

**A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF CORPORATE SOCIAL PERFORMANCE IN THE  
NIGERIAN OIL AND GAS INDUSTRY AND SUSTAINABLE COMMUNITY  
DEVELOPMENT:**

AN ACTION RESEARCH ON COMMUNITY STAKEHOLDERS' PERCEPTION IN  
BAYELSA STATE, NIGERIA

Thesis submitted in accordance with the requirements of the University of Liverpool for the  
degree of Doctor of Business Administration (DBA)

By

**Von W. CLEMENT**

October 2018

## **Abstract**

For many years the general relationship between the International Oil Companies (IOCs) and the local Oil Producing Communities (OPCs) in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria has gone frosty and, indeed, culminated in incidents of operational disruptions and violent attacks as self-help strategies adopted by the OPCs to press demands. This is against the backdrop of increasingly huge Corporate Social Performance (CSP) investments declared by the IOCs. This indicates a gap between declared investments and the perception of the OPCs. Given the increasing level of complexity and uncertainty in the global business environment, it is imperative that the IOCs objectively evaluate such perception gap as part of adaptive strategies with a view to redefining their social responsibilities, reassessing the social issues involved as well as realigning their social response philosophies.

The study tackled three main research objectives, namely: (1) to examine the Corporate Social Performance policies and practices of the research IOC, and to evaluate their effectiveness; (2) to find out the OPCs' general perception of Corporate Social Performance of the IOCs operating in their communities; and (3) to explore the implications of Corporate Social Performance management and implementation strategies of the IOCs on the achievement of sustainable community development in Bayelsa State.

The study is an Action Research which was implemented with a mixture of methods for data generation and analyses. Research questionnaires were administered for quantitative data and interviews conducted for qualitative data. The research questions, research questionnaire, and interview questions were all based on the theoretical evaluation models chosen for the study. The quantitative analyses were done using Likert's Scale analyses. The AR was undertaken by a Learning Set (LS) of seven practicing managers scheduled with specific responsibilities relating to CSP in the research IOC.

The study found that the general perception of the OPCs is that the CSP policies and practices of the research IOC have not been as effective as expected compared to the huge investments declared. The study also found that the OPCs' perception regarding the social contributions of the IOCs operating on their land is generally negative, as they claim that such contributions have not ushered in the desired sustainable development. The study generated actionable knowledge aimed at achieving sustainable community development and, in this regard, a number of critical success factors were identified.

**Declaration**

No portion of this work has been submitted in support of an application for a degree or qualification to this or any other university or institute of learning.

**Signed:** .....

**Von CLEMENT**

## **Table of Contents**

Abstract -----	I
Declaration-----	II
List of Tables -----	IX
List of Figures -----	X
List of Abbreviations -----	XI
Dedication -----	XIII

## **CHAPTER ONE**

<b>1.0 INTRODUCTION</b> -----	1
1.1 The Problem of Inquiry and Research Gap -----	2
1.2 The Research Questions -----	3
1.3 Research Objectives -----	4
1.4 Evaluation of CSP: Need for Conceptual Framework -----	4
1.5 Research Approach -----	5
1.6 Thesis Structure -----	6

## **CHAPTER TWO**

<b>2.0 REVIEW OF LITERATURE</b> -----	7
2.1 Introduction -----	7
2.2 Definition of Corporate Social Responsibility -----	7
2.2.1 Introduction -----	7
2.2.2 Objectives and Business Case of CSR-----	9
2.2.3 Characteristics of CSR-----	9
2.3 Justification for Adopting Carroll (1979; 1991) Models for the Study -----	10
2.4 Carroll’s CSP Models-----	13

2.4.1 Economic Responsibility--	-----15
2.4.2 Legal Responsibility-----	15
2.4.3 Ethical Responsibility--	-----17
- Models of Management Morality -----	18
2.4.4 Philanthropic Responsibility-----	19
2.4.5 Summary of Carroll’s (1979; 1991) Four CSR Responsibilities -----	19
2.4.6 The Social Issues Involved -----	21
2.4.7 Philosophy of Responsiveness -----	22
2.5 The Stakeholder Approach to CSP-----	24
2.5.1 Overview of the Stakeholder Theory-----	24
2.5.2 Communities as Stakeholders -----	26
2.5.3 Environmental Assessment -----	27
2.6 Carroll’s Models and Sustainable Community Development -----	31
2.7 Implications of CSP on Environmental Sustainability, Social Sustainability and Poverty Alleviation -----	33
2.8 Understanding and Managing Communities’ Expectations and Perception of CSP -----	34
2.9 Conclusion -----	36
 <b>CHAPTER THREE</b>	
<b>3.0 CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY -----</b>	<b>37</b>
3.1 Introduction -----	37
3.2 The Research IOC -----	38
3.3 Community Development Initiatives of the Research IOC from 2005 to 2015 -----	39

## CHAPTER FOUR

<b>4.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b> .....	41
4.1 Introduction .....	41
4.2 Research Methodology and Methods .....	41
4.3 Research Problem, Approach, and Strategy .....	42
4.4 How the Research Questions and Instruments Were Developed .....	43
4.5 The Methodology of Action Research .....	44
4.5.1 Introduction .....	44
4.5.2 The Co-generative Learning Model (CLM) .....	44
4.6 Research Philosophy: Epistemological and Ontological Issues .....	45
4.6.1 Positivism .....	46
4.6.2 Interpretivism .....	47
4.7 Research Paradigm Adopted and the Type of Knowledge Created .....	48
4.8 The Utility of AR .....	49
4.9 Definition and Justification for Mixed Methods Strategy .....	49
4.10 Issues of Rigour and Relevance in Management Science .....	52
4.11 Data Collection Sequence .....	53
4.12 Research Methods Design.....	53
4.12.1 Introduction .....	53
4.12.2 Quantitative Inquiry .....	54
4.12.3 Quantitative Research Population and Sampling .....	54
4.12.4 Selection of Individual Participants for Quantitative Data Generation .....	54
4.12.5 Process of Quantitative Data Generation .....	55
4.12.6 Qualitative Inquiry .....	55
4.12.7 Selection of Participants for Qualitative Data Collection .....	56

4.13 The Ethical Issues Involved in Research -----	56
4.14 Conclusion -----	57
<b>CHAPTER FIVE</b>	
<b>5.0 RESULTS OF THE QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH -----</b>	<b>58</b>
5.1 Introduction -----	58
5.2 Presentation and Analyses of Results-----	61
5.3 Conclusion-----	75
<b>CHAPTER SIX</b>	
<b>6.0 THE AR ANALYSES -----</b>	<b>76</b>
6.1 Introduction-----	76
6.2 The Action Cycles -----	76
6.2.1 The Constructing Phase -----	77
6.2.2 Planning/Acting/Observing/Evaluating/Reflecting -----	77
6.3 LS Deliberations/Reflections and Findings-----	78
6.3.1 Economic Responsibility-----	78
6.3.2 Legal Responsibility -----	81
6.3.3 Ethical Responsibility -----	84
6.3.4 Philanthropic or Discretionary Responsibility-----	87
6.3.5 The Social Issues-----	90
6.3.6 Response Strategy -----	94
6.4 The Reflection and Sensemaking Process -----	97
6.4.1 Introduction -----	97
6.4.2 Economic Responsibility-----	100

6.4.3 Legal Responsibility -----	100
6.4.4 Ethical Responsibility -----	101
6.4.5 Philanthropic or Discretionary Responsibility-----	101
6.4.6 The Social Issues -----	102
6.4.7 Response Strategy -----	103
6.5 Summary of AR Findings/Actionable Decisions -----	103
6.6 Action Implementation Report -----	106
6.7.0 Validity and Reliability of the AR-----	107
6.7.1 Iterative Process of the AR -----	107
6.7.2 My Role as an Insider Researcher -----	107
6.8 Conclusion -----	110
 <b>CHAPTER SEVEN</b>	
<b>7.0 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION-----</b>	<b>111</b>
7.1 Introduction -----	111
7.2 Discussion -----	111
7.2.1 Economic Responsibility -----	111
7.2.2 Legal Responsibility -----	113
7.2.3 Ethical Responsibility -----	113
7.2.4 Philanthropic or Discretionary Responsibility-----	114
7.2.5 The Social Issues -----	115
7.2.6 Response Strategy -----	117
7.3 Concluding Considerations -----	117
7.3.1 Ethics Permeate the Pyramid -----	119



7.3.2 Tensions and Trade-Offs -----	119
7.3.3 The Pyramid’s Integrated and Unified Whole -----	119
7.3.4 The Pyramid’s Sustainable Stakeholder Framework -----	120
7.3.5 The Pyramid’s Global Applicability and Use in Diverse Contexts -----	120
7.4 Recommendations -----	121
7.5 Research Implications for Theory and Practice -----	123
7.5.1 Summary of Actions to Effect Change -----	123
7.6 How the Research Objectives Were Met -----	124
7.7 Learning from the AR and Managerial Implication of the Study-----	124
7.7.1 Organizational Implications -----	125
7.7.2 LS Members -----	125
7.7.3 Personal Learning-----	126
7.8 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research-----	127
<b>REFERENCES -----</b>	<b>129</b>
<b>APPENDICES -----</b>	<b>152</b>

## List of Tables

Table 5.1: Demographic Distribution of Research Participants -----	58
Table 5.2: Frequency and Percentage Analysis on Economic Responsibility -----	61
Table 5.3: Likert-Scale Data Analysis on Economic Responsibility -----	62
Table 5.4: Frequency and Percentage Analysis on Legal Responsibility -----	63
Table 5.5: Likert-Scale Data Analysis on Legal Responsibility -----	64
Table 5.6: Frequency and Percentage Analysis on Ethical Responsibility -----	65
Table 5.7: Likert-Scale Data Analysis on Ethical Responsibility -----	66
Table 5.8: Frequency and Percentage Analysis on Philanthropic Responsibility -----	67
Table 5.9: Likert-Scale Data Analysis on Philanthropic Responsibility -----	68
Table 5.10: Frequency and Percentage Analysis on the Factors Influencing the IOCs' Involvement in Social Issues -----	70
Table 5.11: Likert-Scale Data Analysis on the Factors Influencing the IOCs' Involvement in Social Issues -----	71
Table 5.12: Frequency and Percentage Analysis on the Response Strategy of the IOCs -----	72
Table 5.13: Likert-Scale Data Analysis on the Response Strategy of the IOCs -----	73

## List of Figures

Figure 2.1: Kakabadse, eta al's Characterisation of CSR -----	10
Figure 2.2: Carroll's (1991) Pyramid of CSR -----	14
Figure 3.1: Map of the Niger Delta Showing Oil Facilities -----	38
Figure 3.3 Akipelai Cottage Hospital -----	40

## List of Abbreviations

AR	-----	Action Research
CSR	-----	Corporate Social Responsibility
CSP	-----	Corporate Social Performance
DPR	-----	Department of Petroleum Resources
EIA	-----	Environmental Impact Assessment
GMoU	-----	Global Memorandum of Understanding
GRP	-----	Green River Project
IOC	-----	International Oil Company
IUCN	-----	International Union for Conservation of Nature
JV	-----	Joint Venture
JOA	-----	Joint Operating Agreement
LS	-----	Learning Set
MoU	-----	Memorandum of Understanding
NDR	-----	Niger Delta Region
NAOC	-----	Nigerian Agip Oil Company
NAPIMS	-----	National Petroleum Investment Management Services
NCDMB	-----	Nigerian Oil & Gas Content Development Monitoring
NDDC	-----	Niger Delta Development Commission
NDDB	-----	Niger Delta Development Board
NGO	-----	Non-Governmental Organization
NNPC	-----	Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation
NOGICD	-----	Nigerian Oil & Gas Industry Content Development

OML	-----	Oil Mining Lease
OPC	-----	Oil Producing Community
OPL	-----	Oil Prospecting License
OPTS	-----	Oil Producers Trade Section
PCF	-----	Participant Consent Form
PIB	-----	Petroleum Industry Bill
PIS	-----	Participant Information Sheet
PIGB	-----	Petroleum Industry Governance Bill
SPDC	-----	Shell Petroleum Development Company
UNEP	-----	United Nations Environment Programme
WWF	-----	World Wide Fund for Nature
WCED	-----	World Commission on Environment and Development

## **Dedication**

With utmost gratitude to God Almighty, this thesis is dedicated to the men and women who are committed to making the global environment a better place for everyone.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

The Nigerian oil industry is dominated by the International Oil Companies (IOCs). Amidst dip in global oil price and other nonmarket-related challenges, the IOCs are inundated with a myriad of stakeholder expectations and will need to strategize appropriately to remain competitive. IOCs need to responsibly manage stakeholder interests and perceptions across boundaries, particularly the unique interests of local communities and the environment (Jamali, 2008). Although it is a fundamental capitalist dictum that organizational activities must generate business value for companies to be competitive in the global economy, it is crucial to consider the concerns and expectations of community stakeholders, in line with the dual role of the firm – being economically successful and socially responsible (Altman, 1998).

The IOCs have proclaimed increased investments in corporate social performance (CSP) in the Niger Delta Region (NDR) of Nigeria. For instance, Egbe & Paki (2011) stated that Shell boasted of spending \$300,000 – \$400,000 per year in the early 1990s to \$25 million in 1996, and \$69 Million in 2002 on CSP. In 2011 Shell claims to have spent N5.3 billion on community development in the region (Ijaiye, 2014). Recently, the Managing Director of Shell Group of Companies in Nigeria, Mr. Osagie Okunbor, stated that the Group spent \$195.5 million on social investment in Nigeria in 2015 (The Nation Newspaper of 20th June, 2016).

Nonetheless, the relationships between the IOCs and the oil producing communities (OPCs) seem to get frostier despite increased investments. Thus, the earlier held assumption that increased CSP investments yield positive community perception of the IOCs may no longer be valid, as there seems to be a gap between claims and actual performance (Iteh, 2007). Dandago & Arugu (2014) also buttressed this point by stating that irrespective of ‘huge’ CSP investments so far in the NDR, sustainable community development is still a mirage. This has triggered calls on the IOCs to do more, as current social initiatives are not making reasonable positive impact on sustainable community development (Egbe & Paki, 2011; Obi, 2015). Others have called for strict regulation of CSP to compel firms to do more in social investments (Ihugba, 2012; Ojo, 2012; Omotola, 2006; Moon, 2007; Ikejiaku, 2012; Emeseh, et al, 2010).

## **1.1 The Problem of Inquiry and Research Gap**

The frosty relationships between the OPCs and the IOCs have sometimes culminated in violent attacks against the interests of the latter as part of self-help strategies to press demands. Other self-help actions the OPCs also resort to include denial of access to operational areas, cases of alleged complicity of local communities and allied interests in the wanton vandalism of oil installations that result in colossal environmental hazards (Orubu, et al., 2004), and hostage-taking (Ganiyu & Okogbule, 2013).

The OPCs' claim of neglect seems to be corroborated by The United Nations Development Programme (UNEP, 2006) which observed that the abandonment of host communities becomes more glaring at the backdrop of IOCs' personnel residing in official quarters which meet international habitation standards. Paradoxically, these official residences are flanked by the poor host communities. This observation does not, however, derogate from the fact that the IOCs have invested in community development initiatives to varying degrees (Ganiyu & Okogbule, 2013). But Frynas (2005) stated that the effectiveness of CSP has been increasingly questioned, as there is a widening gap between what is claimed by the IOCs and real-world impact of their social actions. At present there are no prescribed standards or guidelines by which CSP can be evaluated, and so while the IOCs continue with the chest-thumping narrative of successful contribution to community development, the OPCs seem to perceive the situation differently. This means that there may be a 'rhetoric versus reality' gap.

Therefore, the poor relationships between the IOCs and the OPCs surfaces an apparent failure of CSP in satisfying the economic, environmental and social needs of the OPCs which are the cornerstones of sustainable community development. This situation has not only adversely affected the fortunes of the IOCs, but also left them with a battered reputation. Home offices of the IOCs have reacted by introducing drastic corrective measures to their subsidiaries. However, actions taken so far by the IOCs have not significantly yielded the desired result of bridging the apparent 'rhetoric versus reality' gap. And the rising economic and reputational risks associated with oil exploration in Nigeria now leave the IOCs with no choice than to seek innovative strategies that will enable them bridge the gap between community expectations and CSP, as well as incorporate sustainable community development goals into their mainstream corporate strategies.

Relying on Smith & Elliott's (2007) concept of second-order learning, the impact of the operations of the IOCs on their surrounding stakeholders should be reflected on the core values



of the organization, as well as elicit full readjustment of existing cultural precautionary norms to enact second-order learning or Argyris' (1977) double-loop learning. Furthermore, going by Monk & Howard's (1998) rich picture concept, communities are critical stakeholders in business and have long been so recognized (Dunham et al., 2006; Lawrence & Weber, 2011). Nevertheless, stakeholder communities have not been well managed over the years largely due to lack of normative standards to rely on. Little or no theoretical guidance is available regarding how organizations should relate to their host communities (Dunham, et al, 2006). CSP is an essential part of community relations, but there has not been any theoretical scheme of reference or standards guiding its implementation and evaluation. In my view, it is mainly because standard templates or metrics are not applied in the assessment of CSP that we have the perception gap between claims and actual performance. The non-utilisation of such a template or clear-cut information in the implementation and evaluation of CSP has, therefore, created a significant gap in the literature.

The foregoing indicates that previous research on CSP may have been inadequate in addressing the basis of the perceived gap between communities' expectations and actual CSP. Since communities' perception determines how they reciprocate the social gestures of the IOCs, it is important for organizations to theoretically calibrate this gap and strategically adapt to the increasing complexity in the business environment by understanding and managing such perception. This will enable the IOCs to redefine their social responsibilities, reassess the social issues involved as well as realign their social response philosophies for corporate sustainability and sustainable stakeholder community development. It is, therefore, the objective of this study to fill the existing gap in the literature by exploring communities' perception of CSP using Carroll's (1979; 1991) conceptual models as the theoretical foundation.

## **1.2 Research Questions**

Based on the problem of inquiry and the identified research gap, the following research questions were drawn from the conceptual models adopted for the study:

1. How do the OPCs perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs regarding the performance of their economic responsibility?
2. How do the OPCs perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs regarding the performance of their legal responsibility?

3. How do the OPCs perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs regarding the performance of their ethical responsibility?
4. How do the OPCs perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs regarding the performance of their philanthropic responsibility?
5. What is the perception of the OPCs regarding the main factors that influence the involvement of the IOCs in the social issues confronting their stakeholder communities?
6. How do the OPCs perceive the response attitude of the IOCs regarding the negative effects of their operations in the stakeholder communities?

### **1.3 Research Objectives**

The objectives of this research are as follows:

1. To critically examine the CSP policies and practices of the research IOC, and to evaluate their effectiveness.
2. To find out how the OPCs perceive the CSP of the IOCs operating in their communities.
3. To explore the implications of CSP management and implementation strategies of the IOCs on the achievement of sustainable community development in Bayelsa State.

### **1.4 Evaluation of Corporate Social Performance (CSP): Need for Conceptual Framework**

The stakeholder concept in management has taken a commonplace since the landmark contribution of Freeman (1984) where three key aspects of the concept were identified as descriptive/empirical, instrumental and normative. Donaldson & Preston (1995) found the three aspects as mutually supportive but considered normative as the critical aspect. These authors opined that the normative aspect enjoins that stakeholders should be treated on the basis of ethical and moral principles. Furthermore, Moore (1999) summed up the primacy of the normative view by arguing that the other two views on the stakeholder concept do not consider ethical imperatives.

Communities have generally been characterized based on three features – common geographical location, interaction and identity (Hillery, 1995; Lee & Newby, 1983). Dunham, et al. (2006) considered communities with common geographical location as communities of place, and this is the group this study is concerned with. Altman (1998a; 1998b) acknowledged the importance of this category of communities by stating that corporations have now accepted the significance of local communities by establishing dedicated corporate community relations or stakeholder management departments in the public affairs divisions to actively interact with their host communities to ensure peaceful coexistence and security of operations.

Drawing insight from the normative view of the stakeholder theory, I argue that communities should be treated based on clear ethical and moral principles. Although business organizations have accepted their host communities as stakeholders, the host communities seem to have largely been treated as means to ends. Even where ethical norms are considered in the relationship between business managers and communities, managers tend to apply standards set by themselves or their organizations. There ought to be established guidelines based on theoretical principles that are generally acceptable and applicable as the principles and practices of CSP. The aim of this study is to evaluate CSP based on the rubrics/metrics introduced by Carroll (1979; 1991).

### **1.5 Research Approach**

The study seeks to apply conceptual models in evaluating the OPCs' perception CSP in Bayelsa State. To achieve the objectives of the study, Carroll's (1979; 1991) categories of responsiveness (economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic/discretionary), social issues and corporate response strategies (reactive, defensive, accommodative and proactive) models were applied in the research. Questionnaires were administered and interviews were conducted on the basis of these models – using the criteria enunciated in the models as the metrics of evaluation.

The major IOCs operating in research State are Shell, Texaco, Total and Agip. The study is an Action Research (AR) which was implemented with a mixture of research methods of data generation and analyses – quantitative and qualitative. This decision was informed by the quest to satisfy the pragmatic philosophical orientation which yields equal esteem for both positivist and interpretivist perspectives in one research, with a view to meeting the twin requirements of rigour and relevance in management research. While the quantitative aspect of the study provided data that helped in the understanding of perceptions, the qualitative analyses provided

an insight into the influence of human experience, preconceived assumptions, and feelings through sensemaking. Quantitative data were generated through questionnaire from 50 communities for analyses, while interviews were conducted in 10 communities to generate qualitative data. The research questionnaire and the interview questions were both developed from the research questions of this study which were founded on the conceptual models adopted for the study.

The interview responses on each of the four categories of responsiveness, the social issues involved and the corporate response strategies adopted were fed into the AR Learning Set (LS) for critical review and reflection. The LS members reviewed the community interview results with reference to the rubrics/criteria of the particular responsibility or model and posted their initial responses. The LS, thereafter, engaged in deliberations on the various initial and follow-on posts in order to draw evidence-based conclusions and determine possible action plans. This process was iterated until a collective sensemaking was achieved on each research question and the shared views of the LS were finally considered as findings of the AR.

## **1.6 Thesis Structure**

This thesis is presented in seven chapters. While this introduction forms Chapter One, Chapter Two contains a comprehensive review of the existing literature which presents and synthesizes scholarly works on the topic of inquiry. Chapter Three dwells on the contextual background of the study with a presentation on the trend of sustainable development efforts in Bayelsa State and the community development contributions of the research organisation. Chapter Four deals with the methodology adopted in this research and it details how an AR was implemented as the methodology, using the strategy of a mixture of methods involving quantitative and qualitative data collection and analyses. Chapter Five presents an account of the results of the quantitative study, while Chapter Six deals with the LS activities, using the responses from the community interviews. The thesis is concluded in Chapter Seven which presents an integrative discussion based on the findings of the quantitative studies, the interview results and the LS activities, and comparative inferences made. Chapter Seven also highlights contributions and implications of the research to theory and practice, the limitations of the study, as well as suggests potential areas for future research.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **2.0 REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

The primary objective of this literature review is to deepen understanding of communities' perception of CSP and analyse the implications thereof on environmental sustainability, social sustainability, and poverty alleviation, using Carroll's (1979; 1991) models as theoretical frameworks. This literature review summarizes and evaluates existing literature on the definition, objectives, business case, and characteristics of CSR as a component of CSP. The review also highlights the justification for choosing Carroll's models as the conceptual framework for this study, as against other measurement frameworks. This is followed by syntheses on Carroll's CSP models and the stakeholder approach to CSP. The review also presents syntheses on the impact of Carroll's models on sustainable community development, and the implications of CSP on environmental sustainability, social sustainability, and poverty alleviation. Furthermore, the review explored the need for proper understanding and management of communities' expectations and perception. Generally, the review notes main themes, critical trends, and findings as well as advance arguments justifying how the application of Carroll's models work in the resolution of practical organizational problems. In conclusion, the review summarizes the major trends in the extant literature on the topic of inquiry, highlights the research gaps, and shows how the existing research has necessitated the current study.

#### **2.2 Definition of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)**

##### **2.2.1 Introduction**

CSR is a concept in organisational science that has been subjected to diverse conceptualizations and characterizations (Jamali, 2008; Clarkson, 1995). The concept has been defined in various ways which include, but not limited to: (i) a social obligation (Berle, 1932; Ibe, et al., 2015), (ii) social responsibility (Bowen, 1953), (iii) corporate philanthropy (Eells, 1956; Levitt, 1958), (iv) social responsiveness (Carroll, 1999), and (v) social performance (Wartick & Cochran, 1985; Wood, 1991). Carroll (1979) also highlighted some definitions, namely: (i) profit maximization, (ii) going beyond profit maximization, (iii) going beyond economic and legal responsibilities, (iv) voluntary activities, (v) economic, legal, voluntary activities, (vi) concentric circles, ever widening, (vii) concern for the broader social system,

(viii) responsibility in a number of social problem areas, and (ix) giving way to social responsiveness.

Despite the apparent ambivalence, there are some instructive definitions of CSR that are worth discussing. Menz (2010, p. 118) defined CSR as a “concept by which companies voluntarily integrate social and environmental issues in their business activities and in their interactions with various stakeholder groups”. The European Commission (2001A, p. 5) also defined CSR as “a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis”, while Jayachandran, et al. (2013) related CSR to actions to prevent, limit, mitigate or redress either the negative externalities of corporate operations or broader social problems.

In my view, some common salient elements abound in the various definitions. This view aligns with Dahlsrud (2008) who analysed diverse existing definitions of CSR and found that they are to a large extent congruent, key amongst such common elements being ‘value creation’. Ibe, et al (2015) also emphasized value creation and context specificity by defining CSR from the perspective of the Nigerian petroleum industry as a sustainable development action geared towards an improved association between business and society. The notion of value creation, in my view, parallels the ‘shared value’ and ‘ecocentric management’ concepts. Porter & Kramer (2011, p. 66) defined shared value as “policies and operating practices that enhance the competitiveness of a company while simultaneously advancing the economic and social conditions in the communities in which it operates”. Ecocentric management principles, on the other hand, are built on the objectives of achieving minimized negative environmental impacts of corporate operations (Ndu & Agbonifoh, 2014). This study assumes that it is important to assess corporate activities in the petroleum industry based on the principles of ecocentric management.

Perhaps, the simplest definition of CSR was provided by Carroll (1979) as encompassing the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary responsibilities society expects of business at any given period. This definition, in my view, does not only clarify the various components of social responsibility but also relates the concept to time, which means that what was expected of organizations yesterday may not be what would be expected today. This dynamic feature of CSR is very important in the developing countries, particularly in relation to global best practices and technological innovations that may be deployed in addressing social issues in the twenty-first century. Furthermore, shared value and eco-centric management principles are all

embedded in Carroll's definition. However, the Achilles heel of Carroll's definition seems to be the omission of the cultural element, as I support the argument that CSR is culture-specific.

### **2.2.2 Objectives of and the Business Case for CSR**

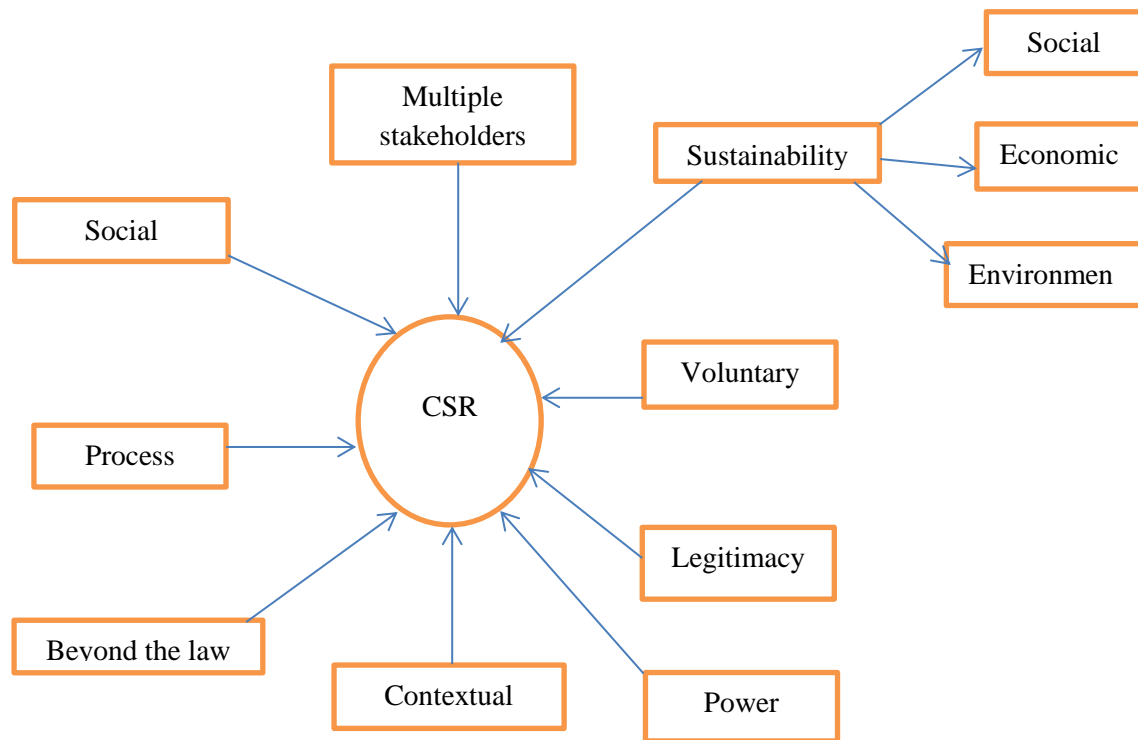
Like its meaning, there are divergent views about the objectives of CSR. For instance, while Frynas (2005) observed that CSR is a complete waste of time and that private firms may not deliver development through CSR, others contend that CSR is capable of delivering sustainable development (Imomotimi & Collins, 2014; Odukoya, 2006; Ismail, 2009; Ite, 2004). Ako, et al. (2009) consider contribution to sustainable economic development and collaboration with local community and society in general so as to enhance quality of life as key objectives of CSR. Just as Ejumudo, et al. (2012) remarked, irrespective of diverse contextualization of CSR, scholars have tended to view CSR as a concept that underscores 'giving back to the society'. Idemudia & Ite (2006) in their contribution discussed two forms of CSR objectives – affirmative duties (pursuit of moral and social good) and negative injunction duties (avoiding and correcting negative externalities caused by the firm). The foregoing arguments, in my view, all validate the fact that CSR can contribute to the development of communities (International Standards Organisation 26000; International Standards Organisation 14000; International Finance Corporation Performance Standard 5: Land Acquisition and Involuntary Resettlement).

