Flora And Fauna Species Were Greatly Threatened By Vegetation Clearance. The Study Recommended That The Local Communities Should Be Sensitized More On The Conservation Of Flora And Fauna Species.

Keywords: Terrestrial Flora; Terrestrial Fauna; Conservation; Vegetation Clearance

Date of Submission: 19-06-2023

Date of Acceptance: 29-06-2023

I. INTRODUCTION

By the rise of Iron Age in 1000 BC, a dramatic growth in human population of 72million was experienced. Since then the human population has grown by 100 times, thereby increasing anthropogenic activities for livelihood (Klein, Beusen & Janshen, 2010). This is a fundamental cause to the ongoing global mass extinctions of terrestrial flora and fauna species (Eldredge, 2000). Anthropogenic activities are socio-economic duties carried out by human beings on an environment such as farming, hunting, grazing, charcoal burning, firewood collection, and brick making. The Convention of Biological Diversity state that there are both indirect and direct anthropogenic factors of species extinction. The direct human factors are habitat loss, spread of invasive species, over harvesting, pollution, and climate change (Allister, Braat, VanderWindt, Rademaekers, Eichler & Turner (2009). A study done by Redford (1995) as cited by (Muluneh, 2021) noted that a third to half of earth surface have been greatly altered by direct human factors.

In addition, World Wide Fund, noted that currently, the greatest threat to terrestrial flora and fauna species is seemingly habitat loss and out of all species described in the IUCN's Red List 85% are threatened by habitat loss (WWF, 2020). Other studies such as (Odetta 2014; Vilà, Espinar, Hejda, Hulme, Jarošík, Maron, & Pyšek, 2011; Pejchar & Mooney, 2009) have greatly talked about how spread of invasive species, habitat loss, climate change, pollution and over harvesting threatens flora and fauna species. however, these studies occurred elsewhere and not in Rachuonyo, at the same time the depletion rate of flora and fauna species were not documented in Rachuonyo South. The analysis of the above studies indicated that rapid population growth has led to increased anthropogenic activities and population pressure on the land hence increased depletion of flora and fauna species. This was replicated in Rachuonyo South whose population growth was rising as evidenced by 2019 Kenya population and demographic census which reported a population density of 511 persons/Km² in the sub-county which was far above the national population density of 82 persons/Km².

Globally, as a result of alteration of habitat for human consumption, a number terrestrial flora and fauna species have been on the decrease consistently (UNEP, 2014). Most experts believe that globally terrestrial species are threatened to extinction and that in the next few decades, 1 million species of flora and fauna species are at threat of being lost (AWF, 2015; UNEP, 2019a). This declining trend is attributed to the destruction of habitat due to vegetation clearance. Vegetation clearance is any activity causing destruction on local vegetation including cutting and removal of plant and trees burning, poisoning, slashing of understory, and removal of branches and shrubs (Native 2015). The findings of Neldner et al. (2017) agrees with the results of (AWF, 2015) and (UNEP, 2019a) that terrestrial species are at the verge of extinction due to habitat loss. The study noted that 233 flora and 33 fauna have been listed as near threatened meanwhile others are extinct.

These studies did not analyze how vegetation clearing caused the decline of these species and yet species were declining at alarming rate. Besides, there was a possibility of many flora and fauna species dying at the time of clearing, meanwhile many fauna that managed to escape during the clearing process died from stress, starvation or predation. There was therefore a need to assess if these outcomes were true.

The destruction of the natural habitat of terrestrial species for human settlement and transport infrastructure has immensely threatened numerous flora and fauna species (McDonald, Marcotullio & Giineralp, 2013; Bennie, Davies, Cruse & Gaston, 2016). A researcher affirmed this by asserting that the survival of numerous flora and fauna species are critically threatened by an ever growing and urbanizing human population (Giineralp, 2013). Additionally, some researchers forecasted that between 2010 and 2050 there will be an increase of 60% in the stretch of roads and railway and that by 2050 urban centres will host 6.3 billion residents (United Nations, 2015; Dulac, 2013), unfortunately, the regions that have a soaring terrestrial flora and fauna species is where most human settlement occur (Luck & Smallbon, 2010). This is a threat indicator to terrestrial species whose habitat are being destroyed for settlement. In support to this, Giincralp (2013) further inserted that due to urban growth above 25% of all species that have been listed as endangered or critically endangered.

The Counties enclosed by urbanized areas in the United Kingdom have greatly experienced species extinction. For instance, 35% of flora became extinct due to expansion of urban development in the region (Hardman 2011). A researcher confirmed this and acknowledged in the study done by the National Wildlife Federation that most of the American local flora and fauna species are significantly threatened due to transformation of their habitat for human settlement (Ewing and Kostyack 2016), further, the National Wildlife Federation noted that on an hourly basis 20 flora and 20 fauna species becomes extinct (Effects of overpopulation Magazine, 2013). Additionally, a researcher acknowledged that the fragmentation of the original habitat for the establishment of roads and houses has immensely enhanced the decline of terrestrial species (Cane, Minckley, Kervin, Roulston, & Williams, 2006). In as much as these studies keenly observed that terrestrial flora and fauna species are being affected by clearance of vegetation for settlement and infrastructure however, these studies did not analyze how this action affected specific flora and fauna species and yet the expansion of settlement was a serious threat to the integrity of habitat. The practice denied the habitat crucial natural interconnectedness, thus reducing the movement of species between habitats. Consequently, this led to migration and death due to starvation and predation. Hence this study found this a missing gap and sought to examine it.

African continent is experiencing a high population growth rate. This is greatly witnessed in most of her rural population in countries such as Benin, Burundi, Eritrea, Burkina Faso and Uganda (WB, 2013). Thus more land for agriculture and settlement is required which eventually causes a decline in species diversity due to habitat loss. In a similar manner, the IUCN indicated that due to agriculture, habitat is largely altered especially in West African countries (Nigeria, Cameroon, Gabon and Congo), threatening some species like Red-capped Mangabey (Cercocebus torquatus.

The over harvesting Fleurydora felicis (shrub) for medicinal purposes, and wood fuel in Guinea has seriously endangered this particular species and in Madagascar, 90% of rosewood and palissander (Dalbergia) are highly utilized (IUCN, 2019). Despite the great insight aired by these studies on the decline of flora species due to agriculture and wood fuel, regionally increasing population growth rate was still exerting a lot of pressure on habitat. This study therefore emphasized on this to address the effect of anthropogenic activities on terrestrial flora and fauna species.

In Kenya there is high dependency of wood fuel as a source of energy especially among the urban and rural population. Yearly, 2.4 million tons are approximated to be consumed inform of firewood and charcoal used by rural and urban population at a rate of 90% and 82% respectively (KES, 2018). The National Environmental Complaints Committee indicated that terrestrial flora and fauna species are at the brink of disappearance due to charcoal burning. This human activity majorly focuses on high density wood, however, other species are also cut down during their depletion enhancing habitat loss. This eventually cause flora and fauna species to disappear at a rate of 1 to 10 annually (NECC, 2018). In as much as the above studies have correctly indicated that wood fuel harvesting was a major threat to terrestrial species in Kenya, the dependence of most Kenyan population on wood fuel was still high and this posed a lot of threats to terrestrial flora and fauna species as their habitat were destroyed causing fauna species to relocate in search of new habitat and breeding points. This study addressed this gap. This

research was essential because the assessment of this activity will help in regulating the rate at which species are declining.

According to the findings of Homabay County Integrated Development Plan (2018), thousands of species are threatened to extinction in Homabay where Rachuonyo South is located. This is due to high population growth and poverty level which increases human activities on the habitat within the county. Further, HCIDP (2018), noted that high rate of fertility within the County which stand at 5.2 children per woman higher than the national rate which is 4.6 children per woman and of counties such as Siaya and Migori whose fertility rate stood at 3.2 and 4.2 children respectively. For instance, by 2009, the sub county was a home to 113,118 people, currently according to 2019 census, the population rose to 130,814 people implying a population density of 511 persons/Km² in the sub-county which is far above the national population density of 82 persons/Km² and some surrounding counties such as Siaya and Migori whose densities are 393 and 430 persons per square kilometer SCIDP (2018) and MCIDP (2018). Meanwhile, Homabay county where Rachuonyo is situated is also experiencing a steady rise in her rate of population growth for instance in the census of 1999, the county had 751,332 people this rose to 963,794 in 2009 and in the 2019 census the county has a population 1,131,950. The county has an annual population change of 1.6% between the year 2009 and 2019 (Brinkhoff, 2020). This has greatly posed a great threat to the species. In addition, (GoK 2018) asserted Activities such as Intensive agriculture, wildlife poaching, vegetation clearance has exacerbated environmental degradation and that bush and forest clearing to farming, charcoal burning and human settlement within the region has led to the loss of vegetation. Further GoK (2018), noted that these activities often lead to decline on plant species, biomass and animal habitat and yet forest is a home to over 80% of animal species such as Topi antelope, hyenas, Roan antelopes, giraffes, buffaloes, hare and various species of snakes. In as much as measures such as reforestation, ecotourism, seed banks, nature preserves and government's legislation have been emphasized in the region unfortunately the decline is still high due to acceleration of these anthropogenic activities on habitats by densely human populated region. For instance, 74% of population is employed in agriculture, and at least 97% of the households use wood fuel for cooking, (GoK Report, 2018). However, these activities were cutting down various species of plants causing a relocation of animal species and yet these species were not documented. Hence, this study assessed the effect of the anthropogenic activities on terrestrial flora and fauna species conservation in Rachuonyo Sub County, Homabay County.

Globally, terrestrial flora and fauna species are threatened majorly by rapid human population growth, increased human activities geared toward reducing poverty levels and cultural activities. In Kenya, particularly in Rachuonyo South, human population growth was found to be alarming hence human activities escalating. According to Kenya population and demographic census of 2019, the Sub County had a population density of 511persons per Km² which was far above the population densities of some surrounding counties such as Siaya and Migori whose densities are 393 and 430 persons per square kilometer respectively while national population density is 82 persons per km². The fertility rate of the Sub County stood at 5.2 children per woman greater than the national rate of 4.6 children per woman and of counties such as Siaya and Migori whose fertility rate stood at 3.2 and 4.2 children respectively. Thus it is worth noting that human population growth in the sub county has accelerated human activities on the habitat posing a great threat to flora and fauna species.

Historically, Rachuonyo community are renowned hunters and gatherers a skill acquired from their ancestral link to Rachuonyo who was one of the greatest and excellent hunters in Luo community. This activity could be threatening game found within the study area. However, most of the reviewed studies have focused on the mega- terrestrial fauna species as being threatened leaving the aspect of other species such as small game while some studies majorly focused on hunting as an anthropogenic activity at the expense of gathering aspect. Considering the global and local threats to terrestrial flora and fauna species coupled with the deficiency of the reviewed pieces of literature, the present study focused on examining the effect of anthropogenic activities (hunting, gathering and vegetation clearance) on terrestrial flora and fauna species conservation in Rachuonyo South Sub County, Homabay County.

II. METHODS

The study employed a cross-sectional descriptive research design because data was collected at one point at a time from the study area and described to depict the effect of human activities on terrestrial flora and fauna species conservation.

Rachuonyo South Sub County is in Homabay County. It is bordered by Rachuonyo North Sub County to the North, Rachuonyo East sub county to the North East, Rangwe sub county to the West and Kisii County to the South. Rachuonyo South Sub County lies between longitudes 34° 14' E and 35° 1'E and latitude 0° 23' S and 0° 36' S (figure). It has a total area of 259 square kilometres. Rachuonyo South sub County is divided into five wards namely; West Kasipul, East Kamagak, Central Kasipul, West Kamagak, and North Kamagak, these wards are further sub divide into twenty-five sub locations which had a specific boundary (Government of Kenya 2018).

A stratified random sampling technique was employed to select respondents from five wards in the study area. The sample size was determined by the Fisher's formula as articulated by Madhuri and Dheerji (2022): $n = \frac{z^2 pq}{z}$

Where: n = the desired minimum sample size (when target population is infinite), Z = the standard normal deviate at the required confidence level (Marginal error); at 95%, z=1.96, P= the proportion in target population estimated to have the characteristic being measured q=1-p,

d= Level of significance.

 d^2

Source: Madhuri and Dheerji (2022) formula to determine sample size of a population. Therefore: at 0.05 confidence level, z=1.96, p= (50% =0.5). Thus n= $(1.96)^2 \times (0.5 \times 0.5) = 384$ $(0.05)^2$

Since the study population is finite at N=30990 household heads, then the sample size formula is $n0 = \frac{n}{1 + (\frac{n-1}{2})}$

Where n_0 is the sample size for finite population, n = 384, and N = 30990.

$$n0 = \frac{384}{1 + (\frac{384 - 1}{30990})} = 379$$

Hence, the minimum sample size of the study was 379 indicating that questionnaires were administered to 379 household heads. The unit of analysis were household heads composed of either adult male or female in the study area who provided key information concerning human activities that were greatly threatening the existence of species in Rachuonyo South Sub County. The sample size per ward used in the study was attained by dividing the total number of households from each ward by the total households of the entire sub county and then multiplied by total sample size as shown in table 1 column 5.

		1 0	attix of Respondents	
No.	Name of Ward	Sampling method	Number of households (N)	sample size (n)
1.	West Kasipul	Stratified Random Sampling	12,148	$\frac{12148 \text{ x} 379}{30990} = 149$
2.	East Kamagak		8582	$\frac{8582x379}{30990} = 101$
3.	Central Kasipul		2352	$\frac{2352 \text{ x}379}{30990} = 29$
4.	West Kamagak		3496	$\frac{3,496 \times 379}{30990} = 43$
5.	North Kamagak		4412	$\frac{4.412 \text{ x} 379}{30990} = 54$
Total	5		30,990	379

Table 1: Sampling matrix of Respondents

Source: Modified from (KNBS 2019)

To get individual household heads from the sample size for each ward, stratified random sampling was employed by considering the wards as strata. The list of all household names was obtained from the Ward executive officer, to get the sampling frame after which the respondents were randomly picked at an interval of ten to avoid biasness.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Respondent's Response Rate

The United State Government Accountability Office (2017), defined response rate as the percentage of the eligible sampled elements of the target population who provided usable data for the analysis. According to GAO Internal Guidance Resource (2017) the computation of the response rate can be done using the following formula;

Response rate = Usable Responses

The present study adopted this formula to compute the respondents' response rate as shown in table 2.

Respondents	Eligible sampled element	Usable Response	Rate (%)			
Household heads	379	365	96 %			
Chiefs	5	4	80%			
Environmental officers	2	2	100%			
Herbalist &Hunter	2	2	100%			
Forest Officers	2	2	100%			

 Table 2: Respondents Response Rate Summary

The respondents' response rate (household heads =96%, chiefs =80%, environmental officers =100%, herbalist and hunter =100%, forest officers =100%) as shown in Table 2 for this study were sufficient as they were far above the 50% bench mark rate proposed by the United State Government Accountability Office (2017). This high response rate enhanced the reliability and validity of the study.

Socio-Demographic Characteristic of the Respondents

5

Connelly (2013) asserted that demographic characteristics of participants are essential in informing the readers of the research about what population outcome may generalize. In this study, the data collected focused on gender, age, household size, education, main occupation, period lived in the study area, approximate size of land and approximate income per month of the household heads as the active participants in human activities. The table below shows clearly the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Demographic Characteristics		Response Categories						
Variable	Indicator	Household Heads	Chiefs	Environment officer	Hunter/ herbalist	Forest officer		
Gender	Male	149 (41%)	3(75%)	1 (50%)	1(50%)	1(50%)		
	Female	216 (59%)	1(25%)	1 (50%)	1(50%)	1(50%)		
Age bracket	31- 40yrs	17 (5%)						
	41-50 years	112 (31%)						
	51-60 years	149 (40%)						
	Above 60 years	87 (24%)						
Level of	Primary	185 (51%)						
Education	Secondary	100 (27%)						
	Certificate/ Diploma	49 (13%)						
	University	31 (9%)						
Period of	5-10 years	3 (1%)						
Residence	10-15 years	16 (4%)						
	15-20 years	112 (31%)						
	More than 20 years	234 (64%)						
Main Occupation	Formal Employment	53 (15%)						
	Casual Employment	25(7%)						
	Business	60 (16%)						
	Farming	227 (62%)						
Approximate	1-3 acres	259 (71%)						
land size	4-6 acres	90 (25%)						
	Above 7acres	16 (4%)						
Approximate	Ksh. 0-5000	103 (28%)						
Income	Ksh. 5001-10000	183 (50%)						

Table 3: Socio-Demographic Characteristic of the Respondents

	Ksh. 10001-15,000	28 (8%)				
	Above Ksh. 15,000	51 (14%)				
Years of	Below 5yrs		1(25%)	0(00%)	0(0%)	0(0%)
Service	Above 5yrs		3(75%)	2(100%)	2(100%)	2(100%)

Gender wise, the study was balanced with both male and female respondents (Household: Male= 41%, Female=59%, Chief: male=75%, female=25%; Environment officer: male=50%, female=50%, herbalist: female=50%; hunter: male=50%, forest officer: male=50%, female=50%). This implied that for their livelihood, both male and female were actively engaged on anthropogenic activities which threatened the terrestrial flora and fauna species. UNEP, (2017) conform to the finding of this study (Table 3) that both men and women in the world are actively involved activities that threatens biodiversity. Further, UNEP noted that biodiversity is seen to be closely connected to development, access to resources, income-generating activities, food, and essential household products therefore on a daily routine both men and women collect, utilize, sell plant and animal products.

Age bracket in the study depicted maturity and experience of respondents. It was included because it was a determinant of people carrying out various anthropogenic activities, have a history of the occurrence of these activities, knowledge on various terrestrial flora and fauna species and how these activities have affected terrestrial flora and fauna species within Rachuonyo South Sub County. According to the study, the ages of respondents were distributed as: 31-40 years (5%), 41-50 years (31%), 51-60 years (40%) and above 60 years (24%). From the results presented in Table 7, it was evident that most of the respondents were in age range from 51 to 60. This implied that mature and experienced indigenous respondents were considered to give history of terrestrial flora and fauna species that were indigenous and how the anthropogenic activities have affected them.

Level of education indicates the ability of a respondent to articulate issues regarding terrestrial flora and fauna species conservation, anthropogenic activities threatening species and the involvement of the respondent in these activities. In the study, the level of education was distributed as: Primary (51%), secondary (27%), certificate/diploma (13%) and university (9%). Analysis of education level indicated that majority of respondents had basic education (78%) which empowered them to provide the information inquired of by the study, at the same time, this analysis indicated the level of involvement of the respondents to the activities that threatens the survival of species. This implied that in as much as the respondents could articulate issues regarding species, majority of the respondents that had education below tertiary level were greatly involved in the anthropogenic activities. UNESCO, (2015) support this finding by indicating that, by improving knowledge, instilling values, fostering beliefs and shifting attitudes, education has considerable power to help individuals reconsider environmentally harmful lifestyles and behavior. Further, UNESCO, (2015) pointed out that 25% of people with less than secondary education worry about environment as opposed to 46% of people with tertiary education.

Period of residence and years of service in a given area may be commensurate with knowledge of the study area. It was included because it was an evidence that the information given by the respondents were truthful since, the more the time the respondents stay in the study area, the more reliable the information given. In the study, 3 (1%), 16 (4%), 112 (31%) and 234 (64%) respondents had stayed in the study area for periods 5-10 years, 10-15 years, 15-20 years and More than 20 years respectively. The study revealed that 64 % of the respondents have lived in the area for more than 20 years and 31% for 15-20 years (Table 7). This implied that majority of the respondents had adequate knowledge of the distribution of flora and fauna species, anthropogenic activities threatening species, the purpose of these activities and conservation measures in the study area. The studies (Omari, 2006; Babatunde & Qaim, 2009), supported this finding, they asserted that when people stay in a particular area for a longer duration, they get experience on the conditions of the environment, become aware of the available natural resources like terrestrial species, give relevant information to researchers on the various activities they do for a living.

Occupation and an approximate monthly income of the respondents gives light on the resource utilization within the study area. In this study, the formally employed, casually employed, business oriented and farming oriented respondents accounted for 15%, 7%, 16% and 62% respectively and majority of respondents' monthly income fell in the range between Ksh. 5001 to Ksh. 10,000 which accounted for 50%. This implied that most respondents heavily depended on the available natural resources such as land and species for their livelihood. The analysis depicted that a greater percentage 62% of respondents depend on farming an activity that threatens the survival of species as a result of vegetation clearance at the same time majority of the respondents 50% had a low income of Ksh. 5001 to Ksh. 10,000. This can be interpreted that majority of the residents are poor making them to rely on activities such as farming, hunting and gathering that threatens the survival of terrestrial flora and fauna species. Gok report, (2018), reported that 74% and 97% of the household heads within Homabay County are employed in agriculture, and use wood fuel for cooking and that the region is characterized by high level of poverty.