As regards the business case for CSR, some studies claim that there is no evidence that CSR investments yield significant gains (Devinney, 2009; Johnson, 2010). Au contraire, many studies have refuted this claim (Pava, 2008; Porter & Kramer, 2002; Porter & Kramer, 2006; Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Wood, 2010; Lu, et al, 2013). Furthermore, Carroll & Shabana (2010) recognized four types of advantages organizations stand to gain by undertaking CSR activities, namely: (1) cost and risk reduction, (2) achieving competitive advantage, (3) building reputation and legitimacy, and (4) pursuing win-win situation through collaborative value creation.

### **2.2.3 Characteristics of CSR**

Kakabadse, et al. (2005) graphically captured the core elements of CSR in the following figure:

Figure 2.1: Kakabadse, et al.'s (2005) Framework of CSR



The key point to note in Kakabadse, et al.'s (2005) characterization of CSR, which I consider one of the broadest, is that CSR actions can foster sustainable development. From the above figure, it is clear that CSR can be understood from a number of dimensions – environmental (need for comprehensive environmental practices that will bring about cleaner community environment); economic (need for CSR to contribute to economic growth of stakeholder communities); social (leveraging the relationship between business and society for a better business-community coexistence); stakeholder relations (need for effective communicative engagement with stakeholder communities); voluntariness (firms are not coerced into decisions to contribute to the development of stakeholder communities); and beyond the law (CSR transcends mere compliance with existing laws and regulations).

### 2.3 Justification for Choosing Carroll (1979; 1991) Models for the Study

For decades a number of writers have attempted to introduce various models for the evaluation of CSP. Before Carroll (1979;1991), Davies (1973), Preston & Post (1975), Sethi (1975), and Ackerman & Bauer (1976) had all made contributions in that regard. But none of them came away with a measurable and pragmatic set of rubrics that can be applied in the evaluation of CSP. For instance, Sethi (1979) introduced a conceptual framework for an environmental



analysis of social issues and evaluation of business response patterns, but did not also define CSP. This lack of definition made the application of the models somewhat cumbersome.

Altman (1998b) also made contributions by introducing the elements of good corporate citizenship as: (1) moral and ethical obligation to society, (2) provision of economic benefits, (3) integration of common goals between corporations and their host communities, (4) responsibility to stakeholders, (5) need for proactive action, (6) need for partnerships across sector lines, (7) global interconnectedness, (8) preservation/protection of the natural environment, and (9) active leadership. However, without impugning the value of this contribution, I think the rubrics are not measurable and pragmatic enough in evaluating CSP.

Another burgeoning theory known as Triple Bottom Line (TBL) recently developed by Elkington (1994) has also been adopted widely by businesses, non-profit organisations, and governments to measure sustainability in the three dimensions of people, planet, and profits. Although this theory is acclaimed to be flexible as to enable organisations to use the concept to address issues specific to their needs and contexts, there are inherent challenges with its practicability which include, but not limited to, a lack of clear measurement metrics for each of the three dimensions of the theory (Slaper & Hall, 2011).

Carroll (1979) provided a concise definition of CSP as comprising four distinct social responsibilities, social issues responsibility, and response attitude. Carroll (1979, p.758) defined CSP as “the three-dimensional integration of corporate social responsibility, corporate social responsiveness and social issues”. The next seminal work that surfaced immediately after Carroll (1979), was Strand (1983) who agreed with Carroll’s three dimensions of responsibility. Wartick & Cochran (1985) in developing a model which focused on three key areas (economic responsibility, public responsibility, and social responsiveness) adopted Carroll’s (1979) definition of CSP without making any significant modifications.

Wood (1991) built on Carroll (1979) and suggested as follows: (1) that the three dimensions of CSP can be articulated at three different levels - the institutional, organizational, and individual; (2) specific response process – environmental assessment, stakeholder management, and issues management; (3) the incorporation of social impacts, policies, and programmes; and (4) creating links amongst the three dimensions of CSP. This, in my view, is one of the richest contributions on the concept of CSP after Carroll (1979;1991), but suffice it to say that Carroll’s models still stand out as the most valuable and simplistic. Whilst Wood’s (1991) work may have enriched the literature on CSP, my view is that the suggested

improvements are too ambiguous to be used as a template to effectively measure CSP. Wood (1991) developed principles of social responsibility drawn from various authors, but unlike Carroll's rubrics of CSP, Wood's principles are not clear and precise enough and, therefore, will be difficult to adopt as measurement metrics in designing research questionnaire for quantitative analyses.

The slight drawback in Carroll's (1979; 1991) models, in my view, is that the concept of social issues was only mentioned as one of the components of CSP but was not defined. No elaborate rubrics/metrics were discussed as was the case with the four dimensions of social responsibilities and response philosophy. The author instead referred to Holmes' (1976) who presented a list of normative criteria that can conveniently be adopted in the design and crafting of research questions. Wartick & Cochran (1985) followed Carroll (1979) while Woods (1991a; 1991b) attempted to reformulate Carroll's models. They both elaborated on social issues management, but well-defined rubrics of the concept were not formulated as Holmes (1976) did. For the purpose of a balanced analysis of CSP, therefore, Holmes' (1976) model on social issues was adopted in this study to fill in the gap identified in Carroll's model.

Notwithstanding the aforesaid drawback, Carroll's (1979) model has esteemed by many researchers. For instance, Clarkson (1995, p. 94) acknowledged that "Carroll's model was both comprehensive and integrative. The strength of its influence can best be judged by its longevity and that of its progeny". Clarkson (1995), however, suggested distinguishing social issues from stakeholder issues. But, in my view, the term can best be stated as 'social issues confronting stakeholders'. Swanson (1995) also exalted Carroll's models and aptly criticised Wood's (1991) reformulated model as lacking ample normative criteria for the measurement of CSP.

In conclusion, a combination of Carroll's (1979; 1991) CSR/CSP models and Holmes' (1976) model on social issues provides a robust checklist of normative criteria for the various dimensions and components of CSP that can form the basis of effective measurement of the concept, hence my decision to apply them as conceptual models for this study. The models were chosen due to their characteristics of specificity, measurability, achievability, and pragmatism which other models in the existing literature do not possess. The preciseness, utility and time-honoured uniqueness of the chosen models provide researchers with practical opportunities for adoption or adaptation, particularly, in a mixed methods research involving quantitative analyses.

## 2.4 Carroll's CSP Models

Carroll (1979, p.504) stated that CSP “requires that (1) a firm’s social responsibilities be assessed, (2) the social issues it must address be identified, and (3) a response philosophy be chosen”, while Wartick & Cochran (1985, p. 758) defined CSP as “the integration of the principles of social responsibility, the processes of social responsiveness, and the policies developed to address social issues”. Both definitions inform that CSP encompasses three distinct but interrelated features, namely:

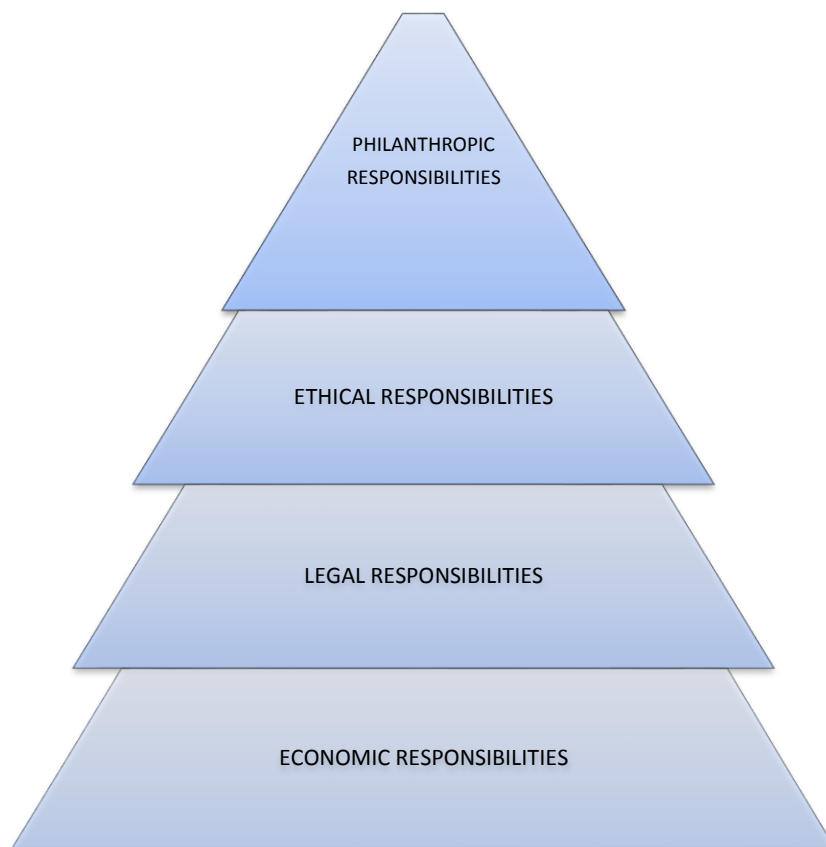
1. Social responsibilities (economic, legal levels or beyond),
2. Social issues giving rise to the social responsibility (social sustainability, environmental sustainability, and poverty alleviation), and
3. Mode of response (reaction or pro-action).

By Carroll’s (1979) model, the full collection of social responsibilities firms owe to society encompasses economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary classifications which are not mutually exclusive. These four classes of responsibilities do not depict a continuum with economic responsibilities on one end and discretionary responsibilities on the other, but they are rather simultaneous responsibilities with their specific scales reducing in ascending order (Carroll, 1979). This clearly suggests that more weight is attached to economic responsibilities than the rest which, in my view, tends to mislead managers into believing that the economic requirements of organizations are to be given pre-eminence as against social responsibilities and which idea denominates the capitalist view of the Friedman’s school of thought. Thankfully, Carroll conceded that “the model is not the ultimate conceptualization” (1979, p.503). Be that as it may, reconciling economic inclination with social inclination has been a problem in practical CSP management.

The ascending reduction of the significance of the specific responsibilities was again emphasized by Carroll’s (1991) pyramid of CSR, with economic responsibilities at the wider base and philanthropic responsibilities at the narrow apex of the pyramid. Even though Carroll (1991) admonishes that for CSR to be recognized as legitimate, the full range of business obligations to society must be addressed, the author still characterized economic responsibilities as most fundamental.

One of the key differences between the 1979 and 1991 models is that the latter model referred to discretionary components as philanthropic, which according to the author, incorporates 'corporate citizenship'. Furthermore, the confusion about the diverse conceptualizations of CSR has largely been laid to rest with Carroll's models which have clearly characterized CSR as one of the three components of CSP. As Carroll (1999, p.292) pointed out, "CSR concept has a bright future because, at its core, it addresses and captures the most important concerns of the public regarding business and society relationships".

Figure 2.2: Carroll's (1991) Pyramid of CSR



Carroll (1991)

Carroll's (1991) pyramid shows a hierarchical relationship amongst the four classes of responsibilities with the largest (economic) at the bottom and narrowing up to the apex with the responsibility of least magnitude (philanthropic). The variation in magnitude has been interpreted to mean that when there is fall in commodity price, social responsibilities diminish. This parallels the situation in the NDR where fall in oil price has been used as a reason for delivery of poor or unsustainable social outcomes. In my view, the hierarchical nature of the corporate responsibilities tends to promote the philosophy of making as much money as

possible and merely complying with the law of the society and this seems to be the attitude of most of the IOCs. From stakeholder perspective, tensions may arise from the economic orientation versus social orientation conundrum, but nothing short of a holistic focus on a paradigm that fosters a simultaneous fulfilment of all the organizational commitments to society - economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic - is desirable. Thus, the pyramid structure is capable of triggering negative perception of CSR, and I personally consider the Carroll (1979) tall rectangular paradigm more reliable and appropriate in practical terms. My position resonates with Wood's (2010) thinking that the 'ordering' and 'weighting' of social responsibilities implicit in Carroll's model could mean that if managers are engrossed on economic responsibilities, they would be tempted to justify the violation of ethical norms and even the law with a view to increasing profits or saving the organization from economic hurt.

#### **2.4.1 Economic Responsibilities**

Carroll (1979; 1991) and most commentators have described the first and foremost responsibility of the firm as economic. In my view, this is true to the extent that firms have the responsibility to produce goods and provide services for the benefit of society at a profit. Furthermore, businesses actually need to make profits for both corporate sustainability and sustainable community development. Therefore, privileging economic responsibility as against the other responsibilities foreshadows negative perception by society. Besides, Carroll (1979; 1991) seems to have displayed self-contradiction by ascribing pre-eminence to economic responsibility in the pyramid model while at the same time stating that the four responsibilities "must be met simultaneously" (1979, p. 500). As one may deduce from their annual reports, the IOCs in the NDR seem to be more focused on the base of the pyramid as they have, in conjunction with the Federal Government of Nigeria, demonstrated relentless pursuit for higher production and enhanced earnings. Sadly, commensurate commitment is not seen to be shown in the pursuit of the other responsibilities.

#### **2.4.2 Legal Responsibilities**

Businesses are expected to operate within stipulated domestic legal framework enacted by the Federal, State and Local Governments of the country (Akpomovie, 2011) and international codes of business ethics (Kolk, et al, 1999). Surely, illegal conducts are detrimental to sustainable community development (Ikejiaku, 2012). In Nigeria there are laws that govern the activities in the oil industry which include, but not limited to: the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999 (as amended); the Petroleum Act, 1969; the Oil in Navigable Waters

Act, 1990; the Oil Terminal Dues Act, 1990; the Associated Gas Re-Injection Act, 1990; the Federal Environmental Protection Agency Act, 1990; the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) Act, 1992; and the Nigerian Oil and Gas Industry Content Development (NOGICD) Act, 2010. In addition to the foregoing, various Regulations and Guidelines have also been enacted to set standards and monitor activities in the industry. These include, but not limited to: the Environmental Guidelines And Standards For The Petroleum Industry In Nigeria (EGASPIN) – issued by the Department of Petroleum Resources (DPR), 1991 (revised edition in 2002); the Petroleum (Drilling and Production) Regulations, 1969; the Mineral Oils (Safety) Regulations, 1963; the Petroleum Regulations, 1967; the Oil in Navigable Waters Regulations, 1968; the Petroleum Refining Regulations, 1974; the Oil Spill and Oily Waste Management Regulation, 2011; and the Oil Spill Recovery, Clean-Up Remediation And Damage Assessment Regulations, 2011.

Despite several legislation, regulations, and guidelines governing activities in the industry, the IOCs have been accused of environmental practices that are below international standards (Ite, 2004). In this regard, Idemudia & Ite (2006) clarified two major problems in the NDR, namely: (1) ineffective legislation on negative injunction duties and (2) need for legislation on affirmative duties. On the other hand, Jamali (2008, p.214) argued that “regulations are reactive in nature, leaving little opportunity for firms to be proactive” in their response to the relevant social issues. While I concede that some of the legislation may be ineffective, effective implementation of extant legislation, regulations, and guidelines without compromise will go a long way in ensuring global standard practices. I do not accept Jamali’s (2008) argument that regulations are reactive in nature, as regulations are normally made to modify planned individual or corporate actions. Being mindful of safety and environmental regulations in industry practice can be likened to obeying traffic laws while driving a car on the road.

I agree with Ikejiaku (2012) who noted that in African countries legal requirements are not given priority as in the western world, as adequate legal frameworks are not enacted and that even where they seem to be available they are at best weak and easily manipulated to favour the IOCs. Ikejiaku (2012) also aptly re-echoed the opinion that the IOCs choose to operate in developing countries because of the lack of stringent legal regime and the prevalent lack of knowledge about the extent of negative externalities on the environment arising from oil exploration.

In my view, the apparent attachment of more emphasis on economic responsibility by Carroll's pyramid seems to be perceived as validating manoeuvring to make profits by avoiding legal accountability. Besides, regulations may force organizations to respond to situations, but it may be difficult to guarantee that the regulations are being applied properly. Therefore, while I agree with Ikejiaku (2012) that the essential legal regime is that which will enhance CSR and, by extension, enhance environmental human rights and other imperatives of sustainable development, even the best set of rules and regulations without effective implementation will be inadequate in addressing the generally negative perception. Adequate processes and institutions must be emplaced to check manoeuvring and the IOCs may also be incentivized to be conscionable in their business transactions and in dealings with all stakeholders.

### **2.4.3 Ethical Responsibilities**

Although there are debates as to what constitutes ethical responsibilities, they would mean societal expectations of firms which are based on moral philosophy, principles of justice, rights, and utilitarianism, over and above economic and legal requirements. Even Friedman (1970) accepted ethical responsibility when he characterised the purpose of business as the need to make as much wealth as possible without compromising the rules of society, both those enshrined in the law and those that represent ethical norms. However, just as Carroll (2000) rightly observed, public perception of ethical standards in business is abysmally poor.

While Clarkson (1995) criticized Carroll's (1979) model by stating that ethical responsibilities were difficult to describe and evaluate, Mackey (2014, p.131) observed that firms are ethical "if they have the character, that is the moral virtues of thought and behaviour which meet the expectations of their host communities". Therefore, 'character' and 'morality' are key virtues of corporate citizenship. Carroll (1991; 2000) also emphasized this point and highlighted three kinds of management orientation towards stakeholders – immoral, amoral, and moral management. The author defined immoral management as consisting of decisions, actions, and behaviours that foreshadow deliberate disregard for what is right or ethical; amoral management as being neither immoral nor moral but does not take into account feelings and expectations of stakeholders; and moral management as that which employs ethical norms that conform to expected high moral philosophy.

## Models of Management Morality and Community Stakeholders (Carroll, 1991; 2000)

Type of Management	Orientation Toward Local Community Stakeholders
Immoral Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Exploits community to the fullest extent; pollutes the environment.</li> <li>• Plant or business closing takes fullest advantage of community.</li> <li>• Takes the fullest advantage of community resources without giving anything in return.</li> <li>• Violates zoning and other ordinances whenever it can for its own advantage.</li> </ul>
Amoral Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Does not take the community or its resources into account in management decision making.</li> <li>• Community factors are assumed to be irrelevant to business decisions.</li> <li>• Community, like employees, is a factor of production.</li> <li>• Legal considerations are followed, but nothing more.</li> <li>• Deals minimally with the community, its people, community activity, local government.</li> </ul>
Moral Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sees vital community as a goal to be actively pursued.</li> <li>• Seeks to be a leading citizen and to motivate others to do likewise.</li> <li>• Gets actively involved and helps institutions that need help-schools, recreational groups, and philanthropic groups.</li> <li>• Leadership position in environment, education, culture/arts, volunteerism, and general community affairs.</li> <li>• The firm engages in strategic philanthropy.</li> <li>• Management sees community goals and company goals as mutually interdependent.</li> </ul>

A solid ethical foundation is an answer to most of the sustainable development challenges in the NDR (Ikejiaku, 2012). The situation of the NDR regarding ethical business conduct was aptly captured by Tuodolo (2009) when he stated that what the IOCs do in their parent countries and in the West reflects a diametrically opposite behaviour in the NDR where environmental pollution, gas flaring, and other harmful acts have continued unabated. Indeed, the myriad of challenges in the NDR border on ethical responsibilities that have been deliberately left in the



background. In view of the foregoing, I advocate that regular reports on results of measurements of business ethics of the IOCs are required as a way of evaluating and managing the perception of the communities.

#### **2.4.4 Discretionary (Philanthropic) Responsibilities**

Carroll (1991) views discretionary (philanthropic) responsibilities as voluntary activities of organizations geared toward meeting expectations of society in order to attain good corporate citizenship. Saini, et al. (2003, p.170) situated corporate philanthropy on a strategy – altruism continuum, defining strategic philanthropy as “giving of corporate resources to address non-business community issues that also benefit the firm’s strategic position and, ultimately, its bottom line,” and altruistic philanthropy as “giving without concern for reward”. While these authors found that corporate philanthropy is increasingly becoming strategic, it is my view that it is not in all contexts that philanthropy should be strategic, as this can easily elicit suspicions regarding the motive for the gesture. This phenomenon seems to be common in the NDR, as some philanthropic gestures are suspected to be veiled by some ‘hidden agenda’ on the part of the firm. If there is no suspicion, genuine altruistic gestures may trigger positive perception from the beneficiaries who ultimately may support the activities of the donating firm, thereby yielding ‘shared value’. I argue that the whole idea of corporate citizenship is about being responsive to the needs of communities in which firms operate through ‘altruistic’ giving. As managers of some notable firms have rightly remarked in a study, “it’s about being a good corporate citizen... We are not doing this to sell more products - we’re doing this because it’s the right thing to do” (May, 2004, p.46).

#### **2.4.5 Summary of Carroll’s (1979; 1991) Four CSR Responsibilities**

Economic Responsibilities	Legal Responsibilities	Ethical Responsibilities	Philanthropic Responsibilities
It is important to maximize earnings per share	It is important to act in a manner consistent with expectations of government	It is important to perform in a manner consistent with societal ethical norms	It is important to perform in a manner consistent with the philanthropic and charitable expectations of society

It is important to be committed to being as profitable as possible	It is important to comply with federal, state, and local laws and regulations	It is important to recognize and respect societal ethical moral norms	It is important to assist the fine and performing arts
It is important to maintain a strong competitive position	It is important to be a law-abiding corporate citizen	It is important to prevent ethical norms from being compromised to achieve corporate goals	It is important that managers and employees participate in voluntary and charitable activities within their local communities
It is important to maintain a high level of operating efficiency	It is important for corporations to fulfill their legal obligations.	It is important that good corporate citizenship be defined as doing what is expected morally and ethically	It is important to provide assistance to private and public educational institutions
It is important that a successful firm be described as one that is always profitable	It is important to provide goods/services that meet minimum legal requirements	It is important to know that corporate integrity and ethical behavior go beyond simple compliance with laws and regulations	It is important to assist voluntarily those projects that enhance a community's quality of life

Clarkson (1995, p.94) criticized Carroll's (1979) three-dimensional model as being inappropriate for "the development of a methodology that could be used in the field to collect, organize, and evaluate corporate data". I disagree with this view, as I consider it possible to obtain data on all four dimensions of CSR for this study just as Wartick & Cochran (1985) also found Carroll's models as useful tools for business and society study as well as offering the first paradigm in the field. These authors successfully built on Carroll's models and empirically studied the four CSR categories as well as the four response processes (reactive, defensive,

accommodative, and proactive). However, it is important to note the value addition Clarkson made to Carroll's models by suggesting that in order to effectively analyse and evaluate CSP and the performance of organizations in stakeholder relations management, the analysis should be carried out at the relevant level – institutional, organizational, or individual. Adopting Clarkson's (1995) levels of analysis, Wood (1991) went beyond the basic classification of the different types of responsibilities to examine what motivates responsible behaviour and the outcome of performance namely: institutional (desire to gain and retain legitimacy), organizational (public responsibility), and individual (managerial discretion). Wood's contribution is very important because the catalogue of well-articulated policy, mission or vision statements organizations display at the institutional and organizational levels may be undermined by unethical behaviour at the individual level (managerial discretion). For instance, managers may foreground the need for increase in production as against safety and environmental protection needs in order to justify high performance records for individual growth.

#### **2.4.6 The Social Issues Involved**

Carroll (1979) identified social issues as the second component of CSP and discussed them as issues the economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic responsibilities of business are supposed to address. This author pointed out that there is no universality as to what these issues should be, as social issues are industry-specific and change over time, but that there are certain key factors that come into play when organizations try to make decisions on their social involvement in communities. Carroll referred to Holmes (1976) as having treated some of these factors, namely: (1) matching of a social need to corporate skill, need, or ability to help, (2) seriousness of social need, (3) interest of top executives, (4) public relations value of social action, (5) government pressure, (6) pressure of general public opinion, (7) pressure from special interest groups, (8) amount of corporate effort required, (9) measurability of results, or some form of cost/benefit analysis of social effort, and (10) profitability of the venture.

While Wartick & Cochran (1985) noted the importance of social issues and suggested social issues management as a dimension of CSP, Clarkson (1995) drew a distinction between social issues and stakeholder issues. While I agree with Carroll's characterization of social issues as being dynamic and industry-specific, Clarkson (1995) has aptly extended the argument by viewing social issues as being stakeholder-specific. I am in agreement with the position that social issues should first have reference to the direct host communities.

In the NDR the major social issues are social sustainability, environmental sustainability, and poverty alleviation. Within the context of this study, these social issues form the tripod of sustainable community development. This study will, therefore, evaluate community stakeholders' perception of actions of the IOCs and analyse the implications on sustainable community development. It is also important to mention that the NDR is a unique environment with peculiar other social challenges exacerbated by oil industry-specific issues such as the sense of deprivation, youth unemployment, and the awareness that oil is a finite resource (Idemudia & Iteh, 2006). Furthermore, due to operational exigencies, indigenes of the OPCs sometimes live as internally displaced persons in their own communities (Opukri & Ibaba, 2008) while social inequalities and imbalances (e.g. income, gender, inter-regional, sector-based) breed exasperation and fuel insecurity and restiveness in the NDR, thereby undermining sustainable development (Renouard & Lado, 2012; Jike, 2004).

#### **2.4.7 Philosophy of Responsiveness**

Carroll discussed responsiveness as the third component of CSP on a continuum of zero response ('do nothing') to a proactive response ('do much'), and characterised it as the 'action' component of CSP. Wartick & Cochran (1985) viewed responsiveness as the methodology for accomplishing social responsibility. On the 'do nothing' – 'do much' continuum, Carroll discussed four categories of action strategies, namely: reaction, defense, accommodation, and pro-action. The author defined 'reactive' strategy as that which enables company to escape the responsibility that comes with the negative externalities of their activities; 'defensive' strategy as that which ensures that extant legal and ethical frameworks protect company from taking responsibility for the negative externalities of their activities; 'accommodative' strategy as that which is not meant to escape responsibility, but rather emphasize the need to feel the pressure from stakeholders before implementing CSR initiatives, and 'proactive' strategy as implementation of CSR activities without being pressurized or without the occurrence negative externalities.

### Summary of Carroll's Social Responsiveness Categories

<b>Reactive</b>	<b>Defensive</b>	<b>Accommodative</b>	<b>Proactive</b>
Enables firms to escape the responsibility that comes with its negative externalities of their activities	Ensures that extant legal and ethical frameworks protect company from taking responsibility for the negative externalities of their activities	Strategy that is not meant to escape responsibility, but rather emphasizes the need to feel the pressure from stakeholders before implementing CSR initiatives	Implementation of CSR activities without being pressurized or without the occurrence negative externalities
Fight all the way	Do only what is required	Be progressive	Lead the industry
Withdrawal	Public relations approach	Legal approach Bargaining	Problem solving

Do Nothing



Do Much

Wood (1991) aptly suggested that the four response processes propounded by Carroll should address environmental assessment, stakeholder management, and issues management. On the other hand, Wheeler, et al (2002) decried the poor situation of stakeholder responsiveness in Nigeria and suggested that stakeholder-responsiveness methodologies must: (1) be incorporated into the strategic goals of the firm, (2) take into cognizance the complex and adaptive nature of business systems and should involve social networking and boundary management, and (3) involve individual managers leading to attain enviable positions of prestige by balancing ethical and economic requirements. Once again, relying on Wood's (1991) levels of analysis earlier discussed, Wheeler, et al's (2002) suggestions are very important, as the individual manager's role in organizations' response to social issues impacts significantly on the perception of the communities. When communities evaluate the strategies of responsiveness of the IOCs, they do so, based on their interactions with the individual managers and not the contents of the vision statements of the firms. Finally, I agree with Kobeissi & Damanpour (2009, p. 327) that "the degree of community responsibility that a corporation displays can be a source of competitive advantage and strategic gain".

## **2.5 The Stakeholder Approach to CSP**

### **2.5.1 Overview of the Stakeholder Theory (ST)**

Protagonists of the shareholder theory have argued that the business of business is profit (Friedman, 1970), which means that the only social responsibility of the firm is to maximize profit. Waldman & Siegel (2008) agreed with this notion and argued that it is not ethics and morals that drive CSP in managers, but that CSP is driven purely by market and profit motives.

However, Freeman (1984) introduced the modern ST and enunciated a conceptual model wherein organizations are enjoined to consider the interests of their stakeholders – groups, and persons who affect or are being affected by the organization’s objectives. Freeman’s stakeholder strategy matrix suggests that organizations are inclined to designing strategies to address stakeholders’ interests, depending on these stakeholders’ capabilities to threaten and cooperate with organizations. The Stakeholder approach to CSP assumes that there is a link between conformance to the stakeholder model of corporate governance and corporate performance.

Freeman’s (1984) work changed the conceptualization of the purpose and nature of the firm by encouraging the consideration of the interests of all stakeholders. Thus, profit maximization is not to be yielded pre-eminence to the detriment of other stakeholders. Okafor, et al (2008) also posited that organizations should not place exclusive pre-eminence on economic gains, but that the socio-ethical implications of their actions and inactions should be taken into consideration. These authors paralleled this need to the social responsiveness concept which is referred to as the ability of a corporation to relate its operations and policies to the social environment in ways that are mutually beneficial to the company and to society.

Thus, from the viewpoint of ST, firms have the moral responsibility to take stakeholders’ perception and concerns into account (Maon, et. al., 2008). ST enables both normative and instrumental aspects of CSP to be addressed and is considered as a crucial process in the implementation of CSP (Branco & Rodrigues, 2007). From ST perspective, the goal of a firm ought to be the prosperity of the firm and all its key stakeholders (Branco & Rodrigues, 2007). In this regard, local communities will like to see flourishing companies that provide benefits for them and minimize the negative externalities of their operations in collaboration with them (local communities) as key stakeholders to ensure value alignment. Community stakeholders

will like to see IOCs that consider them and the environment as key stakeholders by involving them as well as practice environmental management standards that meet global standards.

Ayuso, et al (2014) carried out an empirical study of four countries and found that CSP and community engagement are more common with organizations that practice stakeholder-centred models of corporate governance than with those that practice shareholder-centred models, while Wood (1991) views stakeholder management as one of the tenets of social responsiveness. Carroll (1979; 1991) and Longo, et al (2005) all see consideration of stakeholder interests as part of CSP, while Nwadiolor & Igwe (2013) and Nwagbara (2013) saw CSP, stakeholder engagement, and collaboration as imperatives to ethical business conduct.

The stakeholder view of the firm holds that a firm's corporate sustainability is a function of its capacity to build and sustain trust-based relationships with all the members of the stakeholder network (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Clarkson, 1995; Post, et al, 2002). Furthermore, Jamali (2008) posited that the stakeholder approach is more practical in the measurement of CSP, while Steurer, et al (2005) argued that stakeholder relations management is one veritable vehicle for achieving sustainable development, as interactions with stakeholders enable the firm to understand the economic, social and environmental needs of stakeholders.

The above arguments foreshadow the importance of stakeholder relations management which has been a serious issue in the NDR. Perception of CSP largely depends on the mode of delivery of social outcomes – a well-planned social action even at the philanthropic dimension may not work if the real social issues to address are not identified, and even where the real social issues have been identified the mode of response of the IOC may compromise the value of the initiative. For instance, where a community has critical need for a speedboat landing jetty and the IOC operating in the area is not responsive to this need proactively until coerced to do so, the community may not attach much value to that project, as the project may be deemed the product of a pyrrhic victory – one which perhaps cost the community human lives in the course of embarking on violent protests before achieving. Good stakeholder relations management would create the enabling platform for better understanding of such critical community needs and plans can mutually be employed to effectively and amicably address such identified needs.

## 2.5.2 Host Communities as Stakeholders

Carroll (1991) did not discuss CSP in a vacuum. In putting ‘names and faces’ to the elements of society contemplated in the model, the author designed the stakeholder/responsibility matrix wherein local communities are recognized as primary stakeholders (Owolabi & Olu-Owolabi, 2009). Clarkson (1995) also observed that firms manage CSP in relation to stakeholder units rather than the general society. Wood (1991) viewed stakeholder management as one of the tenets of social responsiveness, while Jamali (2008) saw the stakeholder approach as more practical. In the NDR, CSP can only be evaluated in terms of how responsive the IOCs have been to the needs of their host communities in the areas of social sustainability, environmental sustainability, and poverty alleviation. Have the IOCs been reactive, defensive, accommodative, or proactive to these needs? In this connection, organizations have been enjoined to take into account how community relations activities complement overall business goals and strategy (Waddock & Boyle, 1995). This brings to fore the importance of community relations and partnering in terms of involvement, communication, and engagement in CSP planning and evaluation (Iteh, 2007; Idemudia, 2007).

Tracey, et al. (2005) views the involvement of communities as stakeholders in the planning and delivery of social outcomes arising from corporate operations as a basis for corporate citizenship and advocated the adoption of ‘community enterprise’ as the most effective form of recognizing communities as stakeholders as against the other forms of delivering social outcomes (charitable contributions approach, in-house project structure and collaborative form). Idemudia (2009) in his survey found that the corporate – community foundation model of involvement is preferable to the in-house community investment model adopted by most IOCs. A majority of the community participants in Idemudia’s (2009) study stated that the IOCs are indeed contributing to community development but that, if the impact of CSP is to be maximized, the IOCs need to integrate the perspectives of the communities into their CSP strategies. Idemudia (2008) also examined how community development partnership initiatives adopted by Shell, Exxon Mobil and Total contribute to poverty alleviation in host communities, and found that the bottom-up corporate partnership model seems to be more effective and efficient in delivering development to the communities.

Effective communication of CSP is also very important. However, this been viewed as a slippery issue in the NDR (Nwagbara & Brown, 2014). According to Lindgren & Swaen (2010, p. 2), “CSR communication may trigger stakeholders’ scepticism and cynicism”, depending



on the perception it creates, and this makes the consideration of communities' perception crucial. Still on the importance of involving the host communities as primary stakeholders, Idemudia (2007) carried out a community survey on the level of communication between an IOC and its host communities and found that communities are not satisfied with the level of communication.

Idemudia (2010, p.378) also found that “widespread feeling of exclusion from decision making” is also responsible for the negative perception of CSP. The author cited a community's Youth President who was interviewed in the study stating thus:

We do not have any say on how and when oil is explored from our land, and even the oil MNCs have neglected us and do not consult us for anything. Look at Exxon Mobil, here in our community; we do not have any relationship with them. That is why they have brought mobile police...If we have a relationship with Exxon Mobil there will be no need for mobile police.

The implication of the foregoing is that for as long as the OPCs are not involved in the identification and execution of the developmental initiatives, whatever the IOCs do in terms of CSP, the OPCs will not attach much value to them (Ganiyu & Okogbule, 2013).

### **2.5.3 Environmental Assessment**

Response to environmental issues has received international consensus (The Kyoto Protocol, 1997; World Bank Global Gas Flaring Reduction –GGFR - Public-Private Partnership, 2002; and Bali Climate Declaration by Scientists, 2007). Nigeria has also taken steps to safeguard the environment against degradation through various legal frameworks (Ayoola, 2011). Nevertheless, the IOCs in Nigeria have not only been accused of the devastating impact of their activities but also of double standard behaviour as they are likely to adhere to higher environmental standards in their home countries than in Nigeria. According to Maiangwa & Agbibo (2013, p. 77), “the ecosystem of the Niger Delta – hitherto viable, self-regulating and resilient – is now at the edge of the abyss due to the irresponsible explorative practices of the oil MNCs in the region...” Isola & Mesagan (2014) also found that oil exploration aggravates environmental degradation and adversely affect infant mortality rate.

As against claims by the IOCs that the environmental situation in the NDR is exaggerated (Wheeler, et al., 2002), restiveness and social instability in the OPCs have been attributed to environmental deterioration due to oil exploration (Idemudia, 2010; Dandago & Arugu, 2014;

Omotosho, 2013; Maiangwa & Agbiboa, 2013; Dokpesi & Abaye-Lameed, 2014). Consequently, as Jike (2004, p. 699) rightly observed, “the starting point for any meaningful solution to the Niger Delta crisis must be the environment”. This awareness has been on the increase amongst OPCs in the NDR (Orubu, et al., 2004). Recently, the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP, 2011) report titled ‘Environmental Assessment of Ogoniland’, indicted Shell for environmental wrongs and recommended serious rehabilitation of the environment. It is, therefore, important to assess community perception of CSP in terms of standards of corporate environmental management practices.

Building on previous works on environmental management strategies, Buysse & Verbeke (2003) crystallized environmental management strategies into three categories: (1) reactive, (2) pollution prevention, and (3) environmental leadership. As part of efforts geared toward environmental leadership, the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) Decree was promulgated in 1992 by the Nigerian government which prescribes penalties for non-compliance (Akpomovie, 2011; Nwafor, 2006). Akpomovie (2011, p. 205) defined EIA as a “technique for ensuring that the likely significant effects of new development on the environment are fully understood and taken into account before it is allowed to go ahead”. However, this law does not seem to have changed the general perception of people in the NDR about poor environmental management practices in the region.

Major environmental hazards due to oil and gas activities in the NDR are damage to house roofs, loss of fish and other aquatic resources, health problems, high cost of living, low crop yield, house vibration, and cracks, while the major sources of environmental degradation due to oil production are gas flaring and oil Spill (Idemudia, 2009). Ojo (2012) in a survey of community perception of CSP found that: (1) whenever oil spill occurs, rather than embarking on prompt clean-up, the IOCs often introduce development projects in the area, and (2) Government has failed to regulate the IOCs to adhere to acceptable environmental standards (Idemudia, 2010; Adegbite, et al., 2012). As observed by Ako, et al (2009), despite Shell’s acclaimed commitment to do business as responsible corporate citizens with enviable record of observance of domestic laws and respect for fundamental human rights, there is evidence to show that the company has not done much in improving the health and safety of the people, as it still neglects to embark on prompt clean-up of oil spills and effective community development programmes.

In an attempt to underscore the seriousness of environmental issues in the NDR, the House of Representatives of Nigeria set up an Ad Hoc Committee to investigate the operations of Nigerian Agip Oil Company (NAOC) and during a meeting of the Committee held on the 2<sup>nd</sup> of February, 2017, the Director of the Department of Petroleum Resources (DPR) revealed that a total of 2, 418 oil spill incidents occurred between 2010 and 2016 from the operations of NAOC. The Director also noted that most of the oil spills between 2012 and 2016 were attributable to sabotage due to agitation in the region. However, the company has equally made serious claims to improved environmental management performance as at December, 2016.



*A man collecting polluted water at an illegal oil refinery site near River Nun in Bayelsa State  
Photograph: Akintunde Akinleye/Reuters*

Apart from incidents of illegal oil bunkering, illegal refining and sabotage of oil facilities, there are also widespread incidents of oil spills arising from equipment failure and corrosion of old worn out pipelines (Human Rights Watch, 1999). For instance, Shell had admitted using

obsolete oil pipelines and promised to replace them in compliance with Nigerian environmental regulations by 1999 (Emeseh, 2009). It is also important to note that Nigeria has been identified as one of the most gas flaring countries with a dispersal of flare sites around local communities, with dire environmental implications (World Bank, 1995). While the IOCs pay penalties to the Federal Government for gas flaring, the local communities surrounded by several flare sites suffer the environmental implications. Sadly, the Nigerian Gas Flaring Act licenses gas flaring against the backdrop of an extant court judgment that proclaimed the practice illegal (Emeseh, et al, 2010).

Furthermore, Nweke (2014) found that despite huge budgetary claims the general perception in the NDR is that the IOCs have failed to significantly address the widespread environmental degradation (Nyemutu, 1999; Nyanayo, 2009; Odukoya, 2006; Onah & Nyewusira, 2005; Saro-wiwa, 1995; Oronto, et al., 2003). The abysmal environmental situation in the NDR was succinctly captured by the late environmental rights activist, Ken Saro-Wiwa (1995, p. 14) as follows:

We in Dere, a community in Ogoni today are facing a situation which can only be compared to that of a civil war... the ocean of crude oil had emerged, moving swiftly like a great flood, successfully swallowing up anything that comes its way; crops, animals, etc... There is no pipe borne water and yet the streams, the only source of drinking water is coated with oil. The air is filled with crude and smells only of crude oil. We are thus faced with a situation where we have no food to eat, no water to drink and no air to breathe.

The Dere situation is a microcosm of the general condition of the OPCs in the NDR and it is sad to note that even the IOCs seem to have been overwhelmed by the level of environmental degradation in the NDR, as the number of un-cleaned oil spills rises daily. The IOCs have consistently raised alarm on the spate of sabotage cases that aggravate the environmental condition in the region and, accordingly, deny responsibility for 'sabotage' or 'mystery' spills (Idemudia, 2007). While it is true that some of the cases of environmental disaster are self-afflicted, as they occur through oil theft and other criminal activities, I wish to argue that purposefully or mindfully leaving oil spill sites un-cleaned on account of the cause of the spill amounts to an unethical business conduct.

## **2.6 Carroll's (1979; 1991) Models and Sustainable Community Development**

There is no universal definition of 'community', but a composite view seems to be that 'community' embraces dimensions of geography, social interaction, and identity (Calvano, 2008). Some other common characteristics of the community include small-scale, boundedness, and strong-ties, etc. (Marquis & Battilana, 2009). For Marquis & Battilana (2009, p. 285), "community is about collective relationships between people focused on interpersonal and particularistic connections, and society is more universal, transparent, and anonymous." Thus, a community, as distinct from society, has its own geographical uniqueness, identity, expectations and interests (Storper, 2005). This study is focused on the community because as Marquis & Battilana (2009, p.283) rightly observed, with globalization "not only has the local remained important but in many ways, local particularities have become more visible and salient".

Jike (2004, p.697) re-echoed the definition of 'development' as the "multidimensional changes involving progress or improvements in structures, institutions, and general aspects of the life of a given people that entails the acceleration of economic growth, decline in poverty, and the reduction of inequality". Furthermore, sustainable development is "a form of development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (World Commission on Environment Development (WCED), 1987). The basic elements of these definitions are encapsulated in Shell's (2008) definition of 'sustainable community development' as the strategic planning and application of available resources (material, funds management, and manpower) to improve the capacity of the community to generate and sustain socio-economic progress, health, and quality of life.

Muthuri, et al. (2012) also observed that sustainable community development is about providing the enabling environment for communities to play their role in the application of resources in a manner that meets current needs without undermining future socioeconomic and cultural conditions. These authors delineated the dimensions of sustainable community development into three levels: Level 1 (community empowerment, improved socioeconomic/cultural conditions, capacity building/community self-help); Level 2 (material deprivation, low levels of education, voicelessness/powerlessness, vulnerability/exposure to risk); and Level 3 (economic capital, social capital, ecological capital and human capital). It is worthy to note that the above definitions of sustainable community development align with the philosophies behind the UNEP (1992) and the United Nations Global Compact (2009).

Although Aluko (2004) has observed that there is no universally accepted definition of sustainable development, my working theme in this study is that sustainability should be operationalized in CSP to target social, environmental, and economic sustainability, as that is the only way to achieve sustainable community development in the OPCs. I agree with Idemudia's (2011) view that in order to avoid definitional ambiguities, it is advisable to explore aspects of development rather than tackle sustainable development from its holistic perspective, hence my focus in this study is on the contribution of CSP to social sustainability, environmental sustainability, and poverty alleviation. Eweje (2007) noted that irrespective of how impressive CSP may be, it is not enough if the beneficiaries thereof perceive that the social actions will not produce sustainable development.

While some authors (Ite, 2007; Ibok & Mboho, 2011) believe that the IOCs have made significant contribution to community development in the NDR, Imomotimi & Collins' (2014), Ojo's (2012) and Ndu & Agbonifoh's (2014) surveys showed that CSP of the IOCs have made insignificant impact on the economic development of the NDR. In this regard, Akpan (2006) argued that CSP of the IOCs has not only failed but has also exacerbated internal communal crises. Similarly, Idemudia's (2007) survey of community perception of CSP indicated that the cost of oil exploration for host communities outweigh the benefits for the communities, and that community expectations of (1) concentration on poverty reduction in communities; (2) training of community members in capacity building programmes; (3) regular meetings with community members; (4) provision of basic infrastructures; and (5) donation of support fund for community activities and projects, have been largely unmet. With the reality on the ground, I agree with the argument that despite huge CSP investments, sustainable community development has not been achieved in the NDR. In my view, Ite's (2007) and Ibok & Mboho's (2011) studies are more like CSP reporting rather than objective appraisals. Perhaps, they can be better described as content analyses, as their studies did not incorporate the perspectives of the community people who are the ultimate beneficiaries of the so-called developmental efforts, for a balanced presentation.

From the foregoing, contrary to claims otherwise, a preponderance of studies shows that the IOCs have not made the desired impact in terms of sustainable development in the NDR. Slack (2012) attributes this to the fact that firms have failed to integrate CSP into their mainstream strategic business models, while Idemudia (2011) argued that CSP has not accomplished its full potential as a catalyst for development in Africa because that the intricate interactions that drive the processes connecting CSP and the desired development such as stakeholder relations

and stakeholder reciprocal responsibilities which may foster sustainable development have been ignored. I align myself with Idemudia's (2011) arguments but beyond that, the moral behaviour of individual managers in fostering trust-based relationships and driving effective interactive community engagements to foster developmental strategies should be pursued.

## **2.7 Implications of CSP on Environmental Sustainability, Social Sustainability, and Poverty Alleviation**

Sustainable environment is one of the pillars of CSP (Jamali, 2008; Kakabadse, et al., 2005; Babiak & Trendafilova, 2011) but, as Opukri & Ibaba (2008) rightly observed, oil-induced environmental challenges, particularly oil pollution and gas flaring, have weakened the productivity capacity of the OPCs with attendant loss of occupation and earnings which have led to migration (Akpomuvie, 2011; Akpomuvie, 2008; Edoho, 2008). Aluko (2004) also argued that it is not possible to assess development if the environment is substantially being damaged and the damage is not being accounted for. Thus, environmental degradation which is one of the critical social issues the IOCs must address in the NDR has been largely ignored, thereby compromising sustainable development.

In the NDR a number of social issues have been identified as the sense of deprivation, mass youth unemployment, the awareness that oil is a finite resource, forceful or voluntary migration due to environmental and other operational exigencies, inequalities, and imbalances in income, gender, inter-regional, sector-based. Other social issues may arise from the unplanned influx of people resulting in attendant socioeconomic pressures, commercial sex, and sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) which the IOCs may not have made significant efforts to tackle. One often ignored point is the people's feeling of 'ownership' and 'entitlement' to the mineral resources which are being exploited by perceived 'strangers'. This feeling is pervasive in the NDR and is capable of triggering hate and violence. The IOCs need to formulate community relations strategies to manage the foregoing and other issues to ensure social sustainability.

On the issue of poverty alleviation, Aluko (2004) argued that environmental degradation has precipitated poverty amongst Nigerians. Accordingly, Mangos (2010) advised that Poverty Alleviation Strategy (PAS) be made a subset of social responsibility plans to be integrated into corporate strategies, arguing that such a framework provides an approach for the evaluation of firms' involvement in poverty alleviation as well as whether poverty alleviation is considered a strategic priority (Iteh, 2005; Omotola, 2008; Amadi & Abdullah 2012; Okpara & Wynn, 2012). Idemudia (2009) examined various methods adopted by Shell, Exxon/Mobil and Total

to contribute to community development and poverty alleviation in their host communities in the NDR and argued that investments in CSP have largely been hinged on the business case logic, rather than the imperative of meeting community developmental needs. As Ikejiaku (2012, p. 29) stated, rather than contribute to sustainable community development in the NDR, some of the IOCs have resorted to act as “economic predators, gobbling up national resources, distorting national economic policies, exploiting and changing labour relations, committing environmental despoliation, violating sovereignties, and manipulating governments and the media”.

## **2.8 Understanding and Managing Communities’ Expectations and Perception of CSP**

The online Business Dictionary defines perception as “the process by which people translate sensory impressions into a coherent and unified view of the world around them...” Although the perception may be crafted on the basis of imperfect and unsubstantiated or undependable evidence, it forms the constructed reality that influences human behaviour. In an industry as volatile as the extractive industry in Nigeria, diligent assessment and understanding of communities’ perception of CSP is critical for both corporate sustainability and sustainable community development because the relationship between actual CSP and perceived CSP can have an impact (cordial or hostile) on the relationship between communities’ reactions and corporate goals. Therefore, an understanding of the perceived CSP from the worldview of stakeholders is essential (Idemudia, 2007).

However, while there has been a substantial amount of research on CSP, there is still significant lack of understanding in the domain of specific stakeholders’ perceptions in the mining industries of developing countries (Vivero, 2016). As Idemudia & Ite (2006) observed, there has been literally no organized endeavour by the IOCs to incorporate community perceptions into the design and execution of their CSP plans. Several notions of CSP have been expressed – ranging from CSP being ‘mere rhetoric’, ‘corporate marketing’ to ‘corporate colonialism’ (Bagire, et al., 2011). A study in Uganda showed that there is shared negative perception about mining in the areas of social and environmental responsibilities on the one hand and shared positive perception about economic responsibilities on the other (Vivero, 2016). In the NDR, different community stakeholders have varying expectations, but, from the extant literature, the overall perception of CSP is negative, as the IOCs tend to focus more on the base of Carroll’s pyramid - making as much profit as possible.



In the oil and gas industry in Nigeria, CSP can be seen as a form of social license to operate, as well as to gain and retain legitimacy (Idemudia, 2010; Ndu & Agbonifoh, 2014). Organizations incur social risk when the business environment becomes uncondusive. Organizational legitimacy is the process by which firms continually strive to achieve acceptability from stakeholders (Kaplan & Ruland, 1991). Thus, the existence of organizations is a function of the readiness of local communities to allow them to operate (O' Donovan, 1999; Calvano, 2008).

Commenting on the significance of understanding perception, Costa & Menichini (2013) stated that business gains from CSP depend on the perception of stakeholders in relation to the social behaviour of the concerned organization, while Ibe, et al. (2015) explored perception of CSP from two perspectives: the objective-fit and attribution theory perspectives (Bhattacharya, et al., 2009). The objective-fit perspective refers to how stakeholders perceive CSP based on the level of attainment of the objectives the CSP was implemented for. For instance, a potable water project in the NDR will fail the objective-fit test if the beneficiaries of the project continue to use the black water of the creeks. Such a project will trigger a negative response. Experience shows that many social projects in the NDR fall into this category and the result is a negative perception from the concerned communities.

Attribution theory holds that people make sense of their environment based on what they perceive as the cause of a phenomenon and what is the effect. Stakeholders perceive CSP based on what they attribute the motive behind it to be (Bhattacharya, et al., 2009). They question whether the initiative is actually intended to achieve sustainable development or a mere palliative measure aimed at guaranteeing temporary reprieve to enable the completion of a project (i.e. 'buying temporary peace') (Dandago & Arugu, 2014). Lee, et al (2009) found that it is only when organizations enact CSP for altruistic motives that such actions will elicit positive stakeholder attitude towards the organization; otherwise, the CSP will be characterized as self-serving. Stakeholders, therefore, attribute CSP to certain motives.

On stakeholder's perception of CSP, Nweke (2014) remarked as follows: (1) that the people of the NDR are unanimous in their perception that the IOCs have failed to make significant contributions in the socio-economic development of communities; (2) that the people of the NDR are unanimous in their perception that the IOCs have not adequately tackled issues of environmental degradation in the NDR; and (3) that the people of the NDR are unanimous in their perception that the modus operandi of the IOCs have impeded sustainable development

in the NDR. This supports my earlier submission that that the CSP actions of the IOCs appear to be focused at the base of Carroll's (1991) pyramid, as the real social issues have been largely ignored and appropriate response strategies have not been adopted to enable the entrenchment of sustainable development.

There is a consensus that the IOCs need to address communities' expectations and perceptions in order to define their corporate strategies and avoid unnecessary risks and conflicts (Calvano, 2008; Idemudia, 2009; Idemudia & Ite, 2006; Wood, 1991; Wood, 2010; Calabrese, et al, 2013; Pelosa, et al, 2012). As Idemudia (2007) rightly observed, ascertaining community perceptions and the multiple issues impacting and forming these perceptions provide a deepened knowledge of community exploits. Therefore, attempts to achieve sustained amicable company-community relations will fail if attempts are not first of all made to understand and change communities' perceptions. Communities' perception management should form an important part of stakeholder relations management and community stakeholders should be educated on the need for stakeholder reciprocal responsibilities, as placing responsibility on community stakeholders may have a positive impact on their perception.

## **2.9 Conclusion**

The literature review has identified the relationship between Carroll's models and local communities' perception of the economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities of the firms operating in their areas. The literature has also identified the peculiar social issues facing the NDR which the four categories of responsiveness should address and to what extent they have been addressed. From the review, the main social issues confronting the OPCs were identified to be social sustainability, environmental sustainability, and poverty alleviation. Thus, drawing from the extant literature, my take is that the IOCs enact social responsibility largely at the base of the pyramid, and the real social issues confronting the OPCs have not been adequately addressed. The review also revealed that overarching response strategies of the IOCs are reactive and defensive.

In summary, the review revealed a significant gap between stakeholder perception and actual CSP claims, and my proposal is for the IOCs to mind these gaps, and devise strategies to close them. As was rightly observed by Slack (2012), it is not impossible to close the gap between 'rhetoric' and 'reality'. From the foregoing, my overall thought is that the management of such gaps should be integrated into the strategic goals of the IOCs in order to ensure corporate sustainability and effective delivery of sustainable community development.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **3.0 CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This research is focused on Bayelsa State which was created on the 1st October, 1996 by the then military head of state, late General Sani Abacha. Before its creation, the State was originally part of the old Rivers State. Bayelsa State has eight Local Government Areas - Brass, Ekeremor, Kolokuma/Opokuma, Nembe, Ogbia, Sagbama, Southern Ijaw and Yenagoa - and a population of about 2,268,582 million people. It has a total land area of 21,110 km<sup>2</sup> (8,150 square miles). Indigenes of the State are all of the Ijaw tribe, but there are four main spoken local dialects – Nembe, Epie-Atissa, Izon and Ogbia.

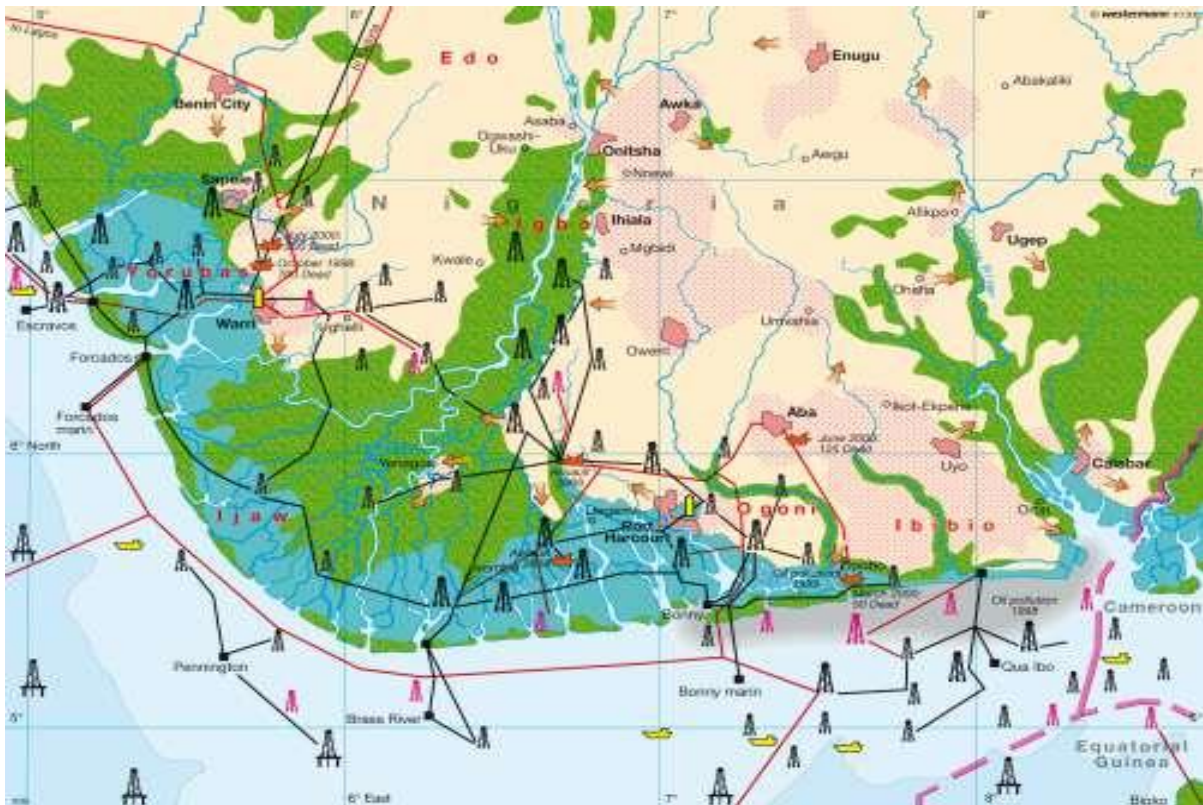
Like every other state in the Niger Delta region, Bayelsa State is endowed with both crude oil and natural gas. In fact, oil was first found in commercial quantity in Nigeria in Bayelsa State in 1956 at Otuabagi near Oloibiri in present-day Ogbia Local Government Area. Ever since billions of dollars have accrued to the country through oil and gas explorations in the State. Each of the eight local government areas of the State hosts at least one IOC. The exploration of oil and gas is a highly technical venture embarked upon the IOCs with the required technical cum financial capacity. Amongst the major IOCs operating in Bayelsa State are Shell Petroleum Development Company Ltd (SPDC), NAOC, Texaco and Total. These companies are in various joint ventures (JVs) or profit sharing partnerships with the Nigeria National Petroleum Company (NNPC) which is the official body representing the Federal Government. The NNPC has several subsidiaries, but the DPR and the National Petroleum Investment Management Services (NAPIMS) are the two most important in terms of regular dealings and interface with the IOCs. While the DPR is the main Regulator of all the activities in the oil and gas industry in Nigeria, NAPIMS operates as the Senior Partner in all the JVs.