Approximate land size in the study depicted the level of land fragmentation due to high population. According to the study, the land was distributed as: 1-3 acres (71%), 4-6 acres (25%) and above 7acres (4%). The majority of respondents (71%) owned farms of average sizes of 1 acre 3 acres while 25% of the respondents owned farms of average sizes of 4 to 6acres. This suggested that the respondents depended highly on land and that due to high population, the land is highly fragmented. Gok (2018), reported that the region is characterized by a rapidly growing population and high population density and falling food production putting pressure on the available resources.

Years of service of the key informants reflects their professional experience. In the study, the key informants which included; Chiefs, environment officer, herbalist, hunter and gatherer and forest officer had served for a period of above five years. This implied that the key informant had requisite experience. Cossham, A. & Johanson, G. (2019); Marshall, M. N. 1996), indicated that key informants are knowledgeable individuals that contribute a perspective on a research phenomenon or situation and have a role in the community or understanding of the phenomenon that gives them information that the researcher is seeking. Further, Marshall, indicated that they are expert source of information who due to their personal skills, or position within a society provide more information and deeper insight into what is going on around them.

Terrestrial flora and fauna species threatened by anthropogenic activities in Rachuonyo South Sub County

There was need to establish whether there were any terrestrial flora and fauna species being threatened within Rachuonyo South Sub County, hence the researcher sought to identify the various terrestrial flora and fauna species threatened by anthropogenic activities and their uses.

The study established that some terrestrial flora species were threatened in Rachuonyo South Sub County. The results are summarized in Table 4.

Threatened terrestrial flora species		Classification (indigenous/ exotic)	Uses	The threatening Anthropogenic activities
Local name	Botanical name (Kokwaro &Johns 2013)			
Anyuka	Vangueria madagascariensis	Indigenous	Fruit, firewood	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Achak	Euphorbia inaequilatera	Indigenous	Vegetables	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Adugo,	Combretum molle	Indigenous	Wood fuel	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Akech	Chameecrista hildebrandtii	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Alii,	Acacia seyal	Indigenous	Wood fuel, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Ang'we	Kedrostis foetidissima	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Pilipili	Capsicum frutescens	Indigenous	Spice, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Apuoyo	Chloris gayana	Indigenous	Fodder, thatch	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Apoth	Corchorus trilocularis	Indigenous	Vegetables, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Arumbe,	Acacia hockii	Indigenous	Wood fuel, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Arupiny	Commiphora Africana	Indigenous	Medicinal, firewood	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Atego,	Keetia gueinzii	Indigenous	Fruit	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Atilili	Psiadia punctulata	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Atipa	Asytasia gangetica	Indigenous	Vegetables	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Ayiergweng,	Boscia angustifolia	Indigenous	Wood fuel	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Bongu,	Fiscu sur	Indigenous	Wood fuel	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Bondo	Euphorbia candelabrum	Indigenous	Glue	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Chwaa	Tamarindus indica	Indigenous	Fruit, medicinal, wood fuel	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Deg akeyo	Cleome gynandra	Indigenous	Vegetables, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Det,	Ormocarpum trichocarpum	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Dwelle	Melia azeradarch	Indigenous	Wood fuel, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Huyandawa	Withania somnifera	Indigenous	Fire wood, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Kagna	Vaungueria apiculate	Indigenous	Fruit, firewood	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Keyo,	Combretum molle	Indigenous	Wood fuel	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Konga	Agave sisalama	Indigenous	Fire, wood, construction,	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Koth-kiyombi	Datura stramonium	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Kuogo,	Lannea schweinfurthii	Indigenous	Medicinal, wood fuel	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Madhare,	Ozoroa insignis	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Milo	Mucana pruriens	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Minya	Cissus quadrangularis	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Modi	Phragmites mauritianus	Indigenous	Fodder	Gathering/vegetation clearance

 Table 4: Identified threatened terrestrial flora species, classification, uses and the threatening anthropogenic activities

DOI: 10.9790/2402-1706013250

Ndap-nyaluo	Nicotiana tabacum	Exotic	Smoking	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Nderma	Basella alba	Indigenous	Vegetables, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Nduga	Acacia drepanolobium	Indigenous	firewood, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Ng'owo	Ficus wakefieldii	Indigenous	Wood fuel, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Nyabend-winy	Lantana camara	Indigenous	Firewood, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Nyajuok-olaw	Acmella caulirhiza	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Nyanyiek mon	Bidens pilosa	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Nyayado,	Senna occidentalis	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Obala-ndagwa,	Ricinus communis	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Ober	Albizia coriaria	Indigenous	Medicinal, wood fuel	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Obino,	Senna didymobotrya	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Obokeran	Psychotria peduncularis	Indigenous	Brick making,	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Obolobolo	Annona senegalensis	Indigenous	Medicinal, firewood	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Obong	Cajanus cajan	Indigenous	Vegetables	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Ochok,	Solanum incanum	Indigenous	fodder, Brick making	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Ochol	Lepisanthes senegalensis	Indigenous	Medicinal, wood fuel,	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Ochuoga	Carissa spinarum	Indigenous	Fruit, medicinal, Firewood	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Odielo	Commelina Africana	Indigenous	Vegetables	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Ododo	Amaranthus hybridus	Indigenous	Vegetables, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Ojuok	Euphobia tirucalii	Indigenous	Medicinal, hedge	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Okita,	Plectranthus barbatus	Indigenous	Medicinal	Vegetation clearance
Okuro	Alternantherapungens	Indigenous	Weed	Vegetation clearance
Okworo	Clerodendrum myricoides	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Olando	Indigofera arrecta	Indigenous	Basketry, med	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Olemo	Ximenia Americana	Indigenous	Fruit, firewood, Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Oludh-koun	Allophylus africanus	Indigenous	firewood,	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Ombasa,	Tylosema fassoglense	Indigenous	Medicinal, food	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Omen	Hibiscus aponeurus	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Omieny	Lippia javanica	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Ondati,	Teclea nobilis	Indigenous	Wood fuel, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Onera	Terminalia brownie	Indigenous	construction, wood fuel, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Ongodi	Sida acuta	Indigenous	Wood fuel, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Ong'ono,	Sclerocarya birrea	Indigenous	Fruit, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Onunga	Morus nigra	Indigenous	Wood fuel, fruits	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Onuong'o	Hygrophila schulli	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Ohoho	Phytolacca dodecandra	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Osani	Leptochloa obtusiflora	Indigenous	Fodder	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Oseno,	Cordia monoica	Indigenous	Firewood	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Osiri	Acacia brevispica	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Osiri,	Scotia myrtina	Indigenous	Fruit, med.	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Otho	Balanites aegyptiaca	Indigenous	Wood fuel, fruit	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Pedo	Harrisonia abyssinica	Indigenous	Firewood, fodder,	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Pocho	Ficus thonningii	Indigenous	Medicinal, sacred	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Powo	Grewia bicolor	Indigenous	construction, wood fuel, basketry	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Roko	Zanthoxylum chalybeum	Indigenous	Medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Siala	Markhamia lutea	Indigenous	construction, wood fuel, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Sangla	Rhus natalensis	Indigenous	Medicinal, wood fuel	Gathering/vegetation clearance
	Kigelia Africana	Indigenous	Wood fuel, medicinal	Gathering/vegetation clearance
Yago				

Source: field data 2022 and Kokwaro & Johns (2013)

The response from household questionnaires and the key informants indicated that some terrestrial flora species are threatened in Rachuonyo South Sub County as shown in Table 4. A total of 80 flora species were identified as threatened. Most of the threatened flora species identified were indigenous apart from Ndap Nyaluo (nicotiana tabacum) which is exotic. Indigenous flora species threatened included; Anyuka (*Vangueria madagascariensis*), Achak (*Euphorbia inaequilatera*), Osiri, (*Scotia myrtina*), Adugo, (*Combretum molle*), Akech (*Chameecrista hildebrandtii*), Alii, (*Acacia seyal*), Ang'we (*Kedrostis foetidissima*), Pilipili (*Capsicum frutescens*), Otho (*Balanites aegyptiaca*), Pedo (*Harrisonia abyssinica*), Pocho (*Ficus thonningii*), Powo (*Grewia bicolor*), Roko (*Zanthoxylum chalybeum*), Siala (*Markhamia lutea*), Sangla (*Rhus natalensis*), Yago (*Kigelia Africana*) and Yiendalusi (*Rhynchosia alegans*) among others (Table 4).

DOI: 10.9790/2402-1706013250

The uses of the identified terrestrial flora species were established to be wood fuel, fruits, vegetables, fodder, construction, timber, brick making, for basketry and medicinal purposes. These uses led to anthropogenic activities such as vegetation clearance, hunting and gathering which posed a great threat to the identified flora species. This implies that Rachuonyo South is endowed with various terrestrial flora species which support their livelihood in areas such as food, wood fuel, medicinal and construction among others and that the local community majorly depend on indigenous species at the expense of exotic species this has posed heavy threat to the existing indigenous species leading to extinction of some species. An interview with key informants revealed:

Initially, Rachuonyo South Sub County was heavily forested with indigenous trees, thick bushes and shrubs, but currently due to increased human activities such as charcoal burning, brick making, rural access roads and crop farming most species have reduced in number and specific species used for herbal medicine have become rare forcing the herbalist to take a long duration in gathering herbs. (Female herbalist from Kotieno Sub location in West Kasipul – December 2022).

Another key informant also revealed that:

As a result of increased human activities such as charcoal burning, firewood collection and brick making accelerated by rapid population growth and poverty in the sub county most indigenous terrestrial flora species such as yago (*Kigelia Africana*), siala (Markhamia lutea), alii (Acacia seyal), konga (Agave sisalama) kuogo(Lannea schweinfurthii), ng'owo (Ficus wakefieldii), ober (Albizia coriaria), onera (Terminalia brownie) and otho (Balanites aegyptiaca) have been greatly threatened and that some species such as oseno (Cordia monoica), keyo (Combretum molle), roko (Zanthoxylum chalybeum) and dwele (Melia azeradarch) have become extinct within the region. (Forest Warden at Kodera Forest– December 2022)

This implies that the species are greatly essential to the livelihood of the local community. However, the rate at which these species were being used have threatened their existence and these threat were due to increased human activities enhanced by rapid population growth and high poverty level within the study region. Hence, there is a likelihood of high rate of species extinction in the next few decades within the study area if the poverty level and rapid growth of human population is not controlled.

The study established the current status of terrestrial flora species richness and the results were summarized in Table 5.