The choice of focusing on Bayelsa State in this study is predicated on a number of factors including, but not limited to: (1) being the state in which territory oil was first discovered in commercial quantity in the country, (2) the overwhelming rate of underdevelopment and poverty, (3) the remote and complex nature of the environment, (4) the alarming rate of illegal oil bunkering/refining activities, (5) the State being the hub of agitations by activists/militants of the Ijaw ethnic extraction, (6) the extent of claims of successful social performance by the

various IOCs operating in the State, and (7) the level of visible environmental degradation in the State.

In summary, Bayelsa State seems to demonstrate the deepest negative perception about the social performance of the IOCs operating in the state after the Umuchem community massacre and the Ogoni crises (all involving SPDC) of the early 1990s. This negative perception culminated in the Kaiama and Odi massacres in 1998 and 2000, respectively, following the Kaiama Declaration made by the Ijaw Youths Council in 1996 (Human Rights Watch, 1999; 2003).

**Figure 3.1: Map of the Niger Delta Showing Oil Facilities**



### 3.2 The Research IOC

The research IOC is the Nigerian Agip Oil Company Limited (NAOC) which is a subsidiary of the ENI Group in Italy. ENI was founded and established by law in March 1953 by ENRICO MATTEI who was appointed the first Chairman from an existing company called AGIP (Azienda Generale Italiana Petroli) that was created in 1926 with the sole objective of exploring for oil fields, acquisition, and commercialization of oil and its derivatives (<http://www.eni.com>).

In Nigeria, ENI founded and established the NAOC on 7th May, 1962 after signing an earlier agreement in Rome with the ENI President and the Nigerian Minister of Mines and power (now Minister of Petroleum) on 21st March, 1962 and subsequently given an Oil Prospecting License (OPL). NAOC now operates under a JV production sharing agreement as follows: NNPC (60%), NAOC (20%) and OANDO Plc (20%).

### **3.3 Community Development Initiatives of NAOC from 2005 to 2015**

NAOC's contribution to sustainable community development can be summarized into the following categories: social projects/infrastructure, access to energy, health, local economic development/poverty alleviation, and education. From data made available to the Learning Set by scheduled managers working in various areas of the organisation related to CSP and who participated in the AR, numerous social projects have been executed while others are currently ongoing in the following areas:

#### **1. Social Projects/Infrastructure with Four Years Validity Memoranda of Understanding (MoUs)**

Until 2014 social projects had been formalized through MOUs signed with the communities with four years' validity period in the areas of access to energy, health, local economic development, education, and infrastructure. Between 2005 and 2015, a total of 296 projects were completed and commissioned at a total cost of \$159,051,602, while 58 are ongoing.

#### **2. Green River Project (GRP)**

The objective of the GRP is to improve the livelihoods of Niger Delta communities and pursue food security through the provision of agricultural inputs and extension service delivery, skills acquisition programmes, and microcredit facility.

#### **3. Access to Energy**

The programme objective here is contributing to overcome energy poverty and achieving universal access to energy. NAOC supplies electricity to Bayelsa State communities (which are often remote and isolated) through two main systems, namely: (1) energy supplied to communities by connecting them to NAOC JV main facilities where a total of 5.98MW have been supplied to 14 communities in Bayelsa State; and (2) energy supplied to Communities through dedicated off-grid system (generators) and about 11.468 MW have been supplied to 23 communities in the State.

#### 4. Scholarship and Bursary

Scholarships are addressed to secondary and tertiary education. The number of beneficiaries of post-primary bursary awards from 2005-2015 was 1,555, while the number of beneficiaries of the tertiary scholarships from 2005-2015 was 439.

#### 5. Quick Impact Projects (QIPs)

QIPs were planned to be implemented between 2015-2016 in the transition phase between the former four years MoUs and the GMoUs, expected to be introduced by 2017. Currently, a total of seven QIPs is ongoing at different stages of completion.

**Figure 3.3: Akipelai Cottage Hospital**

Akipelai Cottage Hospital



#### 6. Health

A total of twenty (20) health centre projects has been completed in the state including: (1) main health centre buildings, (2) doctors' and nurses' quarters, (3) supply of generator and mini water scheme, and (4) equipping of the health centres. See cottage hospital in figure 3.3 above.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

*“There is no methodological difference between the natural sciences and social sciences”  
(Johnson & Duberly, 2000, p. 26).*

### **4.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This study is an Action Research (AR) which is a research methodology that integrates intervention to bring about change on an organisational issue, using any data collection methods or techniques of choice. This chapter presents a detailed account of how AR was implemented in this study, using a mixture of research methods – a combination of both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analyses. The chapter commences with a discussion on the difference between methodology and methods in research, followed by a presentation on the research problem, approach, and strategy, and how the research questions/instruments in this study were developed. The chapter also presents a detailed review of AR as a research methodology. The philosophical concepts of epistemology and ontology are also discussed as key components of research methodology in this chapter. The chapter also reviews other important methodological issues such as paradigm adopted in a research and the type of knowledge created, the utility of AR, definition and justification for a mixed methods research, issues of rigour and relevance in management science, mixed methods research sequence, research methods design, and the ethical issues involved in research.

#### **4.2 Research Methodology and Methods**

Research methodology is the philosophy of doing research systematically and scientifically through a combination of methods or techniques. It entails the different procedures that are generally employed by researchers, bearing in mind the underlying logic in interrogating and solving the research problem, as well as explain why the particular methods and techniques are chosen as against others in the context of the study, to enable the researcher or others correctly evaluate the results of the study (Kothari, 2004). On the other hand, research methods or techniques are the various methods used in accomplishing the objectives of a research and may be categorized as follows: (1) the data collection methods, (2) the statistical tools/techniques applied to establish correlations between generated data and the unknowns; and (3) the methods of evaluating the accuracy of results obtained (Kothari, 2004).

Methodological choices in social science also involve philosophical orientation. Consequently, in my view, epistemological and ontological choices are methodological decisions that were considered in the methodology of this study. As Onwuegbuzie & Leech (2005, p. 377) aptly observed, “research methodologies are merely tools that are designed to aid our understanding of the world”. Thus, research methodology comprises the various methods/techniques and the philosophical perspectives adopted in studying and or resolving the research problem scientifically. This makes the scope of research methodology to be broader than that of research methods or techniques.

From the foregoing, research methodology can be said to resolve the following key issues: (1) why and how the research was carried out, (2) how the research questions were developed, (3) what data was gathered, (4) what particular method/methods were adopted and why, and (5) why specific techniques of data analysis were applied. These questions will be addressed presently in this chapter.

#### **4.3 Research Problem, Approach, and Strategy**

This study was undertaken to resolve a managerial problem confronting the IOCs regarding their CSP policies and practices. The CSP policies and practices of the IOCs in the NDR seem not to adequately cater to the economic, environmental and social needs of the OPCs, thereby creating a crevice in the company–community collaboration framework in a manner that negatively impacts on the fortunes of the IOCs. The research IOC has over the years declared significant involvement in the social issues confronting its stakeholder communities and has acclaimed such involvement as a core value of the organization. Yet the company suffers the challenges of operational disruptions, facility vandalism, and sometimes total breakdown in stakeholder-community relations. There seems, therefore, to be a perception gap – ‘rhetoric’ vs ‘reality’ – which needs to be interrogated. This problem needs to be resolved in order to enhance peaceful coexistence between the IOCs and the OPCs as well as guarantee the achievement of overall corporate objectives – being economically successful and socially responsible.

As would be discussed later, the choice of research paradigm affects the kind of knowledge created by the researcher. Thus, since the main objective of this study is to answer the research questions, resolve the problem of inquiry, create learning, and enact change, the most appropriate approach was identified as AR.



Given the important and complex nature of the research problem and the identified research gap necessitating this study which is the lack of normative standards for the evaluation of CSP, it was considered most beneficial to adopt a theoretical approach to the evaluation of CSP. Thus, the CSP policies and practices of the IOCs are to be evaluated in this study based on the perception of the OPCs, using Carroll (1979;1991) and Holmes (1976) models as the criteria for evaluation. The normative criteria established in these models provide adequate metrics for the measurement of the various components of CSP and are robust enough to generate both quantitative and qualitative data for the study. Thus, in order to optimise the problem-resolving potentials of the adopted theoretical models and to accomplish the purpose of the research, I decided to implement the AR methodology by using a mixture of methods for data collection and analyses. Accordingly, a mixed-methods research (MMR) involving quantitative and qualitative techniques was adopted as the strategy to implement the AR.

#### **4.4 How the Research Questions and Instruments Were Developed**

As earlier stated, the identified gap that this research is intended to fill is the lack of normative standards for the planning, implementation, and evaluation of CSP and, to achieve this objective, this research was conducted on the basis of existing theoretical models. The models adopted for the study enunciated six main characteristics of CSP, namely: (1) economic responsibility, (2) legal responsibility, (3) ethical responsibility, (4) philanthropic responsibility, (5) the social issues involved, and (6) the response strategy of the IOCs. These six characteristics were adapted as the research questions for the study. Each of the six characteristics has clear normative criteria or rubrics which were used as the metrics of measurement of CSP. Accordingly, the research instruments were all drawn from the criteria or rubrics enunciated in the adopted models.

For the quantitative study, the questionnaire presented questions directly drawn from the normative criteria established in the models adopted for the study. Similarly, the questions used as guide for the community interviews were also adapted from the normative criteria established in the models adopted for the study. *Thus, the adopted models formed the foundation for the research questions; and the research questions, in turn, formed the foundation for the research design, and they led directly to the data collation.* This technique was considered the most reliable and beneficial in data generation, as every piece of data collected for the study emanated from the research questions which were founded on the theoretical models chosen for the study.

## **4.5 Methodology of Action Research (AR)**

### **4.5.1 Introduction**

Coghlan & Brannick (2010) defined AR as a burgeoning investigation method conducted in the spirit of teamwork wherein knowledge of applied behavioural science is combined with extant organizational know-how and utilized to resolve real-life organizational challenges with the aim of creating organizational change, growing self-help skills of workers as well as deepening scientific knowledge. Drawing insight from the foregoing definition, AR was chosen as the methodology for this study based on the need to emphasize the values of participative, democratic knowledge construction, and the potential of resolving real-life managerial issues. The aim of AR is for social change and learning to take place both for the resolution of the identified problem and for the professional development of the researchers involved (Greenwood & Levin, 2007). Although AR is not just another paradigm of qualitative research, the methodology involves known forms of conventional research methods in social sciences plus the knowledge and experience of all the participants in a co-generative learning mode (Greenwood & Levin, 2007).

### **4.5.2 The Co-generative Learning Model (CLM)**

In the CLM there are two separate phases of AR and two major groups of participants. While the two phases are: (1) explaining the initial research question and (2) initiation/continuation of social change and meaning construction process, the two major groups of participants are (1) insiders or the identified problem owners and (2) outsiders or the professional researchers (Greenwood & Levin, 2007). The CLM entails (1) problem definition and refining, (2) communicative engagement in learning sets, (3) mutual reflection and learning, (4) solving problem by taking action, and (5) creating opportunities for learning and reflection in and on actions (Greenwood & Levin, 2007).

The aim of this study is to resolve a pertinent problem for the research IOC and, therefore, the participants of the AR were drawn from the IOC to reflect on the feedstock data from the community interviews. We started with seven managers directly involved in the problem of inquiry to form the AR Learning Set (LS). I had already reviewed the initial identified problem with the LS participants who all made their inputs and finally shared in it. However, midway into the LS activities three members voluntarily withdrew from the research and were later replaced.

Although the LS participants were all persons involved in the identified problem, there was a significant asymmetry in their skills, professional backgrounds, and knowledge which is an important element in the process of co-generating new knowledge. However, to ensure that this asymmetry did not hinder LS engagements by way of communicative dominion or monopoly, all the participants were given pseudonyms (e.g. participant ‘A’, ‘B’, ‘C’, etc.) and I adopted the use of anonymous electronic communication with minimal face-to-face engagements. This was to enable participants to avoid stage fright, unresolved interpersonal feelings and undue accordance of respect for the more experienced and knowledgeable managers in the LS. Thus, all LS posts were addressed to me, and I disseminated same to other members without disclosing the identity of the authors of the posts. And at this point the LS members were equipped for the reflection and action cycles.

In conclusion, the best approach to the comprehension of how the research instruments were developed, the data generated, and how to use the data to answer the research questions and resolve the research problem with a view to enacting changes is by AR. This methodology was considered most appropriate due to its characteristics of enabling wider reflective perspectives on the data collected (based on professional learning and experience) and co-generation of knowledge in a democratic and iterative mode with potentials of professional development, as against a methodology that would involve only the researcher or one which would only lead to limited chances of resolving the research problem.

#### **4.6 Research Philosophy - Epistemological and Ontological Issues**

Epistemology is the philosophy of the modes of studying the nature of the world, while ontology deals with the study of the nature of reality, and every management study is premised on the assumptions underlying these two concepts.

#### **Epistemology and Ontology in Social Science**

Ontology of Social Science	Representationalism	Relativism	Nominalism
<i>Truth</i>	Requires verification of predictions	As determined by consensus between different viewpoints	Depends on who establishes it

<i>Facts</i>	Are concrete, but cannot be accessed directly	Depend on the viewpoint of an observer	Are all human creations
Epistemology of Social Science	Positivism	Relativism	Social Constructionism

Source: Inspired by Easterby-Smith, et al. (2012)

Epistemology has two extreme and contrasting philosophical paradigms – positivism and social constructionism. As shown in the above table, relativism is a middle paradigm common to both epistemological and ontological perspectives. Thus, “in the red corner is constructionism; in the blue corner is positivism” (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2012, p. 57).

#### **4.6.1 Positivism**

The core notion of positivism is that the “social world exists externally and that its properties should be measured through objective methods, rather than being inferred subjectively through sensation, reflection or intuition” (Easterby-Smith, et al, 2012, p. 57). This notion is built on the worldview of the French philosopher, Auguste Comte (1853) that there is no factual knowledge other than that which is founded on seen truths. Thus, the philosophical assumptions of positivism are independence, value-freedom, causality, hypothesis and deduction, operationalization, reductionism, generalization and cross-sectional analysis.

Positivists hold that “the only legitimate source of knowledge are sense data” (Thorpe & Holt, 2008, p. 155), rooted in empiricism (Johnson & Duberley, 2000), devoid of ethical influences and strictly in line with the generation and evaluation of law-like predictions in knowledge and in accordance with standards and methods of the natural sciences (Thorpe & Holt, 2008). One notable modern positivist purist is Donaldson (2008) who admonished that future generation of scholars in organizational science can make headway by maintaining the scientific themes in social science.

I align myself with the notion of ‘keeping the science in social science’, hence my decision to undertake the quantitative component of this study. My research problem is one that requires being evaluated through an objective approach as against mere subjective reasoning or intuition. Scientific measurement of the six processes of responsiveness which characterize

CSP guaranteed rigor of the process, as well as validity, reliability, and generalizability of the results. The research sample of 571 participants provided rich data for meaningful analyses, given the nature of the research problem. For sure, it would be practically impossible to interview 571 community representatives to accomplish the requirements of the study within the timeframe of the DBA programme. Thus, a subjective approach alone would not have provided sufficient data to enable me to address the research problem, as well as accomplish the research objectives. In the quantitative study, community participants were seen as independent of the problem facing their communities and the environment, and their individual interests were also not considered relevant in the process of resolving the research problem. The processes of responsiveness were presented to the community participants in a way that their own responses can be measured through statistical analyses and deductions.

#### **4.6.2 Interpretivism**

In rejection of the hard-line positivism, authors like Berger & Luckman (1966), Watzlawick (1984) and Van Maanenn (1995) developed a new paradigm known as social constructionism which is one of the methods mentioned by Habermas (1970) as the interpretive method. Interpretivism holds that 'reality' is neither objective nor exterior, but socially constructed and accorded meaning by people, aiming at the manner people make sense of the world, particularly by communicating their experiences through the vehicle of language (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2012). Interpretivism instructs that it is important to understand what people, individually and collectively, think and feel and how they share their experiences via language as well as explain why people have varying experiences.

Based on my personal belief in social constructivism and given the nature of the research problem, it was considered relevant to involve community participants who would also see themselves as part of the problem. It was necessary to see how the community participants construed the reality of the problem confronting them. In this case, a sample of ten participants was selected for interviews with a view to generating qualitative data for the specific reason of addressing the problems peculiar to them. The process allowed the participants to understand that they are also being observed, as well as empowered them to make inputs to the research questions and the process. This deepened general understanding of the theoretical processes of responsiveness and their peculiar situation. A remarkable observation from the interactive processes was that the community participants were more at home and willing to make contributions to the research process as well as recommendations for a better working

relationship with the IOCs based on mutual respect and trust. The process provided the platform for the community participants to specifically address salient issues not adequately covered in the theoretical process of responsiveness but are the known pillars of sustainable development, namely: ways to tackle economic, environmental and social sustainability issues.

#### **4.7 Paradigm Adopted in a Research and the Nature of Knowledge Generated**

Burrell & Morgan (1979) discussed a matrix of four model traditions as the basis of knowledge creation. These authors argued that social theory, in general, and organizational theory, in particular, can be examined from four traditions, namely: the functionalist, interpretive, radical-humanist, and radical-structuralist. These paradigms are mutually exclusive and all represent diverse schools of thought, with varying methods and worldviews, but have similar basic assumptions relating to the theme of inquiry (Morgan, 1980). Morgan (1980) also observed that the paradigms are incommensurable, which implies that the nature of knowledge generated depends on the specific paradigm adopted in a research.

However, Pfeffer (1993b) condemned the deviations and multiplicity of traditions in organizational science and advocated for a pragmatic methodology so as to improve unanimity, stating that: “there are thousands of flowers blooming but nobody does any manicuring or tending” (p. 1). Van Maanen (1995, p. 133) also characterized the divergence as a “sour view of our field” and warned that management is a “matter too far important to be left to a small set of self-proclaimed experts with their mock science routines, images and metaphors” (p. 140). Van Maanen (1995) concluded by saying that the objective is to study from one another in order to deepen the knowledge of improving organizational management.

Thorpe & Holt (2008) in their contribution observed that the characteristics of knowledge between natural science and a science of practice are basically dissimilar and, therefore, applying scientific methods in social science management knowledge generation is appropriate. Nevertheless, it is essential to accommodate ethical concerns and consider techniques and procedures that acknowledge the social characteristics of management science. Chia & Holt (2008) emphasized relevance to practice as against privileging rigour and precision as the parameters in business knowledge creation.

On account of the foregoing discordant voices Hassard (1991) suggested a multiple paradigm research and, taking a cue from this, I decided to adopt the MMR strategy in the data collation and analyses in this study so as to leverage on the complementarity of the interpretive and

positivist characteristics. Greenwood & Levin (2007) stated that an appropriate methodology that can conveniently accommodate an MMR strategy is AR, and this validates my choice of research methodology in this study. It is my intention, therefore, that the type of knowledge this AR will create is one that will satisfy both positivist and interpretivist legacies.

#### **4.8 The Utility of AR Using MMR Strategy**

Addressing the question whether or not AR can be implemented in the mode of MMR, Marti (2015) stated that AR is not just another qualitative research, as it is founded not only on qualitative tradition but also on mixed methods. This author decried the neglect of the specific contribution of quantitative methods to AR and concluded that quantitative methods can be integrated into AR to enhance the quality of the AR process. Similarly, the appropriateness of AR as a methodology was summed up as follows: “An AR process must use qualitative, quantitative, and/or mixed-methods techniques wherever and whenever the conditions and subject an AR team deals with require” (Greenwood & Levin, 2007, p. 98). AR has been characterized as a mixed-method research approach which enhances research quality by both quantifying qualitative results and qualifying quantitative findings (Palladino, 2009).

The relevance of academic research has been an issue of concern in organizational science (Aram & Salipante, 2003). According to Tranfield & Starkey (1998; cited in Aram & Salipante, 2003, p.190), “management research is better served by transdisciplinary and problem-focused research where a diversity of actors from different disciplines collaborate in context-specific, problem-focused research”. The LS participants of this study were of diverse academic disciplines and this brought about diverse viewpoints, thereby enriching the dialogic process.

AR has the capacity of bridging the rigour-relevance gap because it sprouts from existing theories and focuses on a given context to create new knowledge that transcends ontological and epistemological contradictions. Furthermore, AR does not only provide new know-how but also seeks to provide same for the communities other than those directly involved in the process.

#### **4.9 Definition and Further Justification for MMR Strategy**

MMR is the strategy wherein the researcher generates data, evaluates same and makes conclusions from both quantitative and qualitative data in a single research (Cameron, 2011). It is a method or technique of inquiry that blends both qualitative and quantitative traditions at the various stages of a research process (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2008; Teddlie & Tashakkori,

2010; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). MMR entails the adoption of multiple philosophical and methodological assumptions necessary for a comprehensive worldview of phenomena of inquiry (Paterson & Pentland, 2008).

Jick (1979) considered three main objectives of MMR as: (1) bringing about confidence in research findings, (2) supporting to reveal the atypical viewpoints that are inappropriate for specific theory or model, and (3) improving the blend of themes. The author argued that blending the two approaches will fodder a clearer view of the phenomenon of inquiry than either approach can singularly yield (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Morse, 1991; Johnson & Duberly, 2000; Web, et al., 1966). There is no doubt that multiple methods of inquiry in one research process will enrich the validity and reliability of research results. This seems to be the reason why some commentators have considered MMR as a third research paradigm (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010b; Jick, 1979) which can actually resolve the paradigm conflicts (Thorpe & Holt, 2008; Donaldson, 2008; Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Morgan, 1980).

Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2004) enumerated some possible advantages of MMR as follows: (1) gathering and confirmation of results from the two approaches inquiring into the topic of research; (2) expatiation, improvement, exemplification and elucidation of findings from one research approach in comparison with those of a different approach; (3) applying the findings from one approach to enhance the exploration of another; and (4) expanding the scope of research through the application of diverse methods for diverse inquiries.

Tranfield & Starkey (1998) distinguished between knowledge producers and managerial professionals., and this resonates with Gibbons, et al's (1994) claim of a dissimilarity between mode 1 and mode 2 knowledge creation. Mode 1 knowledge production concerns research specific to disciplines undertaken in the universities, while mode 2 knowledge is produced within the context of applicability, transdisciplinarity, heterogeneity and organizational diversity (Gibbons, et al, 1994). Undertaking a mixed methods research safeguards the process of knowledge production in a manner that produces both modes 1 and 2. The knowledge created in this research regarding the OPCs' perception of CSP will be in both modes. It can be used for academic purposes in the universities as well as the resolution of the managerial problems confronting the research IOC.

The justification for MMR was further discussed by Wisniewska (2011) as follows:



1. MMR enables a researcher to inquire into problems from multiple viewpoints and then congregating the findings, a process referred to as triangulation. In this study, multiple data collation methods were adopted in the process of inquiry – quantitative and qualitative – and the results were integrated and synthesized at the end.
2. The fundamental principle of MMR stipulates that the weakness of one method may be surmounted by the strength of another. In this study, the major weakness of the quantitative aspect was lack of adequate narratives which was provided by the qualitative study; while the major weakness of the qualitative study was lack of objectivity which was provided by the quantitative study.
3. Complementarity of data – while qualitative data may be utilized to provide a narrative to figures, quantitative data provides more precise information on narratives or pictures. The quantitative analyses and qualitative activities actually complement one another in this study. In cases where verified statistical analyses in the quantitative study were contrary to findings from the qualitative study, the quantitative data would present more precise information, while the qualitative analyses would provide an explanation on the contrary results of the quantitative study.
4. MMR provides the opportunity to investigate complicated and multifaceted problems by viewing it from diverse viewpoints, enables asking more questions, and proffering more answers. In this study, while the participants in the quantitative component were restricted to the structured questionnaire, the interviewees had the opportunity to make further inputs based on their individual experiences and knowledge. Likewise, the participants of the AR had ample opportunity to ask incisive questions that generated alternative solutions. For instance, the AR participants raised the issue of government's involvement in the delivery of social actions in the OPCs as not being very helpful as against a process whereby the IOCs would collaborate with NGOs trusted by the communities.
5. The findings of one method may motivate the planning of measures or phases in the research using another method or may prompt questions that require another method of research. In this study, I recall that one of the AR participants suggested that due to the important nature of the problem of inquiry, it would be more beneficial to escalate the study beyond the LS to engage civil society groups via focus group discussions in order to widen the frontiers of the deliberations. I considered this suggestion as the introduction

of another phase altogether in the research. However, brilliant as the idea was, time constraints did not permit a fourth phase of the study. But it may well be a possible direction for future research.

6. MMR provides the opportunity for a wider audience. The quantitative aspect of this study provided a wide sample of 571 participants which a purely qualitative study would not have provided.
7. Research data gathered through diverse methods strengthen the research claims. This study presents the richness of multiple phases – quantitative data generation, qualitative data generation through interviews, and AR analyses. The claims in this study have, therefore, gone through diverse phases of assessment and can stand the test of academic scrutiny and practical usefulness.
8. MMR provides a presentation of wider perspectives which enables it to provide answers to both exploratory and confirmatory questions. This study employed exploratory research questions that were analysed using statistical tools and, at the same time, were enriched by wider perspectives in the interviews and the AR. Whilst a quantitative study alone would have provided an objective perspective to the problem of inquiry, it would have lost the benefit of the richness of the interview responses and the AR findings which actually provided the soft data with which to adequately interpret and make sense of the hard data.
9. Certain research questions can best be answered by applying MMR in one study. It is my view that the search for a resolution to the problem confronting the research IOC which is the topic of inquiry in this study can only be validly and reliably done if the process is carried out via an AR, using MMR as a strategy.

#### **4.10 Issues of Rigour and Relevance in Management Science**

In organizational science, the dichotomy between academically sound theoretical inquiry and pragmatically founded knowledge is characterized as ‘rigour versus relevance’. While rigour is achieved through methodologically rigorous scientific investigation, knowledge is relevant only when it is practically usable and applicable (Lee & Greenly, 2010). Quantitative rigor is founded on validity and reliability, where validity establishes if the measure tallies with reality while reliability establishes if the measure will produce the same findings. Qualitative rigor, on the other hand, is founded on authenticity, plausibility, criticality, credibility, transferability,

dependability, confirmability (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Easterby-Smith, et al., 2008), practical usefulness, and theoretical contribution (Locke, 2001). Assessment of rigor in MMR is founded on the characteristics of the two research approaches and my aim of using MMR in this AR is to meet both qualitative rigor and quantitative rigor criteria. Accordingly, this study has taken into cognizance the distinction between rigour and relevance as well as the relationship between them (Shrivastava, 1987; Kieser & Leiner, 2009).

#### **4.11 Data Collection Sequence**

MMR can be undertaken either sequentially or concurrently (Shah & Corley, 2006). Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2004) graphically elucidated the order in which the two approaches can be blended (equal combination or dominant status) and time order decision (either taking the two paradigms concurrently or sequentially). This study adopted the time order decision, commencing with the qualitative paradigm because the phenomenon of inquiry is a bit abstract and complex (Cronholm & Hjalmarsson, 2011). The interviews were conducted before the questionnaires were administered. Thus, the quantitative component followed the qualitative data gathering and AR analyses sequentially.

#### **4.12 Research Methods Design**

##### **4.12.1 Introduction**

Research design involves the processes that lead to the gathering of data for the study. In particular, the research design clarifies the link between the research questions and the data generated for the study. As stated earlier in this chapter, the theoretical models adopted for this study enunciated six characteristics of CSP. Each of the six characteristics has normative criteria or rubrics for the evaluation of CSP which were explained and copies made available to all the research participants for their comprehension and to enable them make their informed assessment of the performance of the IOCs. Thus, in this study, the six characteristics of CSP and their attendant criteria or rubrics were adapted and formulated as the research questions and the respondents (for the quantitative data) and interview participants (for the qualitative data) were required to freely indicate their perception of the performance of the IOCs based on the rubrics prescribed in the adopted models. The responses from the research participants created the data that was eventually analysed and presented as the evidence which enabled the researcher to answer the research questions in the study.