Questions			Scales(Frequencies/ percentages)			Statistics	
			Increasing	Decreasing	No change	Mean	Std. Dev.
1. What is the terrestrial flor		of	51(14%)	278(76%)	33(9%)	1.96	0.487
			a 54				

Table 5: The current status flora species richness

Source: Field data, 2022

Table 5 shows that 76% of respondents noted a decrease in the number of terrestrial flora species, they further identified the reasons for the decrease which were found to be linked to the uses of terrestrial flora species (Table 4), 14% of the respondents indicated an increase in species richness basing their argument on tree planting, agroforestry, planting of vegetables for consumption, usage of modern technology of cooking and building while 10% indicated no change in species richness. This finding shows that the distribution of the response from household heads leaned highly toward "Decreasing" (mean=1.96 and standard deviation= 0.487) as presented in Table 9. This quantitative decline in species richness was explained by the qualitative data resulting from the summary on the uses of the terrestrial flora species (Table 4). Additionally, an interview with key informants revealed that:

Most of the indigenous community are greatly involved in activities such as crop farming, settlement of new homes, charcoal burning, firewood collection and brick making and these activities have posed threats to terrestrial flora species as no replacement is done for the species cut at the same time once an area has been cleared for crop farming and settlement it is permanently left for that activity leaving no room for regrowth of the species. Further, due to population pressure more habitat are constantly encroached this has made terrestrial flora species to decrease in number thus habitat loss. (Administrative Chief from East Kamagak – December 2022).

This explains the fact that terrestrial flora species are greatly essential for the livelihood of the residents of Rachuonyo South Sub County, however, rapid growth of human population has accelerated human activities within the study region that exerts a lot of pressure on the available flora species thus threatening them to extinction. These human activities (uses of the species) are also important to the local community, some of them such as crop farming, charcoal burning and brick making among others are sources of earning a living within the study area. It is evident, therefore, that the uses of these species are linked to the anthropogenic activities (vegetation clearance, and gathering). This eventually led to loss and fragmentation of habitat that caused fauna species to relocate to safer and larger habitat and even those that would remain would eventually die due to competition for food. Further there was a clear indication that the residents were ignorant of the various species conservation measures put in place within the study area as evidenced by the responses of the 14% respondents.

It barred the residents from managing habitat by practicing activities which prevented degradation and thereby enhancing the quality of vegetation.

The findings of IUCN (2019), noted that increase in human population has led to the release of anthropogenic activities that lead to loss and fragmentation of habitat which threatens species to extinction. Similarly, Carrington (2020) asserted that the key reasons for the loss of plant species is the clearance of wild habitat to create farmland, overharvesting of wild plants for herbal medicines that has threatened 723 species with extinction. These findings from IUCN (2019) and Carrington (2020) are consistent with the findings of the present study. However, IUCN studied population density, diversity and abundance of antelope species in a Lake National park while Carrington (2020) on the other hand focused on the race against time to save plants and fungi. These studies did not document on specific human activities such as vegetation clearance, hunting and gathering and how these activities are affecting terrestrial flora and fauna species conservation an area studied by the current study.

The study further established whether terrestrial fauna species were also threatened in Rachuonyo South Sub County. The results are summarized in Table 6.

Table 6: Identified threatened terrestrial fauna species	, classification, uses and the threatening anthropogenic
--	--

activities

Threatened terr	restrial fauna species	Classification	Uses	The threatening	
Threatened terr	estitui tuutu species	(indigenous/	0.505	Anthropogenic activities	
		exotic)		•F • Ø	
Local name	Botanical name				
	(Kokwaro & Johns				
	2013)				
Abur	Redunca redunca	Indigenous	Meat	Hunting, vegetation	
		-		clearance	
Aidha	Protoxerus stangeri	Indigenous	Meat	Hunting, vegetation	
	bea	-		clearance	
Apul	Kobus ellipsi prymnus	Indigenous	Meat	Hunting, vegetation	
				clearance	
Apwoyo	Lepus saxatilis	Indigenous	Meat	Hunting, vegetation	
				clearance	
Bim	Papio cynocephalus	Indigenous	Not specified	Vegetation clearance	
Chiewu	Atherurus africanus	Indigenous	Meat	Hunting, vegetation	
				clearance	
Dwe	Tragelaphus spekei	Indigenous	Meat	Hunting, vegetation	
				clearance	
Fuko	Tachyoryctes slendens	Indigenous	Meat	Hunting, vegetation	
				clearance	
Gwothim	Lycaon pictus	Indigenous	Not identified	Vegetation clearance	
Jowi	Syncerus caffer	Indigenous	Meat, horns	Hunting, vegetation	
				clearance	
Kibwe	Canis mesomelas	Indigenous	Not identified	Vegetation clearance	
Mbeche	Potamochoerus porcus	Indigenous	Meat	Hunting, vegetation	
				clearance	
Mwanda	Oreutragus oreotragus	Indigenous	Meat	Hunting, vegetation	
	schillingsi			clearance	
M 1		T 1'	M (1'	TT	
Mwok	Orycteropus afer	Indigenous	Meat, skin	Hunting, vegetation	
				clearance	
Maan	Sulvisanna suimmia	Indigenous	Moot how	Insting vegetation	
Ngau	Sylvicarpa grimmia	indigenous	Meat, horn, Skin	Hunting, vegetation clearance	
			SKIII	clearance	
Njiri	Phacochoerus	Indigenous	Not identified	vegetation clearance	
NJIII	aethiopicus	murgenous	Not identified	vegetation clearance	
Nyakech	Aepyceros melampus	Indigenous	Meat	Hunting, vegetation	
rtyukeen	hepyeeros merampus	indigenous	mout	clearance	
Ogwang	Mellirora capensis	Indigenous	Not identified	Vegetation clearance	
Kibikibi	internitional capenisis	indigenous	1 tot Identified	(egotation eleanance	
Ogwang-	Nandinia binotata	Indigenous	Not identified	Vegetation clearance	
oluwo-bondo		810			
Omoro	Hyppotragus equines	Indigenous	Skin	Hunting, vegetation	
		-8		clearance	
Ondiek	Crocuta crocuta	Indigenous	Not identified	Vegetation clearance	
Ong'er	Cercopithecus	Indigenous	Not identified	Vegetation clearance	
	aethiops pygerythrus	810			
Oyieyo	Aethomys chrysophilus	Indigenous	Not identified	Vegetation clearance	

Riwo	Connocheates taurlnus		Indigenous	Meat	Hunting, clearance	vegetation
------	-----------------------	--	------------	------	-----------------------	------------

Source: Field data 2022 and (Kokwaro & Johns 2013)

The response from household questionnaires and the key informants interviewed indicated that some terrestrial fauna species were threatened in Rachuonyo South Sub County as shown in Table 6. A total of 24 fauna species were identified as threatened. All the fauna species identified were indigenous and they included Abur (*Redunca redunca*), Aidha (*Protoxerus stangeri bea*), Apul (*Kobus ellipsi prymnus*), Apwoyo (*Lepus saxatilis*), Bim (*Papio cynocephalus*), Chiewu (*Atherurus africanus*), Dwe (*Tragelaphus spekei*), Fuko (*Tachyoryctes slendens*), Gwothim (*Lycaon pictus*), Jowi (*Syncerus caffer*), Kibwe (*Canis mesomelas*), Mbeche (*Potamochoerus porcus*), Mwanda (*Oreutragus oreotragus schillingsi*), Mwok (*Orycteropus afer*), Ngau (*Sylvicarpa grimmia*), Njiri (*Phacochoerus aethiopicus*), Nyakech (*Aepyceros melampus*), Ogwang Kibikibi (*Mellirora capensis*), Ogwang- oluwo-bondo (*Nandinia binotata*), Omoro (*Hyppotragus equines*), Ondiek (*Crocuta crocuta*), Ong'er (*Cercopithecus aethiops pygerythrus*), Oyieyo (*Aethomys chrysophilus*) and Riwo (*Connocheates taurlnus*) (Table 6).

The study established that fauna species were used for meat, horn and skin and that these uses resulted in anthropogenic activity (hunting and gathering) which was found to be a threat to species conservation (Table 6). An interview with key informant revealed that:

Rachuonyo South Sub County was once sparsely populated with human, having few patches of bare land for crop farming while the rest of the land was covered by vegetation and various animal species were roaming in groups, currently the region has high human population, scattered shrubs and reduced fauna species while other such as riwo, nyakech, ngau, and jowi becoming extinct (Administrative Chief from North Kamagak – December 2022).

This implies that Rachuonyo South is endowed with various terrestrial fauna species which are greatly used by the local community as a source of game meat to replace beef which are costly and so most of them cannot afford, while other species are hunted for their horns which are used for making musical instrument known as "abuu" and for their skin which is used for making traditional drums for various local churches and traditional regalia worn by council of elders during special ceremonies and functions. This indicate that the community heavily depend on these species for their survival however the overdependence on them have threatened some of the species to extinction and the community is ignorant about the threat caused to the species due to overdependence.

The study established the current status of terrestrial fauna species richness. Their response is summarized in Table 7.

Questions		Scales(Frequencies/ percentages)			Statistics	
		Increasing	Decreasing	No change	Mean	Std. Dev.
2. What is the current stat	us of	45(12%)	287(79%)	33(9%)	1.97	0.462
terrestrial fauna species?						

Table 7: The current status fauna species richness

The findings on Table 6 revealed that; 79% of the respondents indicated a decline in fauna species richness(Table 7), due to the uses of species as shown in Table 10, 12% of the respondents noted that the species richness are increasing due to rearing of domestic animals and keeping poultry for consumption and usage of modern instruments in various churches. while 9% recorded no change. This finding showed that the distribution of the response from household heads leaned highly toward "decreasing" (mean=1.97 and standard deviation= 0.462) as presented in Table 11. This quantitative decline in species richness was explained by the qualitative data resulting from the summary on the uses of the terrestrial fauna species (Table 6). Further, the uses of these species were also observed to be connected to the anthropogenic activities (vegetation clearance, hunting and gathering). It is evident that despite the threat the local community was causing to terrestrial fauna species most of them were still engaged on the same activities. These activities are however key to their livelihood. There is therefore need to create awareness to the local community on the importance of species to ecosystem, effects of their destruction and further engaging them on activities such as poultry rearing to help them find other sources of protein.

This finding is in agreement with a report by WWF (2014), which recorded that there has been a constant decline in fauna population over the past 40 years and that a period between 1970 and 2012 experienced a decline of 52% of all fauna species population. Further, (WWF report, 2019), affirmed that about 99.9% of species that have ever lived have become extinct. In as much as this study indicated the quantitative rate of decline of fauna species, it did not list fauna species threatened and specific reasons for their threat. The current study has listed specific fauna species threatened and the factors that pose threat to them.

Source; Field data, 2022

Therefore, it is a clear indication that both terrestrial flora and fauna species identified within the study area were facing drastic decline due to anthropogenic activities such as vegetation clearance, hunting and gathering. These findings were consistent with those of (Butchart, 2010; Hoffmann, 2010) who noted that as mankind is increasingly using the natural resources and modifying the environment, the terrestrial species is in decline and that much of the decline were due to habitat loss and transformation. However, these studies focused on timing and direction of trend inflections as well as estimating the trend in which species population changed over time. Furthermore, Hoffmann (2010) coded each species according to IUCN threats, conservation actions and utilization action classification scheme. The current study however, studied specific anthropogenic activities actually threatening terrestrial flora and fauna species conservation in Rachuonyo South.

Effect of vegetation clearance on terrestrial flora and fauna species conservation in Rachuonyo South Sub County

The study further sought to determine the effect of vegetation clearance as an anthropogenic activity that threatened terrestrial flora and fauna species conservation. The respondents and the key informants were asked specific questions in line with the objective and responses were as discussed below.

The study identified types of vegetation, whether vegetation clearance was occurring and reasons for clearance within Rachuonyo South Sub County. It also determined its effect to terrestrial flora and fauna species conservation. The response on types of vegetation and reasons why they are cleared are summarized in Table 8.

r	1						
	Types of Vegetation	Reasons for Clearance					
1.	Forest	Crop farming, urban settlement, brick making, wood fuel, road expansion and					
		creation, hunting, population growth, logging, overstocking, uncontrolled					
		lumbering.					
2.	Grassland	Brick making, urban-settlement, over grazing, crop farming, establishment of new					
		homes due to population growth					
3.	Shrub land	Hunting, urban and rural settlement, crop farming, over grazing, brick making.					
	Source: Field Data 2022						

Table 8: Response on types of vegetation cleared and reasons for their clearance

Source: Field Data 2022

The results presented on Table 8 shows that the area had three common types of vegetation being cleared. They included forest, grassland and shrub land being cleared due to: Crop farming, urban settlement, brick making, wood fuel, hunting, human settlement, logging, overstocking, uncontrolled lumbering, road construction. This explain the fact that the study area was endowed with great vegetation cover as had been indicated that initially the area had vegetation which was thick and covering a larger area before rise in human population that accelerated exploitation of vegetation. Increase in human population and the accelerated human activities, has led to the clearance of most vegetation for human settlement, crop farming, road construction, brick making and an uncontrolled lumbering. These activities were found to be crucial to local humanity for their livelihood, despite their usefulness however, they have led to destruction of vegetation leading to loss and fragmentation of habitat which eventually resulted to the migration, reduction and extinction of fauna species within the study area causing an imbalance to the ecosystem that the community heavily depended upon.

The Plate 1 shows an excavated land for marram for road construction and expansion at Wire hills for constructing rural access roads and Oyugis -Kendubay road.



Plate 1: Marram excavated land at Wire hills for construction of roads Source: Field Data 2022

Questions	Scales (frequency and percentages)		Statistics	
	Yes	No	Mean	Std. Dev
Is vegetation clearance taking place in this area?	326(89%)	39(11%)	1.11	0.309
Does vegetation clearance affect flora and fauna species in this region?	270(74%)	95(26%)	1.26	0.439
		20(20/0)	1120	0

Table 9: The occurrence	of vegetation clearance	and how it affects species
	or egetation ereal anee	and no with another spectres

Source: Field data 2022

The findings on Table 18 indicated that 89% respondents agreed that vegetation clearance was occurring while 11% said "NO". On the other hand, 74% of the respondents indicated that terrestrial flora and fauna species listed on Table 8 and Table 10 were affected by the activity while 26% recorded that species were not affected. These findings inclined toward "Yes" as depicted by means of 1.11 and standard deviation of 0.309 and means of 1.26 and standard deviation of 0.439 respectively (Table 9). The result revealed that the activity was prevalent and had highly affected terrestrial flora and fauna species. This implies that these species were highly threatened by vegetation clearance due to crop farming, construction of rural access roads, brick making among others. This activity has caused areas that were initially covered by indigenous trees to be bare as seen in Plate 2 hence loss of habitat which is a major threat to the survival of fauna species. It has also reduced the number of large fauna species causing some like Jowi (*syncerus caffer*), Riwo (*connocheates taurlnus*) to be extinct, further, the interaction between species have been restricted especially due to habitat fragmentation caused by the construction of rural access roads as indicated in plate 1.

Further, the study established the extent of effect that vegetation clearance posed on flora and fauna species. The results are as presented in Table 10

|--|

No	How flora and fauna species are affected	Percentages of household heads response
1.	Extinction of some fauna species	83%
2.	Relocation of fauna species	86%
3.	Reduction of fauna species richness	78%
4.	Habitat loss	98%
5.	Fragmentation of the habitat	81%
6.	Extinction of some flora species	93%
7.	Reduction of flora species richness	95%

Source: field data 2022

The findings on Table 10 indicated that vegetation clearance has greatly affected terrestrial flora and fauna species. About 73% of the respondents noted extinction of some fauna species, 86% relocation of some species, 95% reduction of flora and fauna species richness, 98% habitat loss, 81% fragmentation of the habitat, 93% extinction of some flora species while 78% indicated decline in predators. An interview with a key informant revealed;

Vegetation clearance has affected terrestrial fauna species through the extinction of some of the species such as nyakech(*aepyceros melampus*), jowi(*syncerus caffer*), mwanda(*oreotragus oreotragus*), njiri(*phacochoerus aethiopicus*), bim(*papio cynocephalus*), abur(*redunca redunca*) and some flora species such as oseno(*Cordia monoica*), yago(*Kigelia Africana*), reduction of terrestrial species, fragmentation of habitat, loss of habitat, change in eating habit of predators and relocation of fauna species due to reduced size of their habitat (A male forest officer from Wire forest- December 2022).

This outcome confirms that vegetation clearance was a threat to terrestrial flora and fauna species conservation. It is evident that vegetation clearance has adversely affected terrestrial flora and fauna species through their uses as shown in Table 8. Most of flora and fauna species have become extinct, reduced in number or migrated (fauna). In as much as this species are heavily threatened, the local community are still subjecting them to more threat. It is therefore evident that most of the local inhabitants are ignorant of the importance of these species and the effect caused by the decline of species to their livelihood hence a need to conserve the threatened species.

The above findings were justified by studies conducted by (Reside et al. 2012; Travis et al. 2013 and Neldner *etal*. 2017) in Australia which asserted that at the point of land clearance numerous plants and animal species are killed, and those that escaped die soon due to stress, starvation or predation, the ability of the species to adapt and move is reduced. Even though the findings of these studies conformed to the outcome of the present study, nevertheless, they differ on their key objectives and area of study. For instance, study by Neldner *etal*. (2017) gave a general information on species threatened without listing specific species being threatened, a gap

knowledge filed in the present study by listing species threatened. Similarly, Reside et al. (2012) in Australia did not document on effect of vegetation clearance on terrestrial flora and fauna species but focused on changes in distributions of Australian tropical savanna birds under climate change. In addition, Travis et al. (2013) studied the inability of species to adapt and move due to vegetation disturbance but did not document on effect of vegetation clearance on terrestrial species rather focused on Dispersal and species' responses to climate change. The above studies were conducted in Australia while the present study was however conducted in an African rural set up characterized by high poverty level and rapid growth of human population.

Also, the study established the current status of vegetation clearance in the study area. The results were as shown in Table 11.

Table 11: Current status of vegetation clearance						
Questions	Scales(Frequencies/ percentages) St			Statistics		
	Increasing	Decreasing	Mean	Std. dev		
From the information in the table 8 above tick the current	293(80%)	80(20%)	1.20	0.398		
status of rate of vegetation clearance in this area.						

Source: Field data, 2022

The response on Table 11 showed that 80% of the respondents noted an increase in the rate of vegetation clearance. The responses were skewed toward "Yes" as indicated by a mean of 1.20 and standard deviation of 0.398 (Table 20). The respondents also stated their findings on the reasons for the increase in the rate of vegetation clearance within the study area which were found to be linked to the purpose for which vegetation were cleared. These results were as summarized on Table 12

No.	Reasons for the increase in vegetation clearance	Percentage of the respondents
1.	Crop farming	98%
2.	Human settlement	95%
3.	Urban settlement	60%
4.	Rural access roads	70%
5.	Brick making	82%
6.	Wood fuel	96%
7.	Hunting	78%
8.	Uncontrolled lumbering	70%
9.	Overstocking	83%

 Table 12: Reasons for the increase in vegetation clearance

Source: Field data, 2022

The responses on Table 12 showed the reasons for which vegetation clearance was on an increasing trend within the study area. About 98% of the respondents reported increase in vegetation clearance due to crop farming, 95% reported on human settlement, 60% indicated urban settlement, 82% recorded on brick making, 96% indicated on wood fuel, 78% recorded on hunting, 70% reported on uncontrolled lumbering while 83% recorded overstocking. Further an interview with key informant revealed that:

The scattered trees and shrubs are a clear indicator that vegetation clearance is on the increasing trend as opposed to the ancient days when the region was heavily forested. Most species such as otho, Alii, ober, oseno, ondati, yago, keyo that are used for wood fuel and medicinal purposes are very rare some have become extinct due to their uses. Currently human and urban settlement and rural access road networks are becoming more pronounced as more people are establishing their homes in areas which were once forested.

This implies that the purposes for vegetation clearance were the key reasons why there was an increase in vegetation clearance within Rachuonyo South. It is also evident that terrestrial flora and fauna species were greatly threatened by this activity however, the local residents were still heavily involved in clearing vegetation for their wellbeing. Therefore, if no attention is given to this worrying declining trend of vegetation then in the near future more species shall have become extinct. This declining trend of vegetation also prints a clear picture that majority of the respondents are not aware of the conservation measures that can be used to preserve and protect species from depletion therefore were heavily threatening the existence of terrestrial flora and fauna species.

The study established the frequency of vegetation clearance as shown in Table 13.

Question	Scales (frequency and percentages)					Statistics	
	Weekly	Monthly	Twice a year	Once a year	Not all	Mean	Std. dev
How frequently is vegetation clearance taking place in this region?	39(11%)	72(20%)	149 (41%)	92(25%)	12(3%)	3.06	1.079

Source: field data, 2022

Results on Table 13 indicated that 41% of the respondents recorded twice a year occurrence, 25% stated once a year, 20%, noted monthly, 11% stated weekly occurrence while 3% noted non-involvement. The distribution of findings on the response depicted a mean of 3.06 and a standard deviation of 1.079 which indicated a yearly vegetation clearance. This suggested that the cumulative annual rate of vegetation clearance in the study was at 72% (weekly 11%, monthly 20%, twice a year 41% Table 13). The above analysis indicated that cumulatively annual rate of vegetation clearance was at 72%. This implies that fauna species are greatly threatened due to loss of habitat which they heavily depend on for their interaction, predation, feeding, safe movement across the landscape and rest. This threat eventually causes some species to be extinct while others migrate to other safer regions thus reducing the species number within the study area. This extinction and reduction in species interferes with ecosystem function that affect livelihood.