#### **4.12.2 Quantitative Inquiry**

This study involves the exploration of people's perceptions or opinions based on their understanding, values, and beliefs. In designing the research, I considered the reliable and valid data gathering processes appropriate for the research questions used (Oyeyemi, et. al, 2010; Bartlett, et al, 2001). Accordingly, the quantitative inquiry process was considered appropriate for the study since the research objective is to explore communities' perceptions. I also selected suitable methods and techniques of scale data analyses (Heine, Lehman, Peng, & Greenholtz, 2002) and, in this regard, because of the exploratory nature of the study, the Likert-scale data analysis was adopted (e. g. strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree). As stated earlier in this chapter, the six characteristics of CSP and their attendant rubrics enunciated in the theoretical models adopted for this study were adapted and formulated as the questionnaire for the quantitative inquiry. The research problem, the theoretical models adopted for the study, as well as the contents of the questionnaire were all explained and copies made available to the participants for their comprehension and informed participation.

#### **4.12.3 Quantitative Research Population and Sampling**

Sampling was done as it was impossible to have a complete inventory of my population of interest and, in doing so, the two essentials of 'representativeness' and 'precision' were taken into consideration in order to minimize or totally eliminate sample bias (Easterby-Smith, et al, 2012). The research population comprised of about 80 communities that host any of the four major international oil companies (IOCs) operating in Bayelsa State. A simple random sample (SRS) of convenience of 60 communities was taken to enable me have samples that will characterize the population of my interest as well as empower me to make conclusions and generalizations (Bartlett, et, al., 2001). The criteria for selection were the accessibility of the communities and associated security concerns. Out of the sample of 60 communities, 50 were selected for the quantitative inquiry.

#### **4.12.4 Selection of Individual Participants for Quantitative Data Generation**

Twelve (12) participants per community in the 50 communities were selected from lists of persons holding leadership positions in the three governance structures - Council of Chiefs (CoCs) Community Development Committees (CDCs) and Youths' Executive Councils (YECs). Four participants were selected from each of the foregoing three governance structures. The criteria for selection were that the first four names on the list of each of the

three structures were chosen and persons who could communicate in English or the local colloquial English (pidgin) were excluded and the next name on the list selected, and so on, until the required four participants per list were identified.

#### **4.12.5 Process of Quantitative Data Generation**

I personally visited each of the 50 communities where 12 participants each were identified. In order to achieve this, I met with the heads of the various local governance structures and explained the purpose of the research and also requested to have access to their respective lists of community leaders. After identifying the first four persons from each of the three governance structures as prospective participants, I approached the identified participants with copies of the PCF and the PIS and explained the purpose of the research to them. The questionnaires were administered only to those who accepted to participate in the study. After administering the questionnaire, I followed up with courteous telephone calls and visits to manage delayed responses and non-responses (Bartlett, et al., 2001). From the research sample of 50 subject communities with 12 participants each, a total of 600 filled questionnaires were expected but only a total of 571 were eventually retrieved for analysis.

#### **4.12.6 Qualitative Inquiry**

The six characteristics of CSP and their attendant rubrics enunciated in the theoretical models adopted for this study were adapted and formulated as the questions guiding the interview process. The research problem, the theoretical models adopted for the study, as well as the interview guiding questions were all explained and copies made available to the prospective interviewees for their comprehension and informed participation, ahead of the interviews.

Easterby-Smith, et al. (2012) discussed a three-pronged approach in qualitative data collection - natural language data, ethnographic or interactive data. The natural language data approach was adopted in this study because the phenomenon of inquiry required conducting research through language. Since the qualitative data was collected through interviews, relevant precautionary steps suggested by Creswell (2013) were considered, namely: (1) identification of interviewee based on purposeful sampling; (2) deciding on most suitable approach to the interview (telephone interviews and one-on-one interviews); (3) use of interview protocol; (4) need to refine interview questions through dry-runs and pilot testing; (5) choosing appropriate environment for the interview; (6) administration of consent form on interviewees at site; and (7) completion of interview within the stipulated time. In this study, the research questions

presented to participants were only for guidance and, therefore, the boundaries of response and contributions were not closed.

Easterby-Smith, et al. (2012) enumerated common challenges associated with qualitative data collection such as the relevance of the study from the point of view of the interviewees. All interviewees in the study were community leaders in oil and gas producing communities who have had a series of issues with IOCs and, accordingly, showed interest in resolving their issues with the companies. Since they have limited access to the companies to express their grievances, they saw the study as an opportunity to state their case. Other challenges considered were need for reflexivity, field issues such as access to the communities, observations, interviews, documents and storing data (Creswell, 2013).

#### **4.12.7 Selection of Individual Participants for Qualitative Data Generation**

Out of the study population of 60 communities, a sample of convenience of 10 communities was selected for the study. The ten (10) participating communities were selected on the basis of accessibility, bearing in mind the geo-social challenges of the subject areas. In each participating community visited the researcher interviewed one person – being the Chairman, CoCs, or the Chairman, CDC or the Youths' Leader, depending on who gave consent. Persons who could not communicate in English or the local colloquial English (pidgin) were excluded from the study, as interpreters or translators were not be deployed.

Having identified the prospective interviewee in each community I personally approached them with copies of the PCF and PIS and explained the purpose of the research to them. The interview questions were given to only those who accepted to participate in the study. In the end, a total of ten (10) participants were interviewed, using a set of open-ended questions. The transcripts of the interviews were then fed into the AR learning set for deliberations.

#### **4.13 The Ethical Issues Encountered in the Research**

Creswell (2012) discussed some of the ethical issues involved in research as follows: (1) avoiding harm to research participants; (2) informed consent from participants; (3) avoiding deception or covert activities; (4) confidentiality towards participants; (5) ensuring that benefits of the research to participants were greater than any associated risks; (6) anonymity of participants and informants was respected; (7) the purpose of the study was made clear to all participants; (8) on confidential and sensitive issues, information was presented in a general

form as against recording the specific information; (9) participants' desire to share information 'off the records' was respected; and (10) personal interaction with participants was courteous.

Terrell (2012) also highlighted the following associated fundamental ethical issues: (1) research participants to participate voluntarily; (2) participants to be assured that they have the right to a copy of the results; (3) potential benefits and risks to be explained clearly to all participants; (4) participants to be assured that their privacy will be respected and guaranteed; (5) researchers to carefully manage power issues between researcher and participants throughout the research; (6) researchers to ensure anonymity of participants and data to be stored safely within a reasonable period of time; (7) researchers to ensure that research writing is objective and devoid of bias against any group such as age, race, gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity, etc.; and (8) researchers to ensure that all details of the research are fully stated in the report to enable readers evaluate the ethical quality of the research.

The above ethical requirements were all considered in this study, as participants' rights were verbally explained and made clear to them and the PCF and PIS forms obtained from the Ethics Committee of the University of Liverpool were also presented to all participants prior to their decision to participate in the study.

#### **4.14 Conclusion**

I have presented in this chapter the reasons for choosing AR as a methodology, and MMR as a strategy for data collection and analyses in this study. This approach is based on my preference for pragmatism. For the purpose of creating useful knowledge, I have considered pragmatism which is richer in terms of its reflexivity, flexibility, comprehensiveness, and result-oriented characteristics. My position is that research results should be good enough for academic purposes and enable practitioners to resolve real-life organizational challenges. Thus, I reiterate my support for Johnson & Onwuegbuzie's (2004) argument that pragmatism, being a tradition that reflects on philosophical assumptions, methodologies, and ethics fosters interaction amongst scholars from different orientations and fields, and the ensuing multiple worldviews can enrich research and extend the boundaries of learning. It is my belief, therefore, that the methodology (AR) and the research strategy (MMR) chosen for this study will enable me fulfil the main research objective – to answer the research questions, resolve the research problem, and enact change.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5.0 RESULTS OF QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a detailed account of the results of the quantitative study. The presentation is in three main subheads, namely: (1) demographic spread of research participants, (2) presentation and analyse of research results, and (3) conclusion. The chapter commences with the presentation of demographic data in Table 5.1. The essence of this is that before reviewing the results it would be beneficial to have detailed information on how the 571 research participants were drawn from diverse strata of the communities by showing their gender distribution, age ranges, various leadership positions held, educational backgrounds, and durations of community leadership. The demographic data also shows the various IOCs that the research communities were hosting at the time of the research. Following the demographic data is the presentation and analyses of the research results in section 5.2. This section clarifies how the various responses from the community participants were analysed, using the statistical tools chosen for the study. The analyses also show how the research questions were answered. Finally, the chapter closes with a conclusion which summarises the OPCs' perception of CSP and how the results achieved will be utilized in the study.

**Table 5.1: Demographic Distribution of Research Participants**

Variables	Categories	N	Percentages
Gender	Males	506	89
	Females	65	11
	Total	571	100
Age	Under 30years	75	13
	30-40years	224	39
	41-50years	140	25
	Over 50years	132	23
	Total	571	100



---

Leadership position	Paramount rulers	42	7
	Chiefs	90	16
	Chairmen	98	17
	Secretaries	84	15
	Youth leaders	87	15
	Women leaders	37	6
	Treasurers	30	5
	Youth members	12	2
	PROs	28	5
	Members	63	11
		571	100
Edu Qualification	Elementary school	33	6
	Secondary school	253	44
	Trade/technical/vocational	97	17
	Bachelor's degree	174	31
	Master's degree	14	2
		571	100
Leadership Duration	Less than 1 year	60	10
	1-3years	195	34
	3-5years	119	21
	5-10years	111	19
	11-20years	54	10

---

	More than 20years	32	5
		571	100
Oil Companies	SPDC	180	31
	NAOC	212	37
	TOTAL	27	5
	TEXACO	26	4
	SPDC & NAOC	115	20
	NAOC & TOTAL	11	2

Table 5.1 presents the responses of respondents based on their demographic spread. There were more males (N = 506) representing 89 per cent of the sample than females (N = 65) representing 11 per cent. The age categories of respondents ranged between 25 years and 50+. There were more respondents (N = 224) between the age bracket of 30-40years in the sample. Respondents who are under 30years of age were very few (N = 75), representing 13 per cent of the sample.

Respondents used for this study were community stakeholders with different leadership positions - paramount rulers sampled for the study (N = 42) represented seven per cent, chiefs (N = 90) represented 16 per cent; chairmen of youth organizations (N = 98) represented 17 per cent; and secretaries of youth organizations (N = 84) represented 15 per cent. Also, youth leaders (N = 84) represented 15 per cent; women leaders (N = 37) represented 6 per cent; treasurers of community organizations (N = 30) represented 5 per cent; youth members of various organizations (N = 12) represented 2 per cent; public relations officers (PRO) of youth organizations (N = 28) represented 5 per cent; while members of youth organizations (N = 63) represented 11 per cent.

Respondents' highest educational qualification was assessed. A good number of respondents (N = 253) representing 44 per cent have secondary school education qualification; 174 respondents' representing 31 per cent have Bachelor's degree; 97 respondents' representing 17 per cent have trade/technical/vocational; 33 respondents' representing 6 per cent have

elementary school qualification while only 14 respondents' representing 2 per cent have master's degrees.

Respondents have held leadership positions for several years, ranging from 1 year to 20 years and over. Respondents attest to the presence of the following international oil companies in their communities: SPDC; NAOC; TOTAL and TEXACO.

## 5.2 Presentation and Analyses of Results

Frequencies, simple percentages and Likert-Scale analyses were used to answer the research questions and the results are as reported below.

**Research Question One:** How do the OPCs perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs regarding the performance of their economic responsibility?

**Table 5.2: Frequency and Simple Percentage Analysis of Economic Responsibility**

<i>SN</i>	<i>Rubrics of Economic Responsibility</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	IOCs consider it important to maximize earnings per share	400 (70)	171 (30)	0 (0)	0 (0)
2	IOCs consider it important to be committed to being as profitable as possible	152 (27)	400 (70)	19 (3)	0 (0)
3	IOCs consider it important to maintain a strong competitive position	38 (7)	57 (10)	305 (53.4)	171 (30)
4	IOCs consider it important to maintain a high level of operating efficiency	152 (27)	362 (63)	19 (3)	38 (7)
5	IOCs consider it important that a successful firm be described as one that is always profitable	248 (43)	285 (50)	38 (7)	0 (0)

\*percentages are written in parenthesis

**Table 5.3: Likert-Scale Data Analysis of Economic Responsibility of the IOCs**

<i>SN</i>	<i>Rubrics of Economic Responsibility</i>	<i>Average Perception</i>
1	IOCs consider it important to maximize earnings per share (n=571)	3.7
2	IOCs consider it important to be committed to being as profitable as possible (n=571)	3.2
3	IOCs consider it important to maintain a strong competitive position (n=571)	1.9
4	IOCs consider it important to maintain a high level of operating efficiency (n=571)	3.1
5	IOCs consider it important that a successful firm be described as one that is always profitable (n=571)	3.4

Strongly Agree=4; Agree=3; Disagree=2; and Strongly Disagree=1

For the purpose of converting the data in Table 5.2 to percentages, ‘strongly agree’ (SA) and ‘agree’ (A) were collectively reported as ‘agree’, while ‘disagree’ (D) and ‘strongly disagree’ (SD) were collectively reported as ‘disagree’. Respondents were assessed on the performance of the economic responsibility of the IOCs and out of the five rubrics used for the evaluation, an average of 95% agreed to four. These are: rubric 1 (IOCs consider it important to maximize earnings per share); rubric 2 (IOCs consider it important to be committed to being as profitable as possible); rubric 4 (IOCs consider it important to maintain high level of operating efficiency); and rubric 5 (IOCs consider it important that a successful firm be described as one that is always profitable). However, only 17% of respondents agreed to rubric 3 (IOCs consider it important to maintain a strong competitive position), while 83.4% disagreed. The percentages of respondents who agreed to rubrics 1, 2, 4, and 5 are 100%, 97%, 90%, and 93% respectively. In summary, an average majority of approximately 79% agreed with the

statement that the IOCs are responsive in the performance of their economic responsibility, while an average minority of 21% disagreed.

From Table 5.3, rubric 3 received the lowest average perception level of 1.9. For the statement in rubric 3, the lower the average score, the higher the negative perception. Thus, the low average score indicates that the perception of the communities is that, comparatively, the IOCs do not consider it important to maintain a strong competitive position. The desire of the IOCs in maximising earnings per share scored the highest average perception of 3.7. For rubrics 1, 2 and 5, the higher the average score, the higher the positive perception. Thus, the perception of the communities is that the IOCs consider financial gains and operating efficiency over and above the consideration of maintaining a strong competitive position.

*From the foregoing, it can be concluded that the OPCs perceive that on economic responsibility the IOCs find the following criteria very important: (1) maximization of earnings per share, (2) the consideration that being described as a profitable firm means being successful, (3) maintaining a high level of operating efficiency, and (4) commitment to being as profitable as possible. Conversely, the OPCs perceive that the IOCs do not place much importance on the need to maintain a strong competitive position.*

**Research Question Two:** How do the OPCs perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs regarding the performance of their legal responsibility?

**Table 5.4: Frequency and Simple Percentage Analysis of Legal Responsibility**

S/N	Rubrics of Legal Responsibility	SA	A	D	SD
1	IOCs consider it important to act in a manner consistent with expectations of government	114 (20)	95 (17)	133 (23)	229 (40)
2	IOCs consider it important to comply with federal, state, and local laws and regulations	19 (3)	0 (0)	133 (23)	419 (73)
3	IOCs consider it important to be a law-abiding corporate citizen	0 (0)	38 (7)	76 (13)	457 (80)
4	IOCs consider it important for corporations to fulfil their legal obligations	172 (30)	171 (30)	95 (17)	133 (23)

5	IOCs consider it important to provide goods/services that meet minimum legal requirements	57 (10)	114 (20)	152 (27)	248 (43)
---	-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	------------	-------------	-------------	-------------

\*percentages are written in parenthesis

**Table 5.5: Likert-Scale Data Analysis of the Legal Responsibility of the IOCs**

<i>S/N</i>	<i>Rubrics of Legal Responsibility</i>	<i>Average Perception</i>
1	IOCs consider it important to act in a manner consistent with expectations of government (n=571)	2.2
2	IOCs consider it important to comply with federal, state, and local laws and regulations (n=571)	1.3
3	IOCs consider it important to be a law-abiding corporate Citizen (n=571)	1.3
4	IOCs consider it important for corporations to fulfil their legal obligations (n=571)	2.7
5	IOCs consider it important to provide goods/services that meet minimum legal requirements (n=571)	2.0

Strongly Agree=4; Agree=3; Disagree=2; and Strongly Disagree=1

For the purpose of converting the data in Table 5.4 to percentages, ‘strongly agree’ (SA) and ‘agree’ (A) were collectively reported as ‘agree’, while ‘disagree’ (D) and ‘strongly disagree’ (SD) were collectively reported as ‘disagree’. Respondents were assessed on their perception of the performance of the IOCs regarding their legal responsibilities, and a majority of the respondents (73%) disagreed with the assertion that the IOCs are responsive to the performance of their legal responsibilities, while a minority of 27% agreed. A majority of 63% and above disagreed with four out of the five rubrics – rubric 1 (IOCs consider it important to act in a manner consistent with expectations of government); rubric 2 (IOCs consider it important to comply with federal, state, and local laws and regulation); and rubric 3 (IOCs consider it

important to be law-abiding corporate citizens); and rubric 5 (IOCs consider it important to provide goods/services that meet minimum legal requirements). Only a minority of 40% of the respondents disagreed with rubric 4 (IOCs consider it important for corporations to fulfil their legal obligations), while 60% agreed. It is worthy of note that 60% of the respondents agreed that that IOCs consider it important for corporations to fulfil their legal obligations, while 40% disagreed.

From Table 5.5, rubric 4 had the highest average perception of 2.7, while rubrics 1 and 5 have average perception of 2.2 and 2.0 respectively. This means that the communities are of the view that the IOCs know that they have legal obligations to fulfil, such as acting in a manner consistent with expectations of government as well as providing goods and services that meet minimum legal requirements. However, a high percentage (73%) of respondents perceive that the IOCs are not responsive to the performance of their legal obligation.

*From the foregoing, it can be concluded that the OPCs perceive that on legal responsibility the IOCs find the following criteria important: (1) corporations to fulfil their legal obligations, (2) to act in a manner consistent with expectations of government, and (3) to provide goods and services that meet minimum legal requirements. Conversely, the OPCs perceive that the IOCs do not place much importance on the following criteria: (1) to comply with federal, state, and local regulations, and (2) to be a law-abiding corporate citizen.*

**Research Question Three:** How do the OPCs perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs regarding the performance of their ethical responsibility?

**Table 5.6: Frequency and Simple Percentage Analysis of Ethical Responsibility**

S/N	Rubrics of Ethical Responsibility	SA	A	D	SD
1	IOCs consider it important to perform in a manner consistent with societal ethical norms	95 (17)	76 (13)	190 (33)	210 (37)
2	IOCs consider it important to recognize and respect societal ethical moral norms	134 (23)	95 (17)	209 (37)	133 (23)
3	IOCs consider it important to prevent ethical norms from being compromised to achieve corporate goals	0 (0)	19 (3)	285 (50)	267 (47)

4	IOCs consider it important that good corporate Citizenship be defined as doing what is expected morally and ethically	0 (0)	38 (7)	114 (20)	419 (73)
5	IOCs consider it important to know that corporate integrity and ethical behavior go beyond simple compliance with laws and regulations	0 (0)	38 (7)	247 (43)	286 (50)

\*percentages are written in parenthesis

**Table 5.7: Likert-Scale Data Analysis of the Ethical Responsibility of the IOCs**

<i>S/N</i>	<i>Rubrics of Ethical Responsibility</i>	<i>Average Perception</i>
1	IOCs consider it important to perform in a manner consistent with societal ethical norms (n=571)	2.1
2	IOCs consider it important to recognize and respect societal ethical moral norms (n=571)	2.4
3	IOCs consider it important to prevent ethical norms from being compromised to achieve corporate goals (n=571)	1.6
4	IOCs consider it important that good corporate citizenship be defined as doing what is expected morally and ethically (n=571)	1.3
5	IOCs consider it important to know that corporate integrity and ethical behavior go beyond simple compliance with laws and regulations (n=571)	1.6

Strongly Agree=4; Agree=3; Disagree=2; and Strongly Disagree=1

For the purpose of converting the data in Table 5.6 to percentages, ‘strongly agree’ (SA) and ‘agree’ (A) were collectively reported as ‘agree’, while ‘disagree’ (D) and ‘strongly disagree’ (SD) were collectively reported as ‘disagree’. Respondents were assessed on the performance



of the IOCs regarding their ethical responsibility, and a majority of 83% disagreed with the statement that the IOCs are responsive to the performance of their ethical responsibility, while only 17% agreed. Rubric 3 (IOCs consider it important to prevent ethical norms from being compromised to achieve corporate goals) had the highest percentage of disagreed responses (97%). This means that most of the respondents perceive that the IOCs tend to compromise ethical norms to achieve corporate goals, while 3% do not think so.

From Table 5.7, rubric 2 was scored the highest average of 2.4, followed by rubric 1 with an average perception of 2.1, while rubrics 3, 4, and 5 have the average perception of 1.6, 1.3 and 1.6 respectively. For these rubrics, the lower the average perception, the more negative the perception. This means that from the point of view of the communities, the IOCs do not consider it important to prevent ethical norms from being compromised to achieve corporate goals. Secondly, the IOCs do not consider it important that good corporate citizenship is defined as doing what is expected morally and ethically. In the same vein, the communities feel that the IOCs do not also consider it important to know that corporate integrity and ethical behavior go beyond simple compliance with laws and regulations.

*From the foregoing, it can be concluded that the OPCs perceive that the IOCs find only two out of the five criteria on ethical responsibility important, namely: (1) to recognize and respect societal ethical moral norms, and (2) to perform in a manner consistent with societal ethical norms. Conversely, the OPCs perceive that the IOCs do not place much importance on the following criteria: (1) that good citizenship be defined as doing what is expected morally and ethically, (2) the need to prevent ethical norms from being compromised to achieve corporate goals, and (3) the need to know that corporate integrity and ethical behaviour go beyond simple compliance with laws and regulations.*

**Research Question Four:** How do the OPCs perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs regarding the performance of their philanthropic responsibility?

**Table 5.8: Frequency and Simple Percentage Analysis of Philanthropic Responsibility**

<i>S/N</i>	<i>Rubrics of Philanthropic Responsibility</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	IOCs consider it important to perform in a manner consistent with the philanthropic and charitable expectations of society	0 (0)	19 (3)	190 (33)	362 (63)

2	IOCs consider it important to assist in community wellbeing	38 (7)	171 (30)	76 (13)	286 (50)
3	IOCs consider it important that managers and employees participate in voluntary and charitable activities within their local communities	0 (0)	38 (7)	133 (23)	400 (70)
4	IOCs consider it important to provide assistance to private and public educational institutions	457 (80)	19 (3)	76 (13)	19 (3)
5	IOCs consider it important to assist voluntarily those projects that enhance a community's quality of life	0 (0)	76 (13)	247 (43)	248 (43)

\*percentages are written in parenthesis

**Table 5.9: Likert-Scale Data Analysis of the Philanthropic Responsibility of the IOCs**

<i>S/N</i>	<i>Rubrics of Philanthropic Responsibility</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Perception</i>
1	IOCs consider it important to perform in a manner consistent with the philanthropic and charitable expectations of society (n=571)		1.4
2	IOCs consider it important to assist in community wellbeing (n=571)		1.9
3	IOCs consider it important that managers and employees participate in voluntary and charitable activities within their local communities (n=571)		1.4
4	IOCs consider it important to provide assistance to private and public educational institutions (n=571)		3.6

5	IOCs consider it important to assist voluntarily those projects that enhance a community's quality of life (n=571)	1.7
---	--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	-----

Strongly Agree=4; Agree=3; Disagree=2; and Strongly Disagree=1

For the purpose of converting the data in Table 5.8 to percentages, 'strongly agree' (SA) and 'agree' (A) were reported as 'agree' while 'disagree' (D) and 'strongly disagree' (SD) were reported as 'disagree'. Respondents were assessed on the performance of the IOCs regarding their philanthropic responsibility and, out of the five rubrics used for the evaluation, an average of 70% of the respondents disagreed that the IOCs satisfy all the rubrics of philanthropic responsibility, while only 30% agreed. The most disagreed rubrics are 1 (IOCs consider it important to perform in a manner consistent with the philanthropic and charitable expectations of society) with 93%, 3 (IOCs consider it important that managers and employees participate in voluntary and charitable activities within their local communities) with 93%, and 5 (IOCs consider it important to assist voluntarily those projects that enhance a community's quality of life) with 86%, while the most agreed rubric is 4 (IOCs consider it important to provide assistance to private and public educational institutions) with 83%. From Table 5.9, rubrics 4 and 2 scored the average perception of 3.6 and 1.9 respectively, while rubrics 5, 1 and 3 scored average perception of 1.7, 1.4, and 1.4, respectively. From the rubrics, the lower the average perception, the more negative the perception. This means that from the comparative viewpoints of the communities, the IOCs consider it most important to provide assistance to private and public educational institutions, while the second consideration is for the IOCs to assist in community wellbeing. On the other hand, the IOCs consider it least important to perform in a manner consistent with the philanthropic and charitable expectations of society or that managers and employees participate in voluntary and charitable activities within their local communities. Furthermore, the communities are of the opinion that the IOCs do not attach as much importance to assist voluntarily those projects that enhance a community's quality of life.

*From the foregoing, it can be concluded that the perception of the OPCs is that the only criterion among the five that the IOCs consider important on philanthropic responsibility is the provision of assistance to private and public educational institutions. Conversely, the OPCs perceive that the IOCs do not consider the following criteria important: (1) to perform in a manner consistent with the philanthropic and charitable expectations of society, (2) that managers and employees participate in voluntary and charitable activities within their local*

communities, (3) to assist voluntarily those projects that enhance a community's quality of life, and (4) to assist in community wellbeing.

**Research Question Five:** What is the perception of the OPCs regarding the main factors that influence the involvement of the IOCs in social issues confronting their stakeholder communities?

**Table 5.10: Frequency and Percentage Analysis of the Factors Influencing the IOCs' Involvement in Social Issues**

S/N	Factors	SA	A	D	SD
1	Matching of a social need to corporate skill, need, or ability to help	171 (30)	152 (27)	191 (33)	57 (10)
2	Seriousness of social need	0 (0)	76 (13)	152 (27)	343 (60)
3	Interest of top executives	305 (53)	228 (40)	38 (7)	0 (0)
4	Public relations value of social action	228 (40)	133 (23)	134 (23)	76 (13)
5	Government pressure	457 (80)	76 (13)	38 (7)	0 (0)
6	Pressure of general public opinion	191 (33)	171 (30)	152 (26)	57 (10)
7	Pressure from special interest groups	172 (30)	152 (27)	114 (20)	133 (23)
8	Amount of corporate effort required	57 (10)	114 (20)	152 (27)	248 (43)

9	Measurability of results, or some form of cost/benefit analysis of social effort	95 (17)	76 (13)	190 (33)	210 (37)
10	Profitability of the venture	134 (23)	209 (37)	133 (23)	95 (17)

\*percentages are written in parenthesis

**Table 5.11: Likert-Scale Data Analysis of the Factors Influencing the Involvement of the IOCs in Social Issues**

S/N	Factors	Average Perception
1	Matching of a social need to corporate skill, need, or ability to help (n=571)	2.8
2	Seriousness of social need (n=571)	1.5
3	Interest of top executives (n=571)	3.5
4	Public relations value of social action (n=571)	2.9
5	Government pressure (n=571)	3.7
6	Pressure of general public opinion (n=571)	2.9
7	Pressure from special interest groups (n=571)	2.6
8	Amount of corporate effort required	2.0
9	Measurability of results, or some form of cost/benefit analysis of social effort (n=571)	2.1
10	Profitability of the venture (n=571)	2.7

Strongly Agree=4; Agree=3; Disagree=2; and Strongly Disagree=1

For the purpose of converting the data in Table 5.10 to percentages, 'strongly agree' (SA) and 'agree' (A) were reported as 'agree', while 'disagree' (D) and 'strongly disagree' were reported as 'disagree'. Respondents were assessed on the factors that influence the involvement of the IOCs in social issues confronting the host communities and, out of the ten possible factors

identified, 93% of the respondents identified items 3 (interest of top executives) and item 5 (government pressure), while items 4 (public relations value of social action), 6 (pressure of general public opinion), and 10 (profitability of the venture) scored 63%, 63%, and 60% respectively. Thus, items 3 and 5 were ranked equally highest of the factors, 3 and 6 were ranked second highest, and item 10 was ranked the third highest factor.

From Table 5.11, ‘government pressure’ was ranked the highest factor that influences the involvement of the IOCs in social investment in their host communities with an average perception of 3.7, while the ‘interest of top executives’ was ranked the second highest factor with an average perception of 3.5. ‘Public relations value of social action’ and ‘pressure of general public opinion’ were equally ranked the third highest factors with an average perception of 2.9 each, while items 1, 10 and 7 were equally ranked as the fourth, fifth and sixth factors that influence the involvement of the IOCs in social action. Seriousness of social need was ranked the least possible factor with an average score of 1.5.

*Regarding the fifth research question, it can be concluded that the OPCs perceive that the five main factors that the IOCs find important are: (1) government pressure, (2) interest of top executives, (3) public relations value of social action, (4) pressure of general public opinion, and (5) matching of a social need to corporate skill, need, or ability to help. Conversely, the OPCs perceive that the IOCs do not find the following factors very important: (1) seriousness of social need, (2) amount of corporate effort required, (3) measurability of results, or some form of cost/benefit analysis of social effort, (4) pressure from special interest groups, and (5) profitability of the venture.*

**Research Question Six:** How do the OPCs perceive the response attitude of the IOCs regarding the negative effects of their operations in the stakeholder communities?

**Table 5.12: Frequency and Percentage Analysis of Response Strategy**

S/N	Response Attitude	SA	A	D	SD
1	IOCs adopt strategies that enable them to escape the responsibility that comes with the negative effects of their activities	267 (47)	285 (50)	19 (3)	0 (0)
2	IOCs ensure that extant legal and ethical frameworks protect the company from taking responsibility for	419 (73)	114 (20)	38 (7)	0 (0)

	the negative effects of their activities				
3	IOCs adopt strategy that is not meant to escape responsibility, but rather emphasize the need to feel the pressure from stakeholders before implementing CSR initiatives	0 (0)	38 (7)	247 (43)	286 (50)
4	IOCs implement CSR activities without being pressurized or without the occurrence of negative externalities	0 (0)	19 (3)	57 (10)	495 (87)

\*percentages are written in parenthesis

**Table 5.13: Likert-Scale Data Analysis of Response Attitude of the IOCs**

S/N	Response Attitude	Average Perception
1	IOCs adopt strategies that enable them to escape the responsibility that comes with the negative effects of their activities (n=571)	3.4
2	IOCs ensure that extant legal and ethical frameworks protect the company from taking responsibility for the negative effects of their activities (n=571)	3.7
3	IOCs adopt strategy that is not meant to escape responsibility, but rather emphasize the need to feel the pressure from stakeholders before implementing CSR initiatives (n=571)	1.6
4	IOCs implement CSR activities without being pressurized or without the occurrence of negative externalities (n=571)	1.2

Strongly Agree=4; Agree=3; Disagree=2; and Strongly Disagree=1

For the purpose of converting the data in Table 5.12 to percentages, ‘strongly agree’ (SA) and ‘agree’ (A) were reported as ‘agree’, while ‘disagree’ (D) and ‘strongly disagree’ (SD) were reported as ‘disagree’. Respondents were assessed on the performance of the IOCs on their response strategies regarding the negative effects of their operations, and 97% of the respondents agreed that the IOCs adopt strategies that enable them to escape the responsibility that comes with the negative effects of their activities (rubric 1), while only 3% disagreed. Similarly, 93% of the respondents agreed that the IOCs ensure that extant legal and ethical frameworks protect the company from taking responsibility for the negative effects of their activities (rubric 2), while only 7% disagreed. Furthermore, 93% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that the IOCs adopt strategy that is not meant to escape responsibility, but rather emphasizes the need to feel the pressure from stakeholders before implementing CSR initiatives (rubric 3), while only 7% agreed. In the same vein, 97% of respondents disagreed with the statement that the IOCs implement CSR activities without being pressurized or without the occurrence of negative externalities (rubric 4), while only 3% agreed.

From Table 5.13, rubrics 1 and 2 scored average perception of 3.4 and 3.7 respectively. For these two rubrics, the higher the average, the higher the negative perception. Thus, from these scores, it means that the communities feel that the IOCs often adopt strategies that enable them to escape the responsibility that comes with the negative effects of their activities, as well as strategies to ensure that extant legal and ethical frameworks protect the company from taking responsibility for negative externalities. Rubrics 3 and 4 scored the average perception of 1.6 and 1.2 respectively. For these rubrics, the lower the average, the higher the negative perception. From these average scores, it means that the communities perceive that the IOCs adopt strategies that are designed to escape responsibility. Furthermore, the strategies of the IOCs emphasize the need to feel the pressure from stakeholders before implementing CSR initiatives. It is important to note that rubric 4 scored the lowest average of 1.2. This means that the IOCs do not implement CSR activities without being pressurized or without the occurrence of negative externalities.

*From the foregoing, it can be concluded that the OPCs perceive that on response attitude the IOCs find only two out of the four criteria important, namely: (1) to adopt strategies that enable them escape the responsibility that comes with the negative effects of their activities (REACTIVE), and (2) to ensure that extant legal and ethical frameworks protect the company*



*from taking responsibility for the negative effects of their operations (DEFENSIVE). Conversely, the OPCs perceive that the IOCs do not find the following criteria important: (1) adopt strategy that is not meant to escape responsibility, but rather emphasize the need to feel the pressure from stakeholders before implementing CSR initiatives (ACCOMMODATIVE), and (2) implement CSR activities without being pressurized or without the occurrence of negative externalities (PROACTIVE). Thus, the perception of the OPCs is that the IOCs are neither accommodative nor proactive in their response to the negative effects of their activities in the stakeholder communities.*

### **5.3 Conclusion**

From the results presented above, the general perception of the OPCs indicates that the IOCs are responsive to the performance of their economic responsibility to shareholders. In contradistinction, the results indicated that the OPCs perceive that the IOCs are not responsive to the other three CSR responsibilities – legal, ethical and philanthropic. The results also revealed that the OPCs perceive that the five main factors that influence the involvement of the IOCs in the social issues confronting their host communities are ‘government pressure’, ‘interest of top executives’, ‘public relations value of social action’, ‘pressure of general public opinion’, and ‘matching of a social need to corporate skill, need, or ability to help’. Seriousness of social need, irrespective of its importance, was ranked the least possible factor by the respondents. Lastly, the results also revealed that the OPCs perceive that the IOCs are generally not proactive in their response attitude, but rather reactive and defensive.

It is important to clarify at this point that it would have been beneficial to feed the above quantitative results into the LS for consideration and reflection, but due to the fact that the study commenced with the qualitative data gathering and analyses, these results could not be fed into the LS. However, the results will be incorporated in the final integrative discussion in Chapter Seven of this thesis for comparative evaluation that would lead to evidence-based conclusions and recommendations.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **6.0 THE AR ANALYSES**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

The AR analyses are meant to validate the relevance of the outcome of the inquiry, as the problem investigated is a real-life organizational problem within a peculiar contextual background which may not be adequately addressed solely by the application of general precepts and results of the quantitative inquiry. Since the LS members were all managerial staff of the research organization, balancing arguments and assertions was necessary and adequately done. Taking the accounts of the host communities alone would have left the researcher with one side of the story only. As AR takes into account the underlying assumptions, beliefs, and experiences of research participants, so was the dominant culture of the organization brought to fore by the LS participants and taken into account.

The LS deliberations held over a period of six months (from 4th September, 2016 to 2nd March, 2017) with seven managers whose official responsibilities directly touch on various aspects of CSP in the company. The deliberations were mainly virtually done with minimal face-to-face engagements for the reasons of confidentiality. Telephone conversations and conferences also formed a large part of the LS activities. The interview results were presented to all the LS members and the research questions for discussion – the social responsibilities (economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic), the social issues and the response philosophy - were problematized.

#### **6.2 The Action Cycles**

The LS engaged in iterative reflection, learning and action processes using the qualitative data from the field in order to meet the needs of the problem of inquiry. In order to achieve the desired rigour through the AR process, the communicative engagements of the LS followed Coghlan & Brannick's (2010) AR cycles which entail a pre-step (context and purpose) and four fundamental steps – 'constructing', 'planning action', 'taking action', and 'evaluating action' and McNiff's (2013) action-reflection cycles which entail planning, acting, observing and reflecting.

### **6.2.1 The Constructing Phase**

In this study the LS had already carried out an exploration of the context and purpose of the project (pre-step) and, therefore, upon receipt of the field data, the LS simply commenced with the constructing step and dialogue on the CSP of the study organization against the backdrop of the needed sustainable development of its host communities. Constructing is a dialogic activity in which the LS participants engaged in conceptualizing the pertinent issues surrounding the identified problem on the basis of which to plan and take action (Coghlan & Brannick, 2010).

The constructing process involved initial and follow-on posts from each of the LS participants reflecting on the interview responses from the communities on each of the qualitative research questions. Using the posts from participants and the theoretical models adopted in the study, the LS engaged to reflect on the problematized research questions. The reflection and feedback process went on until a shared understanding of that research question was reached.

### **6.2.2 Planning/Acting/Observing/Evaluating/Reflecting**

*Planning Action:* Having reached a shared understanding of the particular research question, the LS proceeded to plan action to be taken in line with the new knowledge created.

*Taking Action:* As managers in their respective functions, the LS members tried to apply their new knowledge in the office to resolve real problems.

*Observing:* Each LS participant was encouraged to observe actions taken and provide feedback to the LS on lessons learned.

*Evaluating the Action Taken:* On receipt of the feedback from each LS member on the actions taken, the LS co-evaluated the different actions taken.

*Reflection:* Based on the co-evaluations made, the LS reflected on the various actions taken and considered whether or not there is need to modify the actions in order to plan them all over again.

The LS members brought their knowledge and individual experiences to enrich the deliberations as they reviewed the prevalent CSR practice of the organization in comparison with the interview results and Carroll's rubrics. They clearly identified what is currently in practice as against what ought to be as well as noted where there were alignments. At the end

of the deliberations, possible action points were highlighted for concerned managers to take. Feedback on actions taken was again reviewed by the LS. This cycle was enacted on all the research questions – reviewing the interview results in comparison with the laid down rubrics and current practice by the organization and identifying action points.

### **6.3 LS Deliberations/Reflections and Findings**

On each of the research questions, transcripts of the community interviews on the economic responsibility of the IOCs were presented in a problematized form to the LS for deliberation as follows:

Based on Carroll's (1979; 1991) CSR/CSP models that economic responsibilities are the first level of responsibilities or targets of companies, one community leader each in ten selected host communities in Bayelsa State were interviewed using semi-structured questions on their perception of this theory as it relates to the operations of the IOCs. Reflecting on the interview responses of the various community leaders provided plus Carroll's rubrics of CSR, and assuming that the scenario represents a real-life organizational problem in our company, how can the problem be addressed?

Mode of Learning Set (LS) Discussion:

There are seven (7) Participants known as LS Mates in this study. For the purpose of confidentiality, LS mates were given pseudonyms as Participants 'A', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'E', 'F' and 'G'. Kindly turn-in your initial response post by Wednesday and endeavour to make follow-up posts to critique each initial response of other LS mates by Friday. Saturday will be the wrap-up of the week's discussion.

I appeal to you to kindly make out time to share your knowledge and experience in your organizational/professional practice to fodder the cogeneration of new knowledge.

*Thank you as you accept to participate in this study.*

#### **6.3.1 Economic Responsibility**

From the interview responses, the general perception of the communities was that the IOCs discharge their economic responsibility to their shareholders and JV partners. The responses, however, indicated that the communities also expected some form of economic benefits arising from the operations of the IOCs. A youths' leader in Ikarama community in Okordia Clan, one of the host communities to SHELL and AGIP in Bayelsa State had this to say:

Economically they (the IOCs) have not done well and, for a community like this, it is not supposed to be so. We rate them poor. The oil companies and the government are the ones benefiting from the economic responsibilities of the IOCs. The host communities are benefiting nothing.

In the same vein, a community leader in Tein II Community (host community to SHELL and AGIP) of Biseni Clan in Bayelsa State also lamented as follows:

They only come to exploit the mineral resources from the community and go back. Only the companies are benefiting from their economic responsibilities, and then the Federal and State Governments because they (federal/state governments) have a percentage. And so, the companies, the Federal Government, and State Governments are the beneficiaries.

After the LS members had carefully reviewed all the transcripts of the community interviews, they individually posted their initial responses to me and I, in turn, circulated all the responses to the other members. Against the expectations of the communities for economic benefits from the IOCs operating on their land, the LS thought otherwise. Part of an initial response on the economic responsibility of the IOCs posted by one of the LS members is presented as follows:

From the answers gleaned from the interviews, we observe the following:

1. All the responses attempt to confuse the role/responsibility of the IOCs with that of constitutional governments. Sometimes, the two institutions are used interchangeably. Consequently, the failure or success of one is extended to the other. Often, the IOCs receive the higher blame because they operate inside the communities. The other is physically absent in most of the communities the IOCs do business.
2. Furthermore, all the responses (except Communities 7 and 9) perceive the oil/gas extracted in their lands as their private communal property and wish to have equitable entitlement from the benefits. Regrettably, none attempted to link the environmental issues associated with oil production and the demand for an equitable share in their arguments.

Akin to the above argument, part of the initial post of another LS member is presented as follows:

I am of the opinion that the entire Niger Delta communities require a re-orientation and, therefore, the study should review who is responsible for what – the IOCs, Government, Communities, etc. CSR is voluntary, within the 'confines' of a

discretionary cost to the IOC. Government's obligation is MANDATORY to every citizen of Nigeria, in which case we are entitled to power, water, shelter etc. In this case, as Government shelve her responsibility, we are seeing more community people in Government, carrying the wrong perception of being 'spoon-fed' by the IOC, slacking in providing for her people. The Niger Delta has long taken on the stance of being exploited - true, but she is being exploited by her Government.

Another LS participant also commented in a follow-on post. Part of the said post is presented below:

In the absence of any enabling laws on the subject, I would suggest to the Company's Management to give special consideration to indigenes of host Communities with contracts to enable the host communities to have some indirect economic benefits.

The points made in the foregoing posts and subsequent LS discourse regarding the need for re-orientation of the communities on the issue of private business enterprise, ownership of mineral resources found in land, the governments' responsibility for community development, and the need to give special consideration to indigenes of host communities in the award of contracts were all important action points that the LS noted. Whilst the LS deliberations were still ongoing, I led some LS members to address the identified action points. Three of the issues were addressed during official meetings with some of the communities where it was communicated clearly to the community representatives that in Nigeria, whilst the right for anyone to engage in private business enterprise with the ultimate view of making profits is a fundamental right, the ownership of mineral resources and the role of government in community development are both constitutional issues. It was explained further to the communities that by the provisions of the constitution of the country, the ownership of mineral resources is vested in the Federal Government of Nigeria, whilst community development is primarily the responsibility of the government. The communities accepted the foregoing explanations and, accordingly, there was change as their earlier positions on the issues were abandoned. The communities, however, appealed to the company for continued developmental assistance since the presence of the governments at all levels is not felt by them. On the fourth action point regarding the need to give special consideration to indigenes of host communities in the award of contracts, we made a request through proper management channels to top management and the response was positive, as top management indicated willingness to expand patronage of indigenous contractors with relevant competence by giving them first consideration to execute contracts.

After reviewing all the initial and follow-on posts of each and every LS member, the LS arrived at the conclusion that it is not the responsibility of the IOCs to provide economic benefits to the OPCs.

*Thus, in answering the first research question on how the OPCs perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs regarding the performance of their economic responsibility, the LS shared the perception that the IOCs have significantly performed this responsibility to shareholders and JV Partners.*

### **6.3.2 Legal Responsibility**

On the legal responsibility of the IOCs, some of the communities declared the IOCs as having failed, while others commended the IOCs in the area of award of contracts. However, a majority of the respondents perceived that the IOCs have failed in this responsibility.

A community leader in Otuosega Community of Ogbia Clan (host to SHELL and AGIP) stated as follows in the interview:

They (the IOCs) don't respect laws of the land. They don't respect the local content law. They are not even following the GMoU as well, except through strike or violence. Recently the Secretary of the cluster board wrote to us telling us how the GMoU members want to go on strike with Shell for not honouring the GMoU on what was agreed as at the time the GMoU was signed.

On the issues of the environment and job creation, a community leader in Oruma community of Ogbia Clan (hosting SHELL and AGIP) decried the situation with the following words:

Whether the IOCs discharge legal responsibilities? I don't think so. Like this spillage now, they have heard of the spillage but they are refusing to pay compensation or clean-up the oil. In fact, we have a case in Hague against Shell.

For local content jobs to the communities, they (the IOCs) are trying now. But before this time, they did not normally give contracts to our contractors. However, the people are not empowered enough through the local content jobs.

The LS members expressed divergent views on the community interview responses. For instance, after reviewing the various interview responses, one of the LS participants posted the following initial response:

Community Investment (CI) is seen as a cardinal component of sustainability for the IOCs. Other components are: Stakeholder Engagement, Environmental

Protection, Local Content Development and respect for Human Rights, but the highest ranking is CI.

Even if it seems ‘irresponsible’ or ‘insensitive’ for any multinational to neglect its host communities, carrying out CSR is still discretionary and can in no way be seen as mandatory or a legal requirement.

Another vague concept in ascribing development of local community to multinationals is trying to estimate what development really means and to what extent. Is it when all basic infrastructure and amenities are provided in the region, or when every single member of the community is lifted out of poverty? This will seem a far-reaching goal and at best all parties (the IOCs and the government) can only contribute their bits toward development. We should not be tempted to shift the responsibility for development to the multinationals or organisations doing business in our areas. The main responsible institution for community development remains the Government!

Akin to the above, another LS participant presented an initial response, part of which is presented below.

Most of the interview respondents submitted that the IOCs have failed. Communities 1 and 3 cited NOSDRA regulation on spill clean-up within a timeframe. This is absolutely true. However, the constraint to achieve this is mutually shared. Furthermore, the MOUs/GMOUs (memorandum of understanding/global memorandum of understanding) represent the direct contract between the companies and communities. They are achieved through a protracted negotiation, often supervised by the government. Here too the communities score the companies badly. Here too both parties have a fair share of the blame. On one hand, the IOCs sometimes cannot provide funds timely. On the other hand, community-nominated contractors, often in connivance with community stakeholders, also undermine the process.

However, some of the LS participants held different views from the above two arguments. Part of the initial response of one of such participants is as follows:

The idea that community development/social projects are acts of liberality and are done at the discretion of corporations can no longer be sustained. Today a business can no longer be seen as a creator of wealth solely for its shareholders. Rather, business has broader responsibilities that extend beyond its owners and shareholders to include employees, customers, suppliers and the host communities. There are



dozens of international conventions that declare that it's the fundamental right of all 'stakeholders' of corporations to be developed alongside the corporations. That's why most organizations are reviewing the concepts of 'stakeholders' and 'human rights' issue in their corporations.

The reference to international conventions brought into fore the current practice whereby IOCs domesticate international conventions and codes on business ethics by drawing up their own internal business codes in line with the international codes. Some of the LS members also observed that the IOCs have acknowledged the recognition of human rights, rights of indigenous peoples, minorities and disadvantaged peoples as having become associated with business activities globally through the enactment of appropriate international Conventions and Treaties, and that commitment to adhere to such Conventions and Treaties is often enshrined in internal ethical business codes of the IOCs such as the Management Systems Guidelines (MSGs).

On the allegation of poor performance in MoUs and GMoUs, the LS members opined that both local communities and the IOCs are responsible for the failures noted. They went further to clarify that while in some cases IOCs may be unable to fund some contracts under the MoUs and GMoUs within the stipulated timeframes due to lack of funding by JV partners, community-nominated contractors, on the other hand, sometimes allegedly connive with community leaders to undermine the process of timely project delivery.

On environmental sustainability, the LS members observed that the IOCs have failed to meet expectations. This was attributed to poor funding from JV partners and the sheer volume and spate of daily oil spill cases reported in the NDR which are largely due to sabotage. Some LS members also noted that there are isolated cases where the IOCs allegedly exploit situations of weak and corrupt government institutions that discharge monitoring and supervisory responsibilities, to avoid legal responsibility. On this responsibility, the LS considered the engagement with host communities to create awareness on the need for better management and monitoring of MoUs and GMoUs and a more effective approach to cash-call and budget matters as action points. Accordingly, the researcher led the LS to appropriately address these action points with positive feedback.

*Thus, in answering the second research question on how the OPCs perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs regarding the performance of their legal responsibility, the LS shared the*

*perception that the IOCs have not significantly performed this responsibility, particularly in the area of compliance with environmental laws and regulation.*

### **6.3.3 Ethical Responsibility**

The responses of the community interviewees indicated that the OPCs perceived that the IOCs have failed in discharging this responsibility, particularly regarding environmental issues. They all claim to be treated unfairly and unjustly. A community leader in Azuzuama community in Southern Ijaw Local Government Area of Bayelsa State (hosting AGIP) declared as follows:

Usually, when there is a corrosion spillage the responsibilities go to the company for relief materials, clean-up, and payment of compensation. But anytime an oil spillage occurs they (the IOCs) attribute it to sabotage, and even try to influence the government regulators' team to speak against the communities because the regulators are being fed and transported by the IOCs. They (the IOCs) often impose their will on the communities and don't clean up oil spillage. Why is it that from 1989 to date, we have about three court cases with Agip about oil spillages?

Whenever there are spills, instead of them (the IOCs) to promptly send a team to the community to attend to the spills, it will take them two or three weeks to respond. And even when they eventually come, in a tidal area like Azuzuama, they will bring a map of one or two hectares as the impacted areas. So, what they do in terms of spills is the worst thing Agip does to the community. We need to pressure them, make phone calls and write letters before they will come for the joint investigation (JIV). People would have been seriously affected by the spill before they will call for JIV. The oil spill might have impacted other areas due to tidal water movements. But when the company officials eventually come, they will say it is one barrel that spilled or it is half a barrel or the other. What they do normally is to cheat the community, oppress the community - both the government regulators and the company are guilty of this.

They don't have regard for our community. Not at all! If they had regard for us, I don't think we would go and embark on blockades and cause inconvenience and all the rest before they will call us for even a meeting. We seek for an urgent meeting they will not regard you for even two to three years.

After careful review of all the interview responses and LS discussion of the responsibility, the landing of the LS seems to lend some credence to the claim of the communities. The LS arrived at the conclusion that the IOCs generally have not done very well in this regard and need to improve. Part of the initial post of one of the LS participants is presented below.

There are reported cases of some IOCs conniving with some members of the community to outwit the entire community, thereby cutting corners to save cost and compromising quality and efficiency. Ethical norms are also allegedly being compromised in the procurement process of most of the IOCs, as contracts are awarded on the basis of personal recognition rather than competence.

Another participant sought to hold both host communities and the IOCs equally responsible for environmental neglect, which was identified as one of the critical ethical issues. The participant commented *inter alia* as follows:

The alleged lack of environmental care regarding oil spills is a very critical ethical issue raised by most of the community respondents. It is doubtful if any of the IOCs will come out clean on this allegation, considering the overwhelming number of sabotage spills in the Niger Delta. I would recommend the following:

1. Workshops/training for IOCs on the importance of Ethical Responsibility. This will reinvigorate the desired consciousness in company staff.
2. Community enlightenment campaign to discourage oil theft and vandalism. This will make Communities to take some responsibility and stop blaming the IOCs on the environment.

The above response had the support of another participant who turned in the following opinion:

There are subsisting environmental regulations designed to protect the environment, which the IOCs comply with, but compliance with environmental regulations is sometimes limited by the under-listed factors:

1. Lack of proper funding from JV Partners for key environmental management projects such as natural gas flare – out, appropriate disposal of produced water by re-injection, etc.
2. Insecurity in the Niger Delta Region that affects oil and gas production operations and JIV/ other interventions in respect of oil spills and other environmental emergencies.
3. Incessant spill incidents from oil theft/sabotage activities while there is a dearth of appropriate resources for mitigation of such activities coupled with quick response/intervention.
4. Oil spill clean - up delay for equipment failure spills resulting from delay in oil spill affected communities recommending clean-up contractors as practiced by some IOCs to accommodate affected communities' interest. *Meanwhile, the equipment failure spills are left without clean-up beyond the regulatory timeline of 30 days, which is a non-compliance.*

Interestingly, the LS accepted failures on the part of the IOCs on this responsibility in a number of ways. First, the LS observed that the IOCs have not done well in environmental sustainability. The LS, however, highlighted some of the factors responsible for the inability of the IOCs to discharge this responsibility, and expressed the importance of community enlightenment campaigns aimed at making the OPCs to take some responsibility to protect their environment and refrain from oil theft, illegal bunkering, and facility vandalism.

The LS also observed that the IOCs sometimes cross the ethical line in order to achieve corporate goals by conniving with impressionable community members or corrupt government officials to circumvent due process, thereby compromising quality and efficiency which sometimes leads to avoidable damage to the environment and loss of lives. Furthermore, some of the LS members also held that ethical norms are sometimes also compromised in the procurement process, as contracts may be awarded without due process.

The LS noted that some of the IOCs take undue advantage of the general state of insecurity in the NDR to evade social responsibilities in their host communities. The LS also observed that as against needs-driven social investment, some IOCs sometimes rely on extraneous considerations in their CSP such as recognition for certain individuals in the communities (otherwise known as ‘friends of the company’). This is perceived as a form of favouritism, and marginalization in the pursuit of CSP. It is a clear case of policy inconsistency, which the OPCs often refer to as ‘divide-and-rule’ tactics. The LS concluded that these practices, which are often passed off as ‘exigencies of situational management’, are some of the most provocative unethical behaviours of the IOCs.

From the foregoing, there seems to be a significant alignment between the claims of the community interviewees and the outcome of the LS activities on ethical responsibility. It can, therefore, be concluded that the IOCs are perceived to have failed in the overall discharge of their ethical responsibility. Masuch’s (1985) argument that human activity determines organisational behaviour is applicable under the ethical responsibility, as the challenges identified in this responsibility have more to do with the individual morality of managers. In this regard, in addition to the need to address the cash call and budget challenges earlier identified, the LS also identified two key action points. First, LS members being managers involved in the day-to-day interactions with the host communities on issues of community relations and environmental management saw the need for a change in themselves in order to

effect change in others. Second, the need for continuous engagement with the communities to canvass the basic tenets of sustainable development and create the required awareness for them to take ownership and responsibility to keep their environment safe and habitable for themselves and for future generations was noted. While the issue of management morality was addressed in internal management meetings, the second issue was addressed during meetings with some of the communities and the feedback was positive.

*Thus, in answering the third research question on how the OPCs perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs regarding the performance of their ethical responsibility, the LS shared the perception that the IOCs have not significantly performed this responsibility.*

#### **6.3.4 Philanthropic Responsibility**

The interview responses from the communities indicated the OPCs' perception that the IOCs hardly embark on philanthropic gestures in their host communities going by Carroll's rubrics, as most community investment actions undertaken by the IOCs are the results of coercive action by the communities. A community leader in Koluama II community (hosting Chevron, Texaco, and Connoil) summed up the situation as follows:

There has been no form of voluntary support to the community except the youths and other people fight tooth and nail to say that we need so and so thing, and the pressure will be to an extreme before they will respond and sometimes partially. We have a GMoU with Texaco/Chevron, but all along they have been failing us. They have not been faithful to the contents of the GMOU.

Similarly, a youths' activist in Letugbene II community (hosting SHELL and AGIP) in Ekeremor Local Government Area of Bayelsa State also stated thus:

Not at all! The company has not shown concern voluntarily in giving the communities something unexpectedly. It makes the communities youths look somehow aggressive, of which they are not. These companies have painted the youths of Iduwini people and even the Ijaw nation as bad. It is not the nature of the Ijaw man to take anything through violence. But it's because of the behaviour of the IOCs that have deprived the communities of their own benefits and God-given resources that make these youths to go to the extent of violence. I myself as a one-time President of the Ijaw Nation, Peace and Development, I also halted the EA field exploration based on this fact they went into an agreement (company and community) but yet nothing was done. Yet the company claimed that they have done much.

After the LS members had carefully gone through the responses of the community interviews, one of the participants commented inter alia as follows:

I am tempted to lean towards the respondents from the communities on this one because it is true that most of their demands are only met after some sort of protest or struggle. Judging from their interactions with IOCs over the years and from some of the opinions expressed in the question above, it will seem no truly peaceful community benefits from CSR activities of these companies and this is an overwhelming and unanimous opinion.

Furthermore, for the big IOCs with large footprints within the densely populated onshore areas, there are simply too many Communities to cater for if they all see the IOCs as their quasi/surrogate government and believe the execution of Community Projects is their right (as if it were a legal requirement and they are deliberately short-changed). These companies are most of the time preoccupied with resolving grievances and protests resulting from this notion, and this is why it seems that peaceful communities get little or nothing. The IOCs assume a defensive role and accede to the request of 'aggressive' communities that threaten their operations before considering the more peaceful ones.

Part of the initial post of another LS participant is presented as follows:

The aggression of the host communities is as a result of the failure of all levels of government. There is near absence of government in the localities where most of the IOCs operate. While CSR is voluntary, profit motive and delay or outright refusal by JV partners to fulfil cash-call obligations have made the IOCs be reluctant in voluntarily fulfilling philanthropic responsibilities hence the agitation and pressure from host communities.

While the position of the Community respondents is very compelling, I think it is not absolute, as Shell and Agip do embark on some philanthropic activities without solicitation or agitation from host Communities or the final beneficiaries, such as talent hunts, donation to charity homes, donation to victims of natural disaster, academic endowment, skills acquisition, etc.

In my view, the social actions referred to in the second post above are done to the general society and not specifically to the host communities. Without appearing to direct the LS activities instead of facilitating same, I subtly put this point across to the LS in a problematized form, and the point was accepted as being valid. In addition, considering the diversity of

interesting views on the issue, I decided to inspire the LS with a follow-on post as highlighted below.