These findings conformed to the research of studies conducted by (Cane et al. 2016; McDonald, Marcotullio & Giineralp, 2013; Bennie, 2016; KES, 2018; IUCN, 2019) which reported that the destruction of the natural habitat of terrestrial species for human settlement, transport infrastructure, the fragmentation of the original habitat for the establishment of roads and houses, alteration of habitat for agriculture, over harvesting Fleurydora felicis (shrub) for medicinal purposes, and wood fuel and high dependency of wood fuel as a source of energy especially among the rural population due to ever growing and urbanizing human population has critically threatened the survival of numerous terrestrial flora and fauna species. Even though the findings of these studies are in line with the outcome of the current study, these studies did not document on how terrestrial flora and fauna species were affected by vegetation clearance as an anthropogenic activity. For instance, (Cane et al. 2016), projected on complex responses within a desert bee guild to urban habitat fragmentation; Bennie et al, (2016) focused on ecological effects of artificial light at night on wild plants and did not document on effect of anthropogenic activities on terrestrial flora and fauna an area studied by the present study.

IV. CONCLUSION

The study found out that in Rachuonyo South sub county there were 80 terrestrial flora and 24 fauna species threatened and that terrestrial flora were more threatened than the terrestrial fauna. The threats to these species were found to be due to anthropogenic activities such as hunting, gathering and vegetation clearance which were highly connected to uses of species such as wood fuel, brick making, logging for lumbering, road creation and expansion and crop farming, over stocking.

Vegetation clearance was reported to be prevalent within the study area. Most respondents recorded that vegetation clearance was highly affecting terrestrial flora and fauna species. They also noted that the frequency of this activity was very high as suggested by the cumulative annual rate of vegetation clearance in the study was at 89%. It was also reported that the rate of vegetation clearance was connected to the species uses such as Crop farming, urban settlement, brick making, wood fuel, road expansion and creation, hunting, population growth, logging, overstocking, and uncontrolled lumbering.

REFERENCES

- [1]. Actman, J. (2019). Poaching animals, explained: Illegally taking animals from the wild threatens many species with extinction. Retrieved from https://www.nationalgeographic.com/animals/reference/poaching-animals/
- [2]. Ayot, T. O. (1978). South Nyanza Historical Texts Volume I. UoN Repository. Retrieved from http://erepository.uonbi.ac.ke > bitstream
- [3]. Babatunde, R.O. & Qaim, M. (2009). The Role of Off farm Income Diversification in Rural Nigeria: driving forces and household access. Conference paper presented on 23rd 2009, at the Centre for the Study of African Economies (CSAE), Economics Department, Oxford. http /conferences/2009- EDIA/papers/051-Babatunde.pdf.
- [4]. Babbie, E. (2010). The practice of Social Research. South African Edition. Cape Town. ABC Press.
- [5]. Babbie, E., & Mouton. (2010). The practice of Social Research. South African.
- [6]. Barnett, R. (2000). Food for Thought-The Utilization of Meat in Eastern and Southern Africa. TRAFFIC East/Southern Africa. Nairobi: Kenya.
- [7]. Bennett, E., Eves, H., Robinson, J. and Wilkie, D. (2002). Why is eating bushmeat a biodiversity crisis. Conservation Practice 3: 28–29.
- [8]. Bennie J., Davies W. T., Cruse, D., Gaston, J. K., (2016). Ecological effects of artificial light at night on wild plants. J. Ecol. 104, 611–620. doi:doi: 10.1111/1365-2745.12551
- [9]. Bollen, k. A. (1989). Structural Equations with Latent Variables.
- [10]. Brinkhoff T. (2020) Homabay (County, Kenya): Population Statistics, Charts, Maps & Charts https://www.citypopulation.de/en/kenya/admin/nyanza/43_homa_bay/

- [11]. Brown, D. (2003). Is the best the enemy of the good? Livelihoods perspectives on bushmeat harvesting and trade– some issues and challenges. Paper submitted to the CIFOR-Bonn Conference on Rural Livelihoods, Forests and Biodiversity.
- [12]. Camilo M. Derek P. T., Sina A., Alastair G. B S., Boris W. (2011). How many species are there on Earth and in the Ocean? PloS Biology((8)), 9 . doi:10.1371
- [13]. Cane H.J., Minckley L. R., KervinJ. L., Roulston H., & Williams, M.N.(2006) Complex Responses Within a Desert Bee Guild (Hymenoptera: Apiformes) to Urban Habitat Fragmentation. Ecological applications. 16 (2), 632–644.
- [14]. Carrington D. (2020) 40% of world's plant species at risk of extinction: race against time to save plants and fungi http://www.theguardian.com/environment/2020/sep/30/world-plant-species-risk-extinction-fungi-earth
- [15]. CBD. (2010). Linking Biodiversity Conservation and Poverty Alleviation: A State of Knowledge Review. Montreal: Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity. Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD)
- [16]. CBD. (2016). The second edition of the 'State of Biodiversity in Africa' assesses the progress of African countries on implementing the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2011-2020 and its Aichi Biodiversity Targets. Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD). Retrieved from http://sdg.iisd.org/news/unep-eu-and-cbd-assess-african-state-of-biodiversity/
- [17]. CBD. (2016). The second edition of the 'State of Biodiversity in Africa' assesses the progress of African countries on implementing the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2011-2020 and its Aichi Biodiversity Targets. Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD). Retrieved from http://sdg.iisd.org/news/unep-eu-and-cbd-assess-african-state-of-biodiversity/
- [18]. CBD. (2019). The extinction crisis Centre for Biological Diversity. Convention of Biological Diversity (CBD): Retrieved from https://www.biologicaldiversity.org/programs/biodiversity/elements_of_biodiversity/extinction_crisis/
- [19]. Connelly, L. (2013) Demographic datain research studies., 22(24): 269. MedSurg Nursing.
- [20]. Cooper D. R. & Schindler P.S. (2014). Business Research Methods . McGraw-Hill.
- [21]. Cossham, A. & Johanson, G. (2019). The benefits and limitations of using key informants in library and information studies research. In Proceedings of RAILS - Research Applications Information and Library Studies, 2018, Faculty of Information Technology, Monash University, 28-30 November 2018. Information Research, 24(3), paper rails1805. Retrieved from http://InformationR.net/ir/24-3/rails/rails1805.html (Archived by the Internet Archive at https://web.archive.org/web/20190818104043/http://informationr.net/ir/24-3/rails/rails1805.html)
- [22]. Cresswell ID, Murphy H. (2016). Biodiversity: Terrestrial plant and animal species: Threatened Species lists. In: Australia state of the environment 2016, . Canberra: Australian Government Department of the Environment and Energy.
- [23]. Darwall, W., Smith, K., & Allen, D. (2011). The Diversity of Life in African Freshwaters: Under Water, Under Threat. An analysis of the status and distribution of freshwater species throughout mainland Africa. Gland. UK: Switzerland Cambridge.
- [24]. DFID. (2002). Wildlife and poverty study. London: Wildlife Advisory Group, Rural Livelihoods Department, DFID. Department for International Development (DFID).
- [25]. Drost, A. E. (2011). Validity and reliability in social science research. Education Research and Perspectives,, 38(1), 105-124.
- [26]. Dulac, J. (2013). Global Land Transport Infrastructure Requirements Estimating Road and Railway Infrastructure Capacity and Costs to 2050. Paris: International Energy Agency.
- [27]. Effects of overpopulation (2013) Wildlife and habitat Destruction, Rep. negative Population Growth. Retrieved from http://fubini.swarthmore.edu/ENVS2/max/essay4.html
- [28]. Eldredge, N. (2000). Life in the Balance. Princeton JN: Princeton University Press.
- [29]. Ewing R. J. & Kostyack. (2016). Endangered by Sprawl: How Runaway Development Threatens America's Wildlife. Rep. National Wildlife Federation. Retrieved from http://fubini.swarthmore.edu/ENVS2/max/essay4.html
- [30]. FAO. (2015). Illegal hunting and the bush-meat trade in Savanna Africa: drivers :Impacts and solutions to address the problem. Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), 79. FAO Subregional Office for Southern Africa Agrovoc. Retrieved from https://www.traffic.org/site/assets/files/7312/illegal-hunting-and-bushmeat-savannah-africa.pdf
- [31]. FAO. (2018). Legislation on Wildlife, Hunting and Protected Areas in Some European Countries. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations(FAO). Retrieved from http://encyclopedia.uia
- [32]. FAO. (2019). The Food and Agriculture Organizations of the United Nations (FAO): The State of the World's Biodiversity for Food and Agriculture, J. Bélanger & D. Pilling (eds.). FAO Commission onGenetic Resources for Food and Agriculture Assessments. Rome.572. Retrieved from http://www.fao.org/3/CA3129EN/CA3129EN
- [33]. FAO. (2021). Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services. Retrieved from Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO):
- https://www.fao.org/agriculture/crops/thematic-sitemap/theme/biodiversity/en/
- [34]. Furman. (2003). African Biodiversity and Conservation ; Earth 105, Environment of Africa. Retrieved from http://www.geosc.psu.edu/people/faculty/personalpages/tfurman/index.html
- [35]. Furman, T. & Guertin, L. (2021). African Biodiversity And Conservation: lesson from 'OER Initiative . Retrieved from e- education Institute of Penn State's College of Earth and Mineral Sciences: https://courseware.eeducation.psu.edu/courses/earth105new/content/l
- [36]. Giincralp, B. (2013). Futures of global urban expansion: uncertainties and implications for biodiversity conservation. Environmental Researchers Letters, 8(1), 1-10.
- [37]. Gilbert, C. (2019). Tighten laws on bushmeat trade to save wildlife species. Retrieved from https://www.the-star.co.ke/opinion/starblogs/2019-07-11-tighten-laws-on-bushmeat-trade-to-save-wildlife-species/
- [38]. Gliem, J. & Gliem, R. (2003), Calculating, Interpreting, and Reporting Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient for Likert-Type Scales. 2003 Midwest Research to Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, and Community Education, Retrieved from https://scholarworks.iupui.edu/bitstream/handle/1805/344/Gliem%20%26%20Gliem.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y
- [39]. GOK. (2013). Homabay County Draft Strategic Plan. Government of Kenya (GOK). Homabay county Government.
- [40]. GOK. (2018). SECOND COUNTY INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2018- 2022 (DRAFT). Retrieved from HOMABAY COUNTY GOVERNMENT (CIPD): file:///D:/BOOKS/HomaBay%20County%20Integrated%20Development%20plan%202018-2022%20(4).pdf
- [41]. Hardman, S. (2011). How does urbanization affect biodiversity? Retrieved from
- https://ecologicablog.wordpress.com/2011/11/06/how-does-urbanization-affect-biodiversity-part-one/
- [42]. Heale, R., & Twycross, A. (2015). Validity and Reliability in Quantitative Studies. Evidence Based Nurs, 18(4), 66-67.
- [43]. Holdaway, R. N. and Jacomb, C. (2000). Rapid extinction of the moas (Aves: Dinornithiformes): model, test and implications. Science 28: 2250–2254.
- [44]. IPBES. (2019). Nature's Dangerous Decline 'Unprecedented'; Species Extinction Rates 'Accelerating. The International Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES).

- [45]. IPBES (2019a): Global assessment report on biodiversity and ecosystem services of the Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services. E. S. Brondizio, J. Settele, S. Díaz, and H. T. Ngo (editors). IPBES secretariat, Bonn, Germany.
- [46]. IUCN. (2014). International Union for Conservation of Nature. Table 8: Toatal endemic and threatened endemic species in each country(total by taxonomic group). International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN). Retrieved from http://www.endem.country(0014 PL State Table 9 aff.
- http://cmsdocs.s3.amazonaws.com/summarystats/2014_2_ summary_ Stats page_Documents/2014_RL Stats_Table8.pdf [47]. IUCN. (2009). Red List of threatened species. Switzerland.: International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN).
- [48]. IUCN. (2012). The red list of threatened species. International Union for Conservation of Nature. Retrieved from http://www.iucnredlist.org/
- [49]. IUCN. (2019). The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. Version 2019-2. International Union for Conservation of nature (IUCN). Retrieved from https://www.iucnredlist.org
- [50]. James, T. (2017). Environmental and Social Impact Assessment and environmental and social management plan for the rehabilitation and improvement of facilities at oyugis law courts in oyugis, homabay county.
- [51]. Jimoh, S., Ikyaagba E., Alarape A., Adeyemi A., & Waltert M. (2012). Local depletion of two larger duikers in the Oban hills region, Nigeria. Afr. J. Ecol, 50, 1-7. doi:doi:10.1111/j.1365-2028.2011.01285.x
- [52]. Justin. (2017). Endangered species how much hunting reduces animal populations; . Retrieved from https://time.com/4736526/hunting-reduces-animal-populations
- [53]. Kirby, D. (2012). Hunting Threatens Hundreds of Animals With Extinction; Retrieved from
- http://www.takepart.com/article/2016/10/19/reporthunting-threatens-hundreds-animals-extinction
- [54]. Klein, K., Beusen, A., & Janshen, P. (2010). Long Term Dynamic Modelling of Global Population and Built up area in a spartially explicit way. Environmental Assessment Agency, 3(1).
- [55]. KNBS. (2019). Volume II Distribution of Population by Administrative Units 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census: . Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS), Volume II. Retrieved from http://housingfinanceafrica.org/app/uploads/VOLUME-II-KPHC-2019.pdf
- [56]. Kothari, C. (2015). Research Methodology: Methods and techniques 2nd Revised Edition. New Delhi,: New Age International (P) Limited Publishers.
- [57]. Krosnick J. A & Stanley. (2009). Question and Questionnaire Design. Retrieved from
- https://web.stanford.edu/dept/communication/faculty/krosnick/docs/2009/2009_handbook_krosnick.pdf
- [58]. Lauren C., Jasmin W., Maisels F., Funk S., Doughty H., Julia E., Gomez J., Ingram J., Yuhan L., Lola N., Paemelaere E., Sartoretto E., Vliet N.,& Nasi R. (2021). Impacts of Taking, Trade and Consumption of Terrestrial Migratory Species for Wild Meat https://www.unep.org/resources/report/impacts-taking-trade-and-consumption-terrestrial-migratory-species-wild-meat.
- [59]. Lindsey, P., Romañach, S., Tambling, C., & Chartier K. (2011). Ecological and financial impacts of illegal bushmeat trade in Zimbabwe. Oryx, 45(1), 96–111. doi: 10.1017/S0030605310000153)
- [60]. Loreau M. & Andrew H. (2007). Large-Scale Biodiversity Experiments. In Encyclopedia of Biodiversity (Vols. 5- volume). New Jersey, USA: Princeton Uni versity, Princet on.
- [61]. Luck, G.W. & Smallbone L.T. (2010). Species diversity in urban landscapes: patterns, drivers and implications. In Urban Ecology, K. Gaston (Ed), pp 88-119. Cambridge University Press & British Ecological Society.
- [62]. Lusweti, A. (2011). Biodiversity Conservation in Kenya.
- [63]. Madhuri T. & Dheerji V. (2022) Formular to determine sample size of a population. Statistics guide
- https://www.wallstreetmojo.com/sample-size-formula/
- [64]. Maisels. (2013). Devastating decline of forest elephants in Central Africa. journal.pone.0059469. doi:10.1371
- [65]. Masumi S.G. (2020) Kenya National Biodiversity Threat Assessment: Direct Human Threats Impacting Kenya's Biodiversity. BIODEV 2030 file:///D:/ETHICS%20WORK/IPBES%20%20SPECIES%20EXTINCT.pdf
- [66]. Mazor T., Doropoulos C., Schwarzmueller F., Gladish D. W., Kumaran N., Merkel K., Di Marco M., & Gagic V. (2018). Global mismatch of policy and research on drivers of biodiversity loss. Nature Ecology and Evolution, 1–4. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-018- 0563-x
- [67]. McCombes, S. (2019). Descriptive research. Retrieved from https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/descriptive-research/
- [68]. McDonald, R.I, Marcotullio & Giineralp, B. (2013). Urbanization and trends in biodiversity and ecosystem services. In Urbanization, biodiversity, and ecosystem services: Challenges and opportunities.
- [69]. Milner-Gulland, E. J., Bennett, E. L. and the SCB (2002). Annual Meeting Wild Meat Group (2003). Wild meat –the bigger picture. Trends Ecology Evolution 18: 351–357.
- [70]. Minteer B. A. & Collins J. P. (2012). Species Conservation, Rapid Environmental Change, and Ecological Ethics. Nature Education Knowledge, 3(10), 14.
- [71]. Montoya, D. (2008). Habitat loss, dispersal, and the probability of extinction of tree species. Commun Integr Biol, 1(2), 146-147. doi:10.4161/cib.1.2.6998
- [72]. Mongabay. (2016). How many plant species are there in the world? Scientists now have an answer. Retrieved from https://news.mongabay.com/2016/05/many-plants-world-scientists-may-now-answer
- [73]. Morgan, G. (2001). Landscape health in Australia. A rapid assessment of the relative condition of Australia's bioregions and subregions. Canberra, ACT: Environment Australia and National Land and Water Resources Audit
- [74]. Muluneh, M. G. (2021). Impact of climate change on biodiversity and food security: a global perspective. Wollo University. doi: 10.1186/s40066-021-00318-5:
- [75]. Mungai, N. (2004). Thriving Bush Meat Trade Threatens to Deplete Kenya's Tourism Resource. Nation Centre. Nairobi: Kenya.
- [76]. Mugenda & Mugenda (2003). Research Methods. In Quantitative & Qualitative Approaches. Nairobi, Kenya.: Acts press.
- [77]. Mutavi, I. N., & Long'ora, A. E. (2010). Assessment of the Effect of Antropogenic Activities on Terrestrial. EAS Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies, 1(3).
- [78]. Nasi, R., Brown, D., Wilkie, D., Bennett, E., Tutin, C., Van Tol, G., and Christophersen, T. (2008). Conservation and use of wildlifebased resources: The bushmeat crisis. Secretariat of the convention on biological diversity, Montreal and Center for International Forestry Research (CIFOR), Bogor Technical Series 50
- [79]. Native. (2015). Native Vegetation and Biodiversity Management: clearing Native Vegetation to establish a house and/or associated structures under regulation 5(1)(a). Retrieved from https://www.environment.sa.gov.au
- [80]. NECC (2018). Illegal Logging and Charcoal burning. National Environment Complaints Committee (NECC). Retrieved from http://www.necc.go.ke/2018/11/12/illegal-logging-charcoal-burning/
- [81]. Neldner V.J., Laidlaw M. J, McDonald K. R, Mathieson M. T., Melzer R.I, Seaton R, McDonald Hobson W. F, & Limpus C. J. (2017). Scientific review of the impacts of land clearing on threatened species in Queensland. Queensland Government, Brisbane.