There seems to be a preponderance of academic opinion that giving legal backing to CSR means that the social action ceases to be voluntary and, therefore, becomes a legal responsibility rather than a social responsibility. If this position is generally accepted, it means that there is no need for any directive or prescriptive legal instrument on CSR. How do we place this vis-a-vis the five rubrics of philanthropic responsibility and the overarching response from the communities that the IOCs do not carry out social actions unless and until forced to do so? Do MOU negotiations amount to coercive commitments? From my experience, the IOCs have taken certain social actions for the benefit of communities in order to 'buy peace'. Has this provided incentive for more coercive actions from the communities? Will it be right to assert, as the communities appear to be doing through their responses, that all social actions of the IOCs are products of coercive community actions?

After careful review of the community responses to the interviews and the initial and follow-on posts of LS members, and communicative engagement on the philanthropic responsibility of the IOCs, the LS made some findings. First, the LS noted that it is true that most of the demands for developmental action made by the communities are only met after some sort of protests or coercive actions by the communities. This, in my view, is not exactly what philanthropic responsibility denotes. Secondly, some of the LS members also noted that the operations of the IOCs are guided by JOAs which have no provisions enjoining the IOCs to carry out community development activities in their areas of operation. In other words, CSR investments are neither contractual nor legal requirements and this means that IOCs operating within the framework of the JOA and yet investing in community development activities actually do so on philanthropic grounds. This point, in my view, sounds like seeking justification for the fact that social actions taken by the IOCs are mainly the result of community coercion as highlighted above. However, some of the LS members held contrary views on this.

Some LS members further held that while it is true that more needs to be done for the OPCs in terms of developmental projects and programmes, the escalated situation seems to be a case of bloated expectations and wrongly targeted aggression. This, according to them, is because philanthropic social actions cannot be expected to adequately fill the developmental gaps in the communities. These LS members noted that more of the grievances arising from lack of development should rather be targeted at the governments whose responsibility it is to ensure

development and the improvement of the welfare of the people, and that philanthropic responsibility of the IOCs cannot replace this important responsibility of the government. They pointed out that the roles and responsibilities of the IOCs are being confused with those of the constitutional governments, and that the IOCs are being wrongly held responsible for the failure of the government.

Finally, the LS came away with three important action points, namely: (1) need for proper social risk assessment of the Niger Delta environment and the identification of appropriate mitigation measures; (2) need for effective grievance procedure; and (3) the role of JV partners and cash call issues. It was, therefore, the consensus position of the LS to address these three issues as the critical action points regarding the performance of philanthropic responsibility by the IOCs.

*Thus, in answering the fourth research question on how the OPCs perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs regarding the performance of their philanthropic responsibility, the LS shared the perception that the IOCs have not significantly performed this responsibility.*

### **6.3.5 Social Issues**

The interview responses indicated the OPCs' perception that the IOCs have failed in addressing the real social issues involved and that the IOCs are primarily concerned about social actions that will satisfy their operational needs rather than what the communities actually need. To buttress this point, a youths' activist in Ikarama community in Okordia Clan observed as follows:

These oil companies are very tactical and technical with respect to their operations. Whatever project that will benefit the host community that will cost them money they try to consider how the project will facilitate their operations. They always do a cost-benefit analysis.

They also look at what they stand to benefit from the project. Let me give an example of my community. What on earth would bring the attention of an oil company to construct a bridge across my community? Nothing on earth would have made them do that. But for the fact that their manifold is situated across the river in my community, they have to construct a bridge because it will also benefit them by getting access to their facilities. It is the oil companies which are now benefiting from it, so that is the case. In everything they do they try to put their interest first.



The interview results also indicate that even where the IOCs get involved in social issues in the host communities, in some cases the social amenities provided do not meet the felt needs of the beneficiary communities. A community leader in Ayamasa community in Ekeremor Local Government Area of Bayelsa State (hosting Shell and Agip) described the situation as follows:

As a matter of fact, when you go to the companies' locations it is another London, but right in the communities where they are tapping this wealth, it is a dungeon. Like I will say, they should give our community a generator and fuel it. They should construct motorable roads in this area - a kind of internal network of roads that makes the place nice. Scholarships should be given to indigenes and also employment opportunities be provided for the people. In fact, as we speak from 1972 to date we don't have any of our indigenes being employed in any of these companies, neither do we have any local contractor. Contractors come from outside. There may be one or two projects that they (the IOCs) did, but what they did were not some of the felt needs of the people. It is this cluster thing that they tried to bring up to the community to see if they can make some input but even in that process, like I can remember, I was one of the negotiating team, the whole thing according to them is 'generic'. It is 'global' so less input was needed from us, so we ended it up. There were areas that did not go down well with us but they say it is generic. We don't have any say.

After the LS members had carefully reviewed all the responses to the community interviews, one of the LS members aptly commented inter alia as follows:

There is the consensus of opinion among the Community respondents that the IOCs have not done enough and so failed in social intervention in the host Communities. While it is also generally agreed that the oil-bearing Communities need development, the opinion presented by the respondents is indeed unfortunate and very unfair to the IOCs. This is because most of (if not all) the visible social infrastructure ranging from roads, jetties, potable water, health centres, school buildings etc. in most of the host communities were provided by the IOCs. What the responses of the communities portray is that they have totally forgotten the responsibilities of Government and, therefore, expect the IOCs to perform the role of Government in their social and infrastructural development.

Another LS member turned in the following initial response post:

As usual, there seems to be a consensual dissatisfaction among respondents on the manner in which IOCs operate and carry out social interventions in the various communities. This might seem unfair or ungrateful of the communities, considering how much the IOCs have done in this regard, but it's a healthy development. It only

shows that communities are now more conscious and attentive to what development should really be about and the impact of these CSR activities rather than mere buildings or infrastructure that do not add value to their livelihood but only to benefit-captors camouflaging to represent the interest of the communities.

Truth be told, with the level of poverty and neglect in the Niger Delta, everything is needed (roads, electricity, water, schools, etc.) and the Oil companies understand that developing the area is imperative for their sustainability. For them, CSR is almost mandatory from a moral point of view as it is practically impossible to justify working in such an impoverished environment while making so much money from same.

Finally, in terms of measuring the impact of these projects, one will say it's been a struggle to objectively quantify what impact these initiatives have had on communities. On a broad view (and this applies to most of the host communities around the Niger Delta), any element of visible development has been carried out by an IOC across all sectors (infrastructure, health, education, socioeconomic etc.). However, assessing how these interventions have positively contributed to uplifting the standard of living of the Niger Delta people leaves much to be desired. Questions to ponder on will include: have morbidity and/or mortality rates reduced, have literacy rates gone up, have jobs (non-oil) been created?

Going by the foregoing posts and subsequent deliberations on the topic, the identified perception of the communities did not receive the unanimous support of the LS. Some of the LS members noted that while it is true that the OPCs are in dire need of development, the general opinion presented by the interview respondents is not totally correct. This is because community members themselves have severally commended the IOCs for the provision of critical social infrastructure like health centres, schools, electricity, etc., but that this fact is not reflected in the responses.

The LS made the point that the government always finds it convenient to shift blames for lack of development and crises in the communities to the IOCs and never publicly accept the fact that, apart from its constitutional role to develop the communities, it has a critical role to play in collaborating with the IOCs to ensure sustainable development of the OPCs. The LS also noted the fact that there are cases where some social projects completed by the IOCs are neither commissioned timely nor put into productive utilization. A good example of such projects is the Burma Rice Farm which was constructed by Agip in Bayelsa State and handed over to the State Government to manage in the year 2010. Sadly, the Burma Rice project, which is a 50-hectare industrial farm with a production capacity of approximately 21.05 metric tonnes of

grains per annum and a potential employment generation capacity of about 100 employees, was abandoned by the State Government shortly after commissioning and hand-over. Such lack of commitment on the part of the government with regards to an important private-public partnership effort geared towards the sustenance of social projects with the potentials of ensuring job creation, food security, and poverty alleviation in a remote oil producing community is not the best of political choices to make.

The foregoing notwithstanding, some of the LS members argued that given the level of abject poverty and utter neglect by the government in the NDR, the IOCs now understand that community investment is almost mandatory from a moral point of view, as it is practically impossible to justify making so much profits from such an impoverished environment without giving back. In this regard, the IOCs should advisedly view reputational advantage as an incentive to CSP because community development enhances relationships with communities and other stakeholders. The LS observed further that public opinion and pressure from civil society are useful in the mix because they pin-point shortcomings or areas where the IOCs are found wanting.

Regarding the overall impact of existing social responsibility investments on the benefiting communities, some of the LS members held that it would be difficult to assess how the interventions have positively contributed to the upliftment of the standard of living of the people in the NDR because the IOCs tend to consider their corporate goals over and above the communities' wellbeing. They went on to assert that the IOCs often give first consideration to their corporate goals and, therefore, plan CSP in a way that communities' needs are in sync with their corporate goals.

The LS noted that while it would be somewhat impossible to dismiss the influence of the government and politically exposed individuals in the society, it also behoves on the management of IOCs to endeavour to take principle-based actions regarding CSP. The LS also addressed the need for top company executives to refrain from taking operational advantage from CSP, as there should be a clear distinction between operational investments and CSP investments. Recording operational investments as CSP investments amounts to an unethical business conduct. However, the LS could not successfully address these action points within the period of the study due to obvious management implications.

*Thus, in answering the fifth research question on the perception of the OPCs regarding the main factors that influence the involvement of the IOCs in the social issues confronting their*

*stakeholder communities, the LS perceived that the IOCs may be influenced mainly by Government pressure, interest of top executives, pressure of general public opinion and pressure from special interest groups.*

### **6.3.6 Corporate Response Strategy**

From the interviews, it is clear that the OPCs perceived that the IOCs operate with a high level of impunity and only respond to their social responsibilities when the communities resort to ‘self-help’ or ‘arm-twisting’ by disrupting the operations of the IOCs. The quantitative study also confirmed that the response attitude of the IOCs to the negative effects of their operations in host communities is undesirable. On this point, a community leader in Amatu I community in Ekeremor Local Government Area of Bayelsa State responded to the interview as follows:

They don’t respond to issues until we mount pressure on them. As we speak, there was a Bonga spillage which occurred four years ago, and Shell denied responsibility. They called it a mystery spill. After a week or two, the company announced that they have tested the oil, and that the oil did not spill from their oilfield. So, no relief materials were provided to the community. We are still battling on that issue. So, with respect to issues of spillages, they are evasive and reactive. That Bonga oil spill they said was not from their facility, the communities also did their own tests with the samples. Right now, that is the bone of contention in the court. Who was responsible for the spill?

In his response a youths’ activist in Ikarama community, Okordia in Yenagoa Local Government Area of Bayelsa State made the following remarks:

Yes, sometimes they (the IOCs) also claim that they implement CRS activities without being pressurized or even without the occurrence of any negative effects. However, I will argue seriously on that, because I come from one of the oil producing communities. At least from my years of living in the community, I have also gotten to know certain strategies of the oil companies. I have also been following up with the community leadership from time. I know some of these issues. That is false. Like I said earlier, and I will keep saying, that virtually everything we have gotten from the oil companies is as a result of struggles and protests. Generally, their response strategy is very, very reactive.

After the LS members had carefully reviewed all the responses to the community interviews, one of the LS members commented as follows:

It will be right to say that most IOC's started from being reactive to being defensive and accommodative. They are all far from being proactive because, if they were, the number of cases of environmental degradation, pollution and restiveness in the Niger Delta would have reduced. The issue of the Ogoni clean-up is a clear case of reactive posture on the part of the IOCs, as they were very much aware of the level of pollution their activities had caused the communities, but rather waited until the communities protested.

Another LS member posted as follows:

Contrary to my previous stance on this forum, I kind of agree with the respondents from the community on this one. Multinational Oil Companies operating in the Niger Delta are not proactive in carrying out CSR activities. In most instances, they take a defensive or accommodative approach at best. Reason for this cannot be farfetched, after all, who likes to make extra spending when same can be saved or reinvested in operations! The trend seems like the IOCs only reluctantly perform CSR if arm-twisted to do so.

Things are however taking a slightly different turn these days with more companies seeing the need to be proactive in their approaches to implementing community development initiatives so as to prevent the incessant disruptions to operations as a result of community grievances and protests. In the long run, however, a better-structured framework has to be in place to forestall these misgivings and misunderstandings.

Another LS member had this to say:

I am in agreement with the Community respondents and the thoughts of the first post from a LS member that most IOCs in the Niger Delta are not proactive in handling CSR activities. They are usually on the defensive and accommodative mode. A retrospective look at the operations of IOCs would reveal that oil exploration and production activities started in the Niger Delta in the mid-1960s but without visible CSR activities (e.g. Oloibiri) till the 1980s. It is likely that there were little or no pressures from host communities and other groups within this period probably due to lack of awareness. In my view, profit motive and reliance on the JOA may have been responsible for the reluctance shown by the IOC on CSR activities then. The JV partners may also have taken advantage of the host Communities ignorance at that time.

The concept of CSR by IOC gained prominence in the Niger Delta as from the 1980s following agitations by host Communities, NGOs, Environmental/Interest Groups. While the IOCs have become conscious and greatly improved on CSR activities, the

perception of the host Communities that the IOCs have not done enough on CSR has not changed as represented by the Community responses. This may be due to the near total lack of development in the host Communities arising from the long period of neglect by Government and the IOCs that jointly exploit the oil resources from the area.

Whereas the IOCs cannot take the place of Government in the social and infrastructural development of the host communities, there is need to take a decisive position and be proactive in CSR activities having known the attitude of the Government, over time, concerning the development of host Communities. If faced with this scenario in a real-life situation, I would recommend the following:

1. Expenditures on CSR must be shared by all JV partners.
2. Make adequate budgetary provisions for CSR activities and ensure approval by JV partners.
3. Provide a template for Community/Government engagement on CSR
4. Proactively engage host communities/Government on CSR initiatives.
4. Keep to the agreed timeline on implementation of CSR projects.

Going by the above contributions and the deep conversation that ensued, the perception of the communities received significant support from the LS. Most importantly, the LS found that the IOCs are generally not proactive in their CSP, as they often adopt a reactive or defensive approach in their CSP. The LS noted that while communities may be aggrieved, wondering why IOCs cannot simply live up to their responsibilities rather than allow them to resort to protests or violence before taking social actions, IOCs have insisted that the primary responsibility of developing the communities is that of the Government.

Finally, the LS noted that it would be beneficial to both the OPCs and the IOCs for managers to be proactive in their response to CSP issues. Again, a number of action points were taken on this responsibility, namely: (1) the need to address cash call and budget issues, (2) the need for the communities to be aware that they also have a role to play in ensuring the timely delivery of CSP, and (3) the need for managers of the IOCs to be morally responsible in the manner they respond to issues concerning the communities. While the first two points were addressed during meetings with the communities, the third point was seen as human activity that should be handled internally and, accordingly, this was taken and adequately addressed during internal management meetings with encouraging feedback.

*Thus, in answering the sixth research question on how the OPCs perceive the response attitude of the IOCs regarding the negative effects of their operations in the stakeholder communities, the LS shared the perception that the IOCs are not proactive, but are generally defensive and reactive.*

## **6.4 The Reflection and Sensemaking Process**

### **6.4.1 Introduction**

In line with Shah & Corley (2006), the data collection for this study was rigorously carried out, and the LS members who were all managers directly experiencing the phenomenon of inquiry gave diverse interpretations of the data collected in a manner that was sensible to them. This brought to the fore the critical concern about the LS activities regarding how to arrive at clear actionable decisions on the issues involved given the diversity of knowledge, experience, viewpoints, and opinions amongst its members. In this regard, I leveraged my knowledge of the role of reflection and sensemaking as social processes in a complex system (Dooley, 1997; Weick, 1969).

Two capabilities of the scholar-practitioner that leavened my motivation in conducting the AR are my penchant for reflexive critique in my thinking process and this was introduced to the LS in our kick-off meeting. I shared with the LS how reflexivity has enabled me to display thoughtfulness and critical reflection by thinking about my own thinking process, minding my data, demonstrating optimism, exploring new concepts, taking into account the impact of emotional kinetics in the workplace, and fostering social capital via interpersonal relationship management (Day, 2000). Also shared with the LS was the fact that critical thinking and critical reflection transcend reflection (Schon, 1983; Reynolds, 1997; Mingers, 2000; Reynolds, 2011; Gold & Holman, 2001). While reflection means stepping back and learning to frame and reframe diverse interpretations of complex and ambiguous problems, critical reflection entails “putting the ‘C’ into reflection” (Rigg & Trehan, 2008, p. 375).

I had over the years reflected critically on my assumptions about my organisation. I had perceived my organisation as a non-learning organisation with a low level of change-readiness, and I had been sceptical about the appropriateness of carrying out AR within it. Most of the LS members shared this perception. However, as I shared with the LS, my optimistic attitude enabled me to make a virtue of necessity and that through critical reflection, I did not only improve my interpersonal practices but also moderated my assumptions about my organisation.

The guiding dictum in this regard was that “managers unable to command change in them cannot constructively change the conditions in which they command others” (Revens, 1982, p. 545). Thus, critical reflection on my beliefs, attitude, and biases which empowered me to proceed with the AR will power the LS in achieving the goal of the study.

Critical reflection enjoins leaders not to rest in their comfort zones (Kotter, 1996). So, the LS members came out of their comfort zones, adjusted their assumptions about our organisation and accepted the fact that we are all part of the problem to be resolved in this study. Also shared with the LS was the fact that critical reflection also empowered me to apply theoretical principles (i.e. Carroll’s, 1979; 1991 models) in the attempt to resolve the identified organisational challenges and, thereby, creating knowledge (Hughes, et al., 2009). Furthermore, the LS was made to realize that through critical reflection, a leader’s change depends largely on taking action based on learning, reflection, review, and planning for further action. This fact motivated the LS to think about how we would learn together and change, as well as being mindful of the responsibility to influence others in the LS to learn and change.

Sensemaking which was pioneered by Weick (1969) has been broadly described as the processes by which people try to understand complex and ambiguous issues or situations (Brown, et al., 2012; Weick, 1993; Weick, 1995). The issues investigated in this study are not only complex and ambiguous, but also not capable of being comprehended through monologue. Sensemaking within the context of this study began with the LS members scrutinising the perception of the communities on the issues involved in a dialogic dissection of the different interpretations given to the data. We needed to understand other members’ subjective meanings of the data before proceeding to the point where these meanings would shift and eventually coincided. This process involved interactions with one another within the LS, discussions/consultations with other employees, and critical reflection. Shared meanings gradually evolved as we began to favour, through reflexivity, one subjective meaning of the data over others. In this process, I guarded the LS against the pitfall of ‘sensegiving’, which is the process of influencing the sensemaking and meaning construction toward a desired reality (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991). In this regard, I neither provided guide nor vision in order to allow a seamless and non-orchestrated reflexivity and meaning making process to take place.

Sensemaking in this study was basically done through discourse because this process has been acknowledged as being significant in organizing and meaning creation (Brown, et al., 2015). Thus, while the communities’ responses to the interviews were their constructed ‘realities’ of



the phenomena of inquiry, the LS members also scripted their own versions of ‘realities’ through narratives based on their knowledge, skills, experiential learning, and critical reflection.

Meaning-making entails cognitive schema, an issue, and a link between cognitive schema and the issue (Ericson, 2001). Linking the issue with the schema which is known as ‘bracketing’ (Weick, 1979; 1995) implies that the researchers could only ascribe meaning to the issues under investigation because the facts of the issues are accessible to their intellects (Ericson, 2001). Ericson (2001) discussed four types of meanings – collective meaning, disparate meaning, fragmentary meaning, and enclave meaning and characterized them as follows: (1) a set of persons with homogenous cognitive profile and high bracketing capability may readily come away with *collective meaning* whereby meanings are finally shared in a manner that further discursive engagements cannot result in new meanings; (2) a set of persons with heterogeneous cognitive profile and high bracketing capability may readily come away with *disparate meaning* whereby there is no overlap amongst the meanings ascribed by different persons; (3) a set of persons with heterogeneous cognitive profile with low bracketing level readily produces *fragmentary meaning* whereby the relevant issue is not accessible to all for meaning to be ascribed; and (4) a set of persons with homogenous cognitive profile and low bracketing capability tends to produce *enclave meaning* whereby persons who bracket the key issues develop collective meaning, while persons who do not bracket the key issues do not ascribe any meaning to them. See figure below.

**High Bracketing**

Disparate Meaning	Collective meaning
Fragmentary meaning	Enclave meaning

**Low Bracketing**

Heterogeneous Group

Homogenous Group

**Cognitive Profile**

Source: *Ericson’s (2001) Ideal Types of Meaning*

The LS accepted Ericson’s (2001) forms of meanings as the theoretical planks for the reflection/sensemaking process in this study. It is pertinent to note that within the context of this study, the LS was considered a homogenous group, as it is a team of managers working in

the same organisation and from the same nationality – Nigerians (Watson, et al.,1993). The LS, therefore, had cultural uniformity and this defined the worldview differences of its members in a manner that enriched the reflection/sensemaking process. As Coll & Zalaquett (2008, p.279) aptly observed, “worldview differences are more culturally based than experience-driven...” Since all the LS members belong to the same organization, they have a similar understanding of their organization (the oil and gas industry in the country) and the entire stakeholder network as a system. Furthermore, the bracketing process in this study entailed intricate knowledge of the technicalities regarding the issues investigated and the various CSP rubrics discussed by Carroll (1979; 1991) and Holmes (1976). I shall now discuss the sensemaking and decision-making processes as they specifically relate to the six issues being interrogated in this study.

#### **6.4.2 Economic Responsibility**

Based on the community interview responses, the LS in answering the first research question shared the perception that the IOCs have significantly performed their economic responsibility to shareholders and JV Partners. In this case, a ‘collective meaning’ was ascribed to the issue by all members of the LS. This meant that further interactions or communicative engagements can occur without any re-interpretation of the meaning created, as there is overlap amongst the meanings ascribed to the issue (Smircich, 1983). This was as a result of shared values and clear understanding of how the oil and gas business works in the country.

#### **6.4.3 Legal Responsibility**

On the legal responsibility, the general perception of the communities was that the IOCs have failed in the discharge of this responsibility, while the perception of the LS was that the IOCs have not performed their legal responsibility in the area of compliance with environmental laws and regulation. From the narratives of the communities, two relevant issues came to the fore - the allegation of poor performance in MoUs and GMoUs commitments and environmental sustainability. While the LS ascribed collective meaning to the issue of commitment to MoUs and GMoUs, there was enclave meaning on the issue of environmental sustainability. This means that while all the LS members bracketed the issue of MoUs and GMoUs, some of the LS members did not bracket the legal implications on the issue of environmental sustainability and, therefore, did not ascribe any meaning to it. A minority of the LS members, based on their expertise and experience, knew that the IOCs were not fully in compliance with the regulations governing issues of environmental sustainability. Others

did not know that the alleged non-compliance portended ‘disaster waiting to happen,’ thereby giving rise to a “professional blind spot” (Weick, 1995, p. 113).

This disparity in comprehending the technical issues involved made the bracketing level to dip. Thus, while a majority of the LS members who did not bracket the environmental issues ascribed enclave meaning to the issue, those who did created collective meaning. Non-compliance with environmental management regulations has serious personnel safety and organizational implications. In this regard, the LS members were reminded of recent fatal oilfield fire incidents which, according to industry regulators and the narratives of some of the survivors, were caused by non-compliance with extant regulatory provisions. The LS reflected on this and, coupled with the earlier observation that the IOCs sometimes exploit weak and corrupt government institutions/officials to dodge legal responsibility, the meaning construction process was aligned. Thus, the researchers gradually favoured the collective meaning over the enclave meaning, thereby arriving at the shared perception that the IOCs have not significantly performed their legal responsibility in the area of compliance with environmental laws and regulation.

#### **6.4.4 Ethical Responsibility**

The responses of the community interviewees indicated that the perception of the OPCs is that the IOCs have failed in the discharge of their ethical responsibility, particularly regarding environmental issues. There was a significant alignment between the claims of the community interviewees and the outcome of the LS activities. Conducting business in an ethical manner is not too technical to understand and, therefore, the LS being a group of people with homogenous cognitive profile and high bracketing degree, ascribed a collective meaning. There was an overlap of assigned meanings amongst the different LS members on this responsibility. There were also shared values and shared understanding among the LS members of how things work in the oil industry, particularly regarding environmental protection. This resulted in the shared perception by the LS that the IOCs have failed in the performance of their ethical responsibility in the stakeholder communities.

#### **6.4.5 Philanthropic Responsibility**

From the interviews, the general perception of the communities was that the IOCs do not readily embark on philanthropic actions in the OPCs. There was an alignment between the meanings ascribed by the communities and the conclusion reached by the LS. However, the

sensemaking process was not a straightforward one, as the LS members approached the issue from different perspectives. While few LS members addressed the issue based on Carroll's (1979; 1991) rubrics, others provided equally rich but disparate arguments on the issue ranging from the wrong target of communities' aggression, the situation of the communities being exploited by the government rather than by the IOCs, to communities' wrong perception of ownership of mineral resources under the Nigerian law. Thus, although the LS is a homogenous group going by the clarity of Carroll's (1979; 1991) rubrics of the responsibility, the degree of bracketing was rather low. This was because only few LS members made reference to the rubrics applied in the assessment of the issue under interrogation. Since the LS was homogenous and the bracketing level was low, enclave meaning was ascribed to the issue. When enclave meaning occurs the persons who bracket the key issue create a collective meaning while those who do not the issue do not ascribe any meaning to it. When I drew the attention of the LS members to the relevant rubrics in the course of deliberations, it became clear that the majority views did not sprout from them. After critical reflection on this, the majority shifted their position and accepted the position of the minority that strictly referenced the rubrics of the issue of inquiry. Thus, the LS eventually favoured the collective meaning created by the minority as the shared view and this formed the basis of the shared perception by the LS that the IOCs have not significantly performed their philanthropic responsibility in the stakeholder communities.

#### **6.4.6 The Social Issues**

On this research question, the identified perception of the communities neither received a unanimous nor absolute support of the LS. While some of the LS members argued that the general perception of the communities did not reflect the reality on the ground because the IOCs have done a lot for the OPCs, others felt that given the level of abject poverty in the OPCs, community investment should be seen as a moral imperative.

The divergence of views leavened rich and wider perspectives in the LS discourse, thereby deepening the conversation. The LS members who canvassed their views with direct reference to the ten factors that can influence the involvement of the IOCs in CSP as identified by Holmes (1976) seemed to bracket the issues more than those who did not. The group of persons who bracketed the issues centred their contributions more on the specific factors influencing the involvement of the IOCs in social action such as government pressure, public opinion and pressure from civil society. Since not all LS members were able to bracket the issues, the

bracketing level can be said to be generally low. When bracketing is low in a homogenous group, enclave meaning is created, and when enclave meaning occurs those who bracket the issues create a collective meaning while those who do not bracket the issue do not ascribe any meaning to the issue. When the LS referred to the identified factors that influence the involvement of the IOCs in the social issues confronting the OPCs, it eventually favoured the collective meaning created by those who bracketed the issues. Thus, the collective meaning was accepted as the shared view and this led to the shared perception that Government pressure, pressure of general public opinion, pressure from civil societies and special interest groups are the main factors that influence the involvement of the IOCs in social issues.

#### **6.4.7 Response Strategy**

On this question, the general perception of the communities received the support of the LS, as the LS members unanimously shared the perception that the IOCs are generally not proactive in their response attitude. In this case, the LS can be said to be a homogenous group with a high bracketing cognitive profile. This is because the various reaction strategies – reactive, defensive, accommodating and proactive- were clear to all the LS members who equally made references thereto in the course of deliberations and consultations. Thus, a collective meaning was ascribed to the issue as there was an overlap of assigned meanings amongst the different LS members on the response attitude of the IOCs. There were also shared values and shared understanding among the researchers of how things work in the oil industry. This resulted in the shared perception that the response attitude of the IOCs regarding the negative effects of their operations is not proactive, but generally defensive and reactive.

#### **6.5 Summary of AR Findings/Actionable Decisions**

From the study, the following actionable points were highlighted by the LS as the way forward for better management of CSP:

1. IOCs to make adequate budgetary provisions for CSP activities and ensuring due approval by JV partners. This is to address concerns of lack of commitment to MoUs and GMoUs on the part of the IOCs, raised in the community stakeholders' interviews and corroborated by the LS which highlighted poor JV funding as the major challenge in this regard.

2. IOCs to provide a template on Community/NGO/Government engagement on CSP and to ensure proactive engagement protocol that guarantees inclusivity. This is to resolve community stakeholders' concerns, as expressed in the interviews, of the perceived failure of the IOCs to address the real social issues confronting the OPCs in a proactive manner. This actionable decision is to ensure social sustainability in the OPCs as well as improve the response attitude of the IOCs.
3. IOCs to address trust challenges by being transparent in dealings with communities in collaboration with NGOs that are trusted by the communities and keep to agreed timelines on the delivery of social projects and programmes. This decision is to resolve community stakeholders' concerns, as expressed in the interviews, of the perceived failure of the IOCs to be transparent in their dealings with the OPCs and corroborated by the LS. Transparency will go along in addressing the issue of ethical accountability.
4. IOCs to ensure continual engagement of local communities, free of coercion or manipulation with a view to re-orientating the people about the different roles and responsibilities of the IOCs, Government, and Communities regarding the fact that CSP is voluntary or discretionary while Government's responsibility for the development of the communities is Constitutional. This is to resolve allegations of poor communication and frequent resort to the use of the military/armed policemen by the IOCs whenever there are conflicts, as indicated in the community interviews. Following the communities' allegations, the LS highlighted the need for such engagement to ensure proper enlightenment and understanding of the different responsibilities of the community stakeholders, the IOCs, and the government.
5. IOCs to collectively develop industry-wide standards for ethical inter-company collaboration and to create an independent mechanism for the monitoring of industry activities and the enhancement of peer review processes. This is to address the lack of industry-wide standards for CSP and, consequently, the lack of healthy competition as indicated in the quantitative analysis.
6. IOCs to enhance collaboration with Government Regulatory Agencies, NGOs and other civil society groups on environmental management and other industry-specific challenges and to commit to taking responsibility for issues of environmental violation. This actionable decision is to ensure environmental sustainability in the OPCs. From

the community stakeholders' interviews, the quantitative data and the AR analyses, this study found that issues of environmental violation are the most common ethical challenges the OPCs suffer.