- [82]. Neldner, V.J., Niehus, R.E., Wilson, B.A., McDonald, W.J.F., Ford, A.J. & Accad, A. (2017). The Vegetation of Queensland. Descriptions of Broad Vegetation Groups. Version 3.0. Queensland Herbarium, Department of Science, Information Technology and Innovation, Brisbane. Retrieved from publications.qld.gov.au/dataset/redd/resource/78209e 74-c7f2-4589-90c1-c33188359086
 [83]. Marshall, M. N. (1996). The key informant technique. Family Practice, 13(1), 92–97.
- [84]. NEMA. (2009). National Environmental Research Agenda for 2008- 2030. . Nairobi: National Environment Management Authority
- [64]. NEMA, (2009). National Environmenta Research Agenda for 2008- 2030. National Environment Management Automy (NEMA) and Government of Kenya.
 [85]. NEMA, (2019). State of Environment Report 2019-2021: Environment and Natural Resource Governance. National Environment
- [85]. NEMA. (2019). State of Environment Report 2019-2021: Environment and Natural Resource Governance. National Environment Management Authority (NEMA). Retrieved from https://www.nema.go.ke/images/Docs/EIA_1840-1849/Kenya%20State%20of%20Environment%20Report%202019-2021%20final-min.pdf
- [86]. Nguon P. & Kulakowski. (2013). Natural Forest Disturbances and the Design of REDD+ Innitiatives, Environ- Sic. Policy, 33, 332-345. Retrieved from [Google Scholar] [CrossRef]
- [87]. Nielsen, M. R., Meilby, H., Smith-Hall, C., Pouliot, M., & Treue, T. (2018). The Importance of Wild Meat in the Global South. Ecological Economics, 146(December 2017), 696–705. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2017.12.018
- [88]. Oates, J. F., Abedi-Lartey, M., McGraw, W. S., Struhsaker, T. T. and Whitesides, G. H. (2000). Extinction of a West African colobus monkey. Conservation Biology 14: 1526–1532.
- [89]. Odetta, M. (2014). Human Impacts On Biodiversity. Retrieved from https://www.slideserve.com/odetta/3-3-human-impacts-onbiodiversity
- [90]. Ogutu. (2016). Extreme Wildlife Declines and Concurrent Increase in Livestock Numbers in Kenya: What Are the Causes? Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0163249
- [91]. Ogutu. J., Piepho. H., Said. H., Ojwang. G., Njino. L., Kifugo. C., & Wargute, W. (2016). Extreme Wildlife Declines and ConcurrentIncrease in Livestock Numbers in Kenya:What Are the Causes?
- [92]. Olson, S. L. and James, H. F. (1982). Fossil birds from the Hawaiian Islands: evidence for wholesale extinction by man before western contact. Science 217: 633–635.
- [93]. Oluwatayo, J. (2012). Validity and reliability issues in educational research. Journal of Educational and Social Research, 2, 391-400.
- [94]. Pejchar, L., & Mooney, H. A. (2009). Invasive species, ecosystem services and human well-being. Trends in Ecology and Evolution, 24, 497–504. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.
- [95]. Peres, C. A. (2000a). Effects of subsistence hunting on vertebrate community structure in Amazonian forests. Conservation Biology 14: 240-253.
- [96]. Peres, C. A. (2000b). Evaluating the impact and sustainability of subsistence hunting at multiple Amazonian forest sites. In Hunting for sustainability in tropical forests: 31–56.
- [97]. Plumer, B. (2019, 05 06). Humans Are Speeding Extinction and Altering the Natural World at an 'Unprecedented' Pace. Retrieved from The New York Times: https://www.nytimes.com/2019/05/06/climate/biodiversity-extinction-united-nations.html
- [98]. Ravitch, S. M., & Riggan, M. (2017). Reason & Rigor :How Conceptual Framework Guide research (2nd ed.). SAGE: Thousand Oaks, CA.
- [99]. Rinkesh. (2019). Causes effect and solution of Overhunting. Retrieved from https://www.conserve-energy-future.com/causes-effectssolutions-overhunting.php Conserve Energy Future trafficking-assessment/
- [100]. Redford, K. (1995). Human influence on biodiversity. In e. V.H. Hewood (Ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [101]. Reside, A.E., VanDerWal, J., and Kutt, A.S. (2012). Projected changes in distributions of Australian tropical savanna birds under climate change using three dispersal scenarios. Ecology and Evolution 2:705-718.
- [102]. Ripple W. J., Newsome, T. M., Wolf, C., Dirzo, R., Everatt, K. T., Galetti, M., Hayward, M. W., Kerley, G. I. H., Levi, T., Lindsey, P. A., Macdonald, D. W., Malhi, Y., Painter, L. E., Sandom, C. J., Terborgh, J., & Van Valkenburgh, B. (2015). Collapse of the world's largest herbivores. Science Advances, 1(4), e1400103. https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.1400103
- [103]. Ripple, W. J. (2016). Saving the world's terrestrial megafauna . BioScience pbiw092. doi:10.1093/biosci/biw092
- [104]. Robson, C. (2011). Real World Research: A Resource for Users of Social Research Methods in Applied Settings, (2nd Ed.). Sussex, A. John Wiley and Sons Ltd.
- [105]. Rockstrom J., Steffen, W., K Person A., Chappin S., & Lambin E. (2009). A safe operating space for humanity. Nature, 461 (7263), 472-475.
- [106]. Rossi, A. (2018). Uganda Wildlife Trafficking Assessment. TRAFFIC International. United Kingdom: Cambridge. Retrieved from https://www.traffic.org/publications/reports/uganda-wildlife-trafficking-assessment/
- [107]. Rovai, A., Baker, J. and Ponton, M. (2014). Social science research design and statistics: A
- [108]. practioner's guide to research methods and IBM SPSS analysis. (1st ed.) Chesapeake, VA. Watertree Press LLC.
- [109]. Sangeda Z., & Maleko D. (2018). Regeneration Effectiveness post Tree Harvesting in Natural Miombo Woodlands, Tanzania.
- [110]. Schulte-Herbrüggen B., Marcus J., Katherine H., Laura A. Charlotte W. & Guy C. (2013). Wildlife Depletion in a West African Farm-Forest Mosaic and the Implications for Hunting across the Landscape. Hum Ecol, 41:795–806 DOI 10.1007/s10745-013-9609-5
- [111]. Schulze K., Knights K., Coad L. (2018). An assessment of threats to terrestrial protected areas. Conserv. Lett. 2018;e12435. https://doi.org/10.1111/conl.12435
- [112]. Sean M. Watson J.; & Fuller R. (2016). Hunting, Fishing and farming remain the biggest threats to wildlife (conversation).
- [113]. Steadman, D. W. & Stokes, A. V. (2002). Changing exploitation of terrestrial vertebrates during the past 3000 years on Tobago, West Indies . Human Ecology, 30, 339–367.
- [114]. Stein, B.A., J.S. Adams and L.S. Kutner. (2000). The Status of Biodiversity in the United States. New York: Oxford University Press. Retrieved from https://www.nwf.org/Educational-Resources/Wildlife-Guide/Threats-to-Wildlife/Habitat-Loss
- [115]. Stephenson, P.J., Bakarr, M., Bowles-Newark, N., Kleinschroth, F., Mapendembe, A., Ntiamoa-Baidu, Y., Obura, D., Ratsifandrihamana, N., Simaika, J., Sitati, N., et al. (2021) Conservation science in Africa: Mainstreaming biodiversity information into decision-making. In Closing the Knowledge-Implementation Gap in Conservation Science; Wildlife Research Monograph Number, 4; Ferreira, C.C., Klütsch, C.F.C., Eds.; Springer: New York, NY, USA, 2021; pp. 287–321.
- [116]. Stephenson, P.J.; Londoño-Murcia, M.C.; Borges, P.A.V.; Claassens, L.; Frisch-Nwakanma, H.; Ling, N.; McMullan-Fisher, S.; Meeuwig, J.J.; Unter, K.M.M.; Walls, J.L.; et al.(2022). Measuring the Impact of Conservation: The Growing Importance of Monitoring Fauna, Flora and Funga. Diversity 2022, 14, 824. https://doi.org/10.3390/ d14100824
- [117]. Kenya Energy Situation (2018). Sustainable Energy in Humanitarian Settings. Webinar Series. Retrieved from https://energypedia.inf/wiki/kenya_Bioenergy_in_Kenya-3
- [118]. Taylor, G. (2012). A systematic review of the bushmeat trade in West and Central Africa. MSc thesis, UK: University of Oxford, Oxford, Retrieved from Google Scholar
- [119]. Taylor, M. F. J., Eber, S. C. & Toni, P. (2014). Changing land use to save Australian wildlife. Sydney, NSW: World Wildlife Fund Australia.

- [120]. Travis, J.M.J., Delgado, M., Bocedi, G., Baguette, M., Bartoń, K., Bonte, D., Boulangeat, I., Hodgson, J.A., Kubisch, A., Penteriani, V., Saastamoinen, M., Stevens, V.M. and Bullock, J.M. (2013). Dispersal and species' responses to climate change. Oikos 122: 1532-1540.
- [121]. Turku, U. (2020). New species described in 2020. Retrieved from scienceDaily:
- www.sciencedaily.com/release/2020/07/200701100030.htm
- [122]. Turtenwald, K. (2018). How does hunting affect the Environment? Retrieved from https://sciencing.com/hunting-affects-environment-11369486.html
- [123]. UN. (2015) World Urbanisation Prospects: The 2014 Revision. New York, NY: UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. United Nations (UN)
- [124]. UNEP. (2010). State of Biodiversity in Africa. United Nation Environment Program (UNEP). Retrieved from
- http://www.unep.org/delc/Portals/119/State%20of%20biodiversity%20in%20Africa
- [125]. UNEP. (2017). Why gender is important for biodiversity conservation. Retrieved from https://www.unep.org/news-andstories/story/why-gender-important-biodiversity-conservation
- [126]. UNEP. (2019a) 1 million species of plants and animals at risk of extinction, U.N. report warns. United Nation Environment Program (UNEP)
- [127]. UNEP. (2014). Report of the Governing Council of the United Nations Environment Programme" on its eleventh special session A/C.2/65/L.43. United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP).
- [128]. UNEP. (2019b). Nature's Dangerous Decline Unprecedented Species Extinction Rates Accelerating. United Nation Environment Programme, (UNEP). Retrieved from https://www.unenvironment.org
- [129]. UNEP/GRID-Arendal. (2002). Africa Environmental Outlook: Past, Present and Future Perspectives. Arendal, Norway: UNEP/GRID-Arendal. Retrieved from http://www.unep.org/aeo/index.htm.
- [130]. UNESCO, (2015). Education increases awareness and concern for the environment. United Nations Educational and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). Retrieved from https://world-education-blog.org/2015/12/08/education-increases-awareness-and-concernfor-the-environment/
- [131]. Vilà; M., Espinar, J. L., Hejda, M., Hulme, P. E., Jarošík, V., Maron, J. L., Pyšek, P. (2011). Ecological impacts of invasive alien plants A meta-analysis of their effects on species, communities and ecosystems. Ecology Letters, 14, 702–708. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2011.01628.x
- [132]. WB. (2013). World Databank: Health, Nutrition and Population statistics. World Bank (WB). Retrieved from https://databank.worldbank.org/data/viewsource=health-nutrition-and-population-statistics
- [133]. WB. (2019). Annual Meetings 2019: Development Committee: This is what is all about: Protecting Biodiversity in Africa. World Bank (WB).
- [134]. WWF. (2019). Extinction risk from climate change. Nature 427: 145–148. World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) Retrieved from http://www.nature.com/nature/index.html
- [135]. WWF, (2014). Living Planet Report 2014; Species and spaces, people and places, Glands. Switzerland. World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF)
- [136]. WWF. (2020). Losing their homes because of the growing needs of humans. worldwide fund for nature. Retrieved from https://wwf.panda.org/discover/our_focus/wildlife_practice/problems/habitat_loss_degradation/
- [137]. World Resources Institute. (2003). EarthTrends: The Environmental Information Portal. Retrieved from http://earthtrends.wri.org.[138]. Wuensch, L. K. (2012). A brief introduction to Reliability, Validity and Scaling. Retrieved from
- http://core.ecu.edu/psyc/wuenschk/MV/FA/reliability-Validity-Scaling docx