7. IOCs to enhance delivery of energy as key part of CSP to stimulate the local economy and to support economic activities that will reduce the level of poverty in their areas of operation. As indicated in the community stakeholders' interviews, access to energy is one of the critical social issues that the IOCs need to address in their areas of operation. This point was also highlighted by some of the LS members during the AR analyses. This actionable decision is, therefore, to ensure social sustainability as well as tackle poverty alleviation in the OPCs.
8. IOCs to engage the services of independent bodies to carry out social context and needs analyses in host communities before embarking on any new project. This actionable decision is aimed at mapping the real social issues the IOCs are required to tackle in every OPC. The use of independent bodies to carry out the analyses is to avoid situations whereby the IOCs may consider operational advantages derivable from social infrastructure, as this was clearly identified in the community interviews, the quantitative data, as well as the AR analyses.
9. IOCs to undertake proper social risk assessments, in addition to the regular EIA, of the relevant area of the Niger Delta environment and identify appropriate mitigation measures before embarking on any new project. This decision was based on the need to address specific social issues such as internal displacement, loss of income and revenue, other forms of inequalities that were identified in the study as some of the negative externalities of the operations of the IOCs.
10. IOCs to consider values-based change paradigm that will guarantee ethical accountability. In this regard, the establishment of dedicated Ethical Departments by the IOCs to monitor the way business is conducted, and the introduction of regular ethical training for managers will be helpful. This decision is aimed at addressing the pervasive issue of lack of ethical accountability which was found in this study. The qualitative and quantitative data, as well as the AR analyses in this study all indicated that the IOCs have not satisfactorily performed their ethical responsibilities, hence the need for this actionable decision.

## **6.6 Action Implementation Report**

In the course of the LS deliberations, some of the actionable decisions reached were implemented successfully, while others required the approval of top level management to implement. For actions that required management approval to take, appropriate requests were made in those regards and while some of such requests received positive feedback from management, others were still under consideration as at the time of the study.

It is important to note that the most important area the LS succeeded in bringing about change was that of budgeting and cash call function. The LS members who were involved in budget management in their respective departments and I (as the budget and contract manager of my division) brought our learning outcome to bear on the budget preparation and performance defense process in the office. The 2017 budget proposals were finalized and defended before JV partners in February, 2017 and some of the LS members and I participated in several management meetings on budget matters. At the budget planning and review meetings, we had individually and collectively canvassed the need to include all CSP actions in the annual work programme of the relevant departments with realistic cost estimates of line items and adequate preparation with sufficient evidence to convince the JV Partners to approve the budget. This is important because in the past there had been cases where communities' felt needs were ignored and other 'projects of convenience' were rather implemented by the company because there was no budget to carry the projects and programmes that were identified as priority needs to the communities. There were also cases where costs arising from CSP actions that were not included in the approved budget were rejected by JV partners. Sequel to the sustained campaigns, the rate of successful budget approvals by partners for CSP spend was reasonably higher than previous years.

The overall implication of the above success is that availability of funds is the key to successful planning and implementation of social actions. Given the required funding, desired and agreed CSP initiatives will be timeously planned and implemented by the IOCs in accordance with global best practices and the OPCs would equally show commensurate appreciation by demonstrating reciprocal responsibility to ensure the safety and sustainability of the social projects as well as create the enabling environment for the IOC to operate.



## **6.7.0 Validity and Reliability of the AR**

### **6.7.1 Iterative Processes of the AR**

The iterative processes of the AR also helped in ensuring validity and reliability of the AR analyses. All the components of CSP were problematized. This is in line with the essence of asking questions in AR which has been emphasized by various AR practitioners. For instance, Mumford (1996) introduced the learning equation as  $Q1+P+Q2=L$ . This author asserted that the end result of productive and effective learning in organizations is to solve real-life managerial problems and that the learning process commences by asking questions (Q1). The AR part of this research utilized the responses from community participants to interview questions as the quantitative aspect of the research was done simultaneously with the AR which made it impracticable for LS members to have the quantitative results for deeper investigation. Nevertheless, the LS members were all managerial staff with adequate knowledge and experience on the topic of inquiry (P). Every LS member brought their knowledge to the table for collective and collaborative learning. After heated brainstorming and incisive scrutiny of the questions by LS members, a shared view of the questions was arrived at (Q2) for management action and appropriate directives. Thereafter, appropriate actions were planned and carried out. Feedback on actions taken was again reviewed by the LS with further iterations where necessary.

### **6.7.2 My Role as an Insider Researcher**

Just as Coghlan (2001) observed, my task as an insider researcher was bolstered by my pre-understanding of my organization, while the duality of role and organizational politics both posed challenges to me. Coghlan (2001) also stated that insider researchers are often caught in the web of 'loyalty tugs', 'behaviour claims' and 'identification dilemmas'. These issues did not only affect me as the researcher but were also partly responsible for the exit of three of the learning set participants in the study.

The role of the scholar-practitioner is to research into and find solution to complex and ill-defined organisational problems. The scholar-practitioner discharges this role based on his professional merit grounded in theory, research and experiential learning, and sustained by attitude (personal values, political commitments and ethical behaviour), with commitment to innovation, welfare/safety of colleagues, contextualizing social solutions, application of reflexivity, and creating new knowledge in a collaborative/relational learning method through

communicative engagements. Mumford, et al. (2002) opined that knowledge and skills are capabilities honed through education and experience such as (1) job assignments that provide exposure to novel, challenging problems; (2) mentoring; (3) appropriate training; and (4) hands-on experience in solving related problems. In the course of my working years in my organisation, I had job assignments that exposed me to wicked problems such as the one under inquiry in this study. In addition to a good number of training programmes that I attended, I also had the benefit of being mentored by my superiors in the office, and hands-on experience in the resolution of challenging workplace problems. Thus, I was able to effectively facilitate the LS activities by bringing to bear my theoretical grounding, research experience, experiential learning and positive attitude.

In line with Mumford, et al's (2002) view, my knowledge of my identified workplace problem and my managerial role, my knowledge of people in the organisation, and my knowledge of the organisation all came to play in this study. My knowledge of the problem of inquiry empowered me to define the problem and gather the right data, and this process of problem definition and data gathering made it clearer to me that I am part of the problem and the problem is part of me. My knowledge of people in my organization empowered me to build integrity-based relationships and to communicate with the LS members in a collaborative and experiential learning method. The LS members accepted to participate in this study, in the midst of their very tight official schedules and family/personal commitments, based on relationships so built and their respect for me. Accordingly, my ability to assemble and manage the LS of seven members was based on the social capital I was able to develop over the years as a scholar-practitioner. Furthermore, knowledge of my organization and its level of change-readiness empowered me to assess the risks involved in the process, the prospects of accomplishing an AR, as well as solicit support and knowing how best to formulate action plans.

By virtue of my official responsibilities in my organization, I am knowledgeable and experienced in the problem of inquiry. I have also been involved in previous attempts at resolving the identified problem. Nevertheless, I did not descend into the arena of the LS deliberations with my pre-conceived ideas, presumptions/assumptions, and experience in order not to influence any decision taken on any of the issues of inquiry. My major roles were to facilitate and coordinate the LS activities, and motivate LS members for active participation and learning, as well as drive change. As Raelin (2008, p. 185) rightly observed, "the root definition of facilitation is to make easy: thus, group facilitators provide assistance, not control,

making it easy for the group to do its work”. In this regard, it took a lot of persuasive telephone calls, emails to and one-to-one discussions with LS members to post their initial responses and follow-on posts on the relevant topics timeously. I made sure that required clarifications on the issues involved were provided and LS members were encouraged to freely express themselves and “learn by themselves and from each other” (Raelin, 2008, p.203) without fear of any negative implications on their career. This neutrality, assistance, and motivational support engendered democratic ethos, being one of the hallmarks of AR, which characterized the LS activities throughout the period of the AR, thereby promoting validity and reliability in the research.

The need to ensure democracy in the LS activities was to allow participants explore themselves and be real, so as to elicit their individual learning styles. Accordingly, participants were observed adopting diverse learning styles ranging from Activist, Reflector, and Theorist to Pragmatist (Raelin, 2008). Furthermore, in line with Jenkinson, et al.’s (2013) advocacy for a decision making process that entails the adoption of multiple thinking styles, participants were also observed demonstrating the De Bono Group Thinking Hats – white hat (objectivity and neutrality), red hat (emotions, gut feelings), black hat (negative perspectives, pessimism), yellow hat (positivism, optimism), green hat (creativity, exploring alternative views) and blue hat (thinking things through, thinking about thinking) as they brainstormed. This greatly enhanced the process of learning and knowledge creation in a democratic mode.

Critical learning pitfalls I encouraged the LS to guard against in the course of deliberations were common judgemental heuristics and traps on decision making, such as ‘groupthink’ (Janis, 1973; Leavitt, 1974), bounded awareness and paradoxes (Bazerman & Moore, 2008; Weick, 1985), and vicious circles (Bazerman & Samuelson, 1983; Drummond, 2001).

A crucial aspect of the LS activities had to do with members’ individual beliefs, assumptions, biases, and defense mechanisms. LS members all had their own beliefs and assumptions about our organisation, but the introduction of critical thinking into the deliberation process ensured that these potential decision-making errors were guarded against (Argyris, 1985; Coghlan, 1994). LS members were encouraged to moderate their beliefs, assumptions, and biases and participate with open minds and accommodate the viewpoints of colleagues in order to fodder collaborative learning and knowledge creation. LS members were also advised to seize the opportunity of the research to subject their individual beliefs and assumptions to scrutiny by

colleagues with a view to moderating them where necessary. By and large, 'individual baggage' did not significantly affect the process of learning in the LS.

Furthermore, in line with Caldwell's (2003) four models of change agency - consultancy, management, leadership, and team - the LS played the role of the team model of change agency. Thus, LS members saw themselves collectively as change agents. Change resistance which was prevalent in my organisation was of serious concern to the LS, but the LS was made to realize and accept the fact that resistance should be seen as an important component of the change process rather than as something negative (Thomas & Hardy, 2011). Consequently, LS members became more primed to address the specific issues for investigation with a view to bringing about the desired change in those areas. Individually, LS members saw themselves as leaders and change agents and, collectively, the LS saw itself as a 'Change Team'. This provided the needed motivation for the LS to push through their actionable decisions for management's review and approval.

## **6.8 Conclusion**

The LS deeply addressed the six research questions and made useful conclusions. The LS co-generated some rich knowledge that led to the implementation of some changes. Furthermore, it is pertinent to put on record that the LS members were quite primed and motivated in the conduct of the study, particularly bearing in mind the learning and changes that it sought to bring forth. However, the AR was somewhat stifled by the 'climate' of the research organisation which is characterized by management-mandated routines and stability (Kilduff & Doherty, 2000), the traditional pyramid-hierarchy (Pauchant & Milroff, 1998), with a top-down flow of communication, responsibilities and inertia/momentum (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999). With a typical 'command and control' form of administration in the company, top management practically issues instructions and directives that leave little or no room for dialogue and contribution. The organisation does not surface an open system, but rather Barker's (1993) 'iron cage' control and task-driven system. Only the CEO or his delegate can speak for the organisation, and non-compliance with this tradition is seen as acts of resistance and disloyalty. And such organisational climate breeds silence, cynicism, low motivation to change, low individual and organizational learning opportunities, flattery, opinions of conformity, as well as low level of individual and organizational development. The implication of the foregoing on this study was the lack of freedom to take the appropriate actions and effect desired changes.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN**

### **7.0 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

#### **7.1 Introduction**

The objective of this chapter is to highlight, through an integrative discussion of the various research results, how the research questions have been answered in this study. The chapter commences with a discussion of the research results and how they answered the research questions. This is followed by a presentation of some concluding considerations. The chapter also presents some important recommendations for better CSP management, based on the results of the research. Also presented in this chapter are the research implications for theory and practice, learning from the study and managerial implications, and limitations and suggestions for future research.

#### **7.2 Discussion**

##### **7.2.1 Economic Responsibility**

In answering the first research question, the interview responses indicated the OPCs' perception that the IOCs perform their economic responsibility to shareholders and JV Partners. The LS also shared in this perception. Thirdly, the quantitative results indicated the OPCs' perception that on economic responsibility the IOCs find the following criteria important: (1) maximization of earnings per share, (2) the consideration that being described as a profitable firm means being successful, (3) maintaining a high level of operating efficiency, and (4) commitment to being as profitable as possible. Conversely, the OPCs perceived that the IOCs do not place much importance on the need to maintain a strong competitive position.

From the foregoing results, the OPCs' perception is that the IOCs are overly profit-oriented, as they are perceived to privilege financial gains and operating efficiency over and above the need to maintain a strong competitive position. This, perhaps, accounts for the lack of uniform standards in the policies/practices and evaluation of CSP in the NDR. The absence of healthy competition amongst the IOCs, in my view, could discourage productive peer-review and industry-level collaboration which could have gone a long way in enhancing the quality of CSP. Due to lack of competition, some of the IOCs may not pay needed attention to the quality of their CSP. Furthermore, the perceived lack of competition may also encourage the

duplication of social projects in some communities which would be sheer misapplication of scarce resources that do not optimally satisfy the needs of the communities. The perceived lack of competition also seems to negate the business case argument that CSP fosters competitive advantage for firms (Carroll, 2016; Motilewa & Worlu, 2015). CSP should incentivise competitive advantage and, I argue further, that a healthy competition amongst the IOCs in CSP will not only be advantageous, but may also engender sustainability of social projects in the stakeholder communities.

From the interviews, the OPCs expressed their displeasure that they not enjoy economic benefits from the IOCs as part of CSP and that this actually makes them feel expropriated and alienated in the scheme of the oil and gas business in their communities. In response to this, the LS mulled the idea of enhanced patronage of local contractors by the IOCs in line with the provisions of the NOGICD Act, 2010. This was taken up successfully with the management of the research organisation.

In my view, the participation of local contractors is a step in the right direction. But it may not fully satisfy the yearnings and aspirations of the people regarding economic benefits derivable from oil and gas business. It may surface a somewhat disparate impact. The major reason for this argument is that the chances of the OPCs to key into the value chain of the oil and gas business may be impeded by three imperatives, namely: (1) the lack of robust financial and technical capacity of local contractors, (2) challenges of contractual due process requirements such as awarding of contracts to the lowest bidder, and (3) stipulations of the NOGICD Act, 2010 such as the principle of ‘first consideration’ to indigenous contractors, even though the expression ‘indigenous contractors’ is not limited to contractors from the OPCs. The implication of this is that contractors from the OPCs have to compete with more experienced and more capable contractors from the rest of the country.

In conclusion, the study addressed some of the misconceptions that had, in the past, often exacerbated mistrust and precipitated violence and operational disruptions in the industry regarding the pursuit of economic benefits. Notably, the right to engage in a private business enterprise with the ultimate view of making profits being a fundamental right, the ownership of mineral resources and the role of government in community development being constitutional issues were both handled to the satisfaction of some of the study communities. The study also adequately addressed the need for the OPCs to be provided with more opportunities to key into the service value chain of the operations of the IOCs.

### **7.2.2 Legal Responsibility**

In answering the second research question, the interview results indicated the OPCs' perception that the IOCs have not significantly performed their legal responsibility. The LS also shared in this perception in the area of compliance with environmental laws and regulations. Thirdly, the quantitative results indicated the OPCs' perception that the IOCs find the following criteria on legal responsibility important: (1) corporations to fulfil their legal obligations, (2) to act in a manner consistent with expectations of government, and (3) to provide goods and services that meet minimum legal requirements. Conversely, the OPCs perceived that the IOCs do not place much importance on the following criteria: (1) to comply with federal, state, and local regulations, and (2) to be a law-abiding corporate citizen.

The LS shared the perception of the OPCs that the IOCs have failed in their legal responsibility in the area of compliance with environmental laws and regulations, and the quantitative results showing that the IOCs are perceived to neither place much importance in complying with federal, state, and local regulations, nor be law-abiding corporate citizens corroborated this finding. The quantitative results also indicated the OPCs' perception that the IOCs failed in this responsibility even though they are fully aware that they have legal obligations to fulfil. Some of the LS members attempted to attribute this perceived failure to operational challenges ranging from lack of counterpart funding by JV partners, security concerns in the region, to the volume/frequency of reported oil spillage cases. The AR analyses also revealed that there is weak regulation in the industry which, in my view, exacerbates the situation. From the foregoing, there is evidence to show that the major areas of the legal responsibilities which the IOCs are perceived to have failed to perform satisfactorily are: (1) compliance with environmental laws and regulations, and (2) being law-abiding corporate citizens.

### **7.2.3 Ethical Responsibility**

In answering the third research question, the interview results indicated the OPCs' perception that the IOCs have not significantly performed their ethical responsibility. The LS also shared this perception. Thirdly, the quantitative results indicated the OPCs' perception that the IOCs find only two out of the five criteria on ethical responsibility important, namely: (1) to recognize and respect societal ethical moral norms, and (2) to perform in a manner consistent with societal ethical norms. Conversely, the OPCs perceived that the IOCs do not place much importance on the following criteria: (1) that good citizenship be defined as doing what is expected morally and ethically, (2) the need to prevent ethical norms from being compromised

to achieve corporate goals, and (3) the need to know that corporate integrity and ethical behaviour go beyond simple compliance with laws and regulations.

The interview responses also showed the OPCs' perception that the IOCs often compromise ethical norms to achieve corporate goals, and this is corroborated by the quantitative results. The LS also shared the OPCs' perception that the lack of environmental accountability is the most notable ethical challenge facing the IOCs. These findings resonate with Carroll's (2016) assertion that environmental sustainability is one of the most frequently encountered ethical issues. The implication of the foregoing findings is that some of the matters arising from the literature review, particularly the claim of oil-induced environmental challenges which have negatively impacted the productivity capacity of the oil producing communities (Akpomuvie, 2011; Akpomuvie, 2008; Edoho, 2008) seem to be validated. The land and waters which have, for over generations, been the economic mainstay of the OPCs have been rendered unproductive and hazardous due to perceived poor environmental management strategies and practices. Given the perceived abysmal performance of this responsibility by the IOCs as evident in the research results, it is germane to reiterate the importance of ethical accountability being the core of the normative aspect of the stakeholder concept which enjoins that stakeholders should be treated on the basis of ethical and moral principles (Donaldson & Preston, 1995).

#### **7.2.4 Philanthropic (Discretionary) Responsibility**

In answering the fourth research question, the interview results indicated the OPCs' perception that the IOCs have not satisfactorily performed their philanthropic responsibility. The LS also shared this perception. Thirdly, the quantitative results indicated the OPCs' perception that the only criterion among the five that the IOCs consider important on philanthropic responsibility is the provision of assistance to private and public educational institutions. Conversely, the OPCs perceived that the IOCs do not consider the following criteria important: (1) to perform in a manner consistent with the philanthropic and charitable expectations of society, (2) to assist in community wellbeing, (3) that managers and employees participate in voluntary and charitable activities within their local communities, and (4) to assist voluntarily those projects that enhance a community's quality of life.

From the various results of the study, it can be deduced that the general perception is that most of the social actions initiated by the IOCs are the results of coercive actions taken by the communities to press demands for developmental projects and programmes. This, however,



does not impugn the point emphasized by some of the LS members who argued that the communities have mistakenly conflated two sets of community development responsibilities – CSP versus the constitutional responsibility of government.

Going strictly by Carroll's (1991) rubrics of philanthropic responsibility, I wish to submit that the perception of the OPCs that the IOCs have totally failed in this responsibility may not be absolutely correct. Rather, my thoughts are that the IOCs are engaged in strategic philanthropy instead of altruistic philanthropy, as discussed by Saiia, et al. (2003). This is because the IOCs tend to engage in philanthropic activities particularly when certain strategic benefits are derivable from such initiatives. This perhaps has credence from the quantitative results which indicated the OPCs' perception that the IOCs neither attach as much importance to assist in community wellbeing nor assist voluntarily those projects that enhance a community's quality of life.

In terms of what the AR achieved in this aspect of the study regarding possible change in the management of philanthropic responsibility, it is worthwhile to mention that the LS addressed three key action points in this study, namely: (1) need for proper social risk assessment of the Niger Delta environment and the identification of appropriate mitigation measures; (2) need for effective grievance procedure; and (3) the role of JV partners and cash call issues. These action points were addressed within the context of this study with positive impact and feedback.

### **7.2.5 The Social Issues**

Regarding social issues, the results of the various aspects of the study indicated that the IOCs' involvement in social issues is perceived to be influenced by a number of the factors discussed by Holmes (1976) and that the IOCs have failed to address the real social issues involved. The quantitative results showed the OPCs' general perception that the IOCs' involvement in social issues may be determined by government pressure, interest of top executives, public relations value of social action, pressure of general public opinion, and matching of a social need to corporate skill, need, or ability to help, whilst the AR results showed the main factors as Government pressure, interest of top executives, pressure of general public opinion and pressure from special interest groups. The quantitative studies also revealed that 'seriousness of social need' was perceived the least possible factor. This corroborates the interview responses which indicated the OPCs' perception that the real social issues confronting them are not being addressed by the IOCs. Furthermore, the number 2 factor ('interest of top

executives’) being an important factor arising from the quantitative results aligns with the community interviews where some of the interviewees claimed that the IOCs often provide infrastructural development, particularly in the form of roads or bridges, in the OPCs if they (the IOCs) stand to derive strategic operational advantage from such projects. The number 2 factor is also supported by the findings of the AR that the IOCs are often perceived to give first consideration to their corporate goals and plan community investment in a manner that communities’ developmental needs are in sync with their operational goals. The community interviews also indicated the OPCs’ perception that government pressure, pressure of general public opinion and pressure from special interest groups are perceived as key factors that influence the involvement of the IOCs in social issues.

In my view, going by the visible level of IOCs’ contribution to infrastructural development in the OPCs in the NDR, it would be rather too absolute to perceive that they have totally failed in this regard. The contributions of the IOCs to community development through MoUs and GMoUs resonate with Tracey, et al’s (2005, p.327) suggestion of “sustainable form of intervention involving long-term commitments to communities”. While the sustainability of most of the social initiatives may be questionable, a situation which cannot be solely attributed to the IOCs, the only visible forms of infrastructural development in the OPCs have been provided by the IOCs. While the attention of the government seems to be focused on developing the cities, the developmental needs of the OPCs have been left for the IOCs who now find themselves at the mercy of the communities.

It may be recalled that the literature review in this study disclosed three key issues - social sustainability, environmental sustainability, and poverty alleviation – as the critical social issues confronting the OPCs. From the community interviews, these same issues were among those identified as the critical social issues confronting the OPCs. I had earlier highlighted how the research IOC has invested hugely in both hard and soft projects to address the foregoing issues in its areas of operation in the research State. But the overall impact of these actions has not been significantly noticed in the communities, as there is still widespread illiteracy and poverty in the host communities. Furthermore, social issues such as internal displacement and other social inequalities, which also precipitate poverty, appear not to have been adequately addressed. Thus, going by the aforementioned ‘infrastructure-environmental-poverty alleviation’ framework of social issues, the research IOC, like many others, need to address the felt social issues confronting the OPCs.

### **7.2.6 Response Strategy**

In answering the sixth research question, the interview results indicated the OPCs' perception that the IOCs are generally defensive and reactive, and not proactive in their response. The LS also shared this perception. Thirdly, the quantitative results indicated the OPCs' perception that the IOCs find only the following two out of the four criteria on response attitude important: (1) to adopt strategies that enable them escape the responsibility that comes with the negative effects of their activities (REACTIVE), and (2) to ensure that extant legal and ethical frameworks protect the company from taking responsibility for the negative effects of their operations (DEFENSIVE). Conversely, the perception of the OPCs is that the IOCs are neither ACCOMMODATIVE nor PROACTIVE in their response to the negative effects of their activities in the stakeholder communities.

The community interviews also indicated the perception that the IOCs only honour their responsibilities when the OPCs resort to violence, which means that the IOCs are reactive in their response attitude. This position received the support of the LS. It can, therefore, be concluded that the perception of the OPCs on the response attitude of the IOCs is that the IOCs are generally defensive and reactive. This finding seems to be validated by the poor corporate responsiveness in Nigeria that Wheeler, et al. (2002) lamented about.

### **7.3 Concluding Considerations**

From the findings of the study, the OPCs' perception is that out of the four categories of CSR the IOCs were found to be responsive only in economic responsibility. Accordingly, the IOCs were perceived to be found wanting in the other three responsibilities – legal, ethical, and philanthropic. Furthermore, the OPCs' perception is that the real social issues confronting them have not been adequately addressed, while the response attitude of the IOCs is generally defensive and reactive. Thus, the 'rhetoric' versus 'reality' gap identified in the literature review actually exists as confirmed by the findings of this study. Therefore, going by the OPCs' perception, the IOCs have failed in many aspects of their CSP, based on the conceptual models applied in the study.

With reference to the 'infrastructure-environmental-poverty alleviation' framework of social issues adopted in this study, I wish to conclude that while there is also evidence from the study to show that the IOCs have contributed significantly towards the provision of social projects in the stakeholder communities, same cannot be said of environmental sustainability and

poverty alleviation. Furthermore, notwithstanding the declared investments in social projects in the communities, during the interview process it was alleged that there are many substandard or abandoned community development projects in the OPCs across the state, while some of those completed such as health centres and large industrial farms that would have generated employment opportunities and ensured food security are not put into the needed use due to lack of commitment on the part of the state government.

As stated above, this study found that the OPCs perceive that the CSP policies and practices of the research IOC are not as effective as expected compared to the declared investments on account of non-sustainability of social infrastructure, the ineffectiveness of strategies for tackling environmental degradation and poverty issues. There is, therefore, a dire need for paradigm change all the way from the CSR model currently practiced, consideration of the social issues involved, to the response strategies. If the IOCs do not change their current CSP strategies and practices, there will be little or no difference in the perception of the OPCs even if the social investments are doubled. In other words, it is not about the quantum of investments alone, but more about the policies and practices. Smaller quantum of social investments could elicit a different perception and yield better results if the policies and practices are efficient.

It is important to note, however, that from the LS deliberations the IOCs have also advanced valid reasons for the perceived failures which range from community-induced environmental pollution, poor funding from JV partners to poor project performance by community-nominated contractors. Furthermore, the unwholesome activities of miscreants who engage in oil theft and illegal oil refining exacerbate the already bad condition of the environment. Likewise, some of the community-nominated contractors may abandon community development projects after receiving advance or milestone payments for the contracts or outrightly deliver poor projects that end up decrepit even before commissioning.

Nevertheless, it is my view that the IOCs have a lot to gain by taking a mindful look at Carroll's pyramid and the other dimensions of responsiveness and leverage the potential advantages they offer. Apart from the business case for CSP, the pyramid surfaces wholesome characteristics that will yield insight to better CSP management. Carroll (2016), while making some clarifications on the pyramid, discussed these characteristics as: (1) ethics being inherent in all the responsibilities, (2) tensions and trade-offs, (3) the pyramid's integrated and unified whole, (4) its sustainable stakeholder framework, and (5) its global applicability and use in diverse contexts. It will be beneficial to highlight how these clarifications have impacted this study.

### **7.3.1 Ethics Permeates the Pyramid**

Even though ethical responsibility is a stand-alone responsibility, ethics still cut across all the other responsibilities (Smith, 2002). For the economic responsibility category, capitalism dictates that it is ethically appropriate that owners and JV partners of businesses be entitled to a return on their investments. In the area of legal responsibility, most laws and regulations were made on account of some ethical considerations. For instance, environmental laws and regulations were made out of the ethical reasoning that it is appropriate to protect the natural environment. In terms of philanthropic responsibility, firms are expected to be motivated by ethics or altruism in their CSP. From the foregoing, it is clear that the IOCs need not only consider the business case of CSP, but, most importantly, to deem CSP an ethical imperative and, by so doing, change the narrative in the justification for CSP.

### **7.3.2 Tensions and Trade-Offs**

The management of CSP involves a lot of tensions and trade-offs, notable of which was highlighted by Carroll (2016) as that of ‘cutting corners’ versus making long-term plans. As was presented in Chapter Six of this thesis, the tendency to cut corners was evident from the interview results and the LS deliberations of this study. In my view, if the IOCs would choose to be guided by ethical imperatives in the conduct of their business, there would be no difficulties in trying to resolve tensions and trade-offs positively.

### **7.3.3 The Pyramid’s Integrated and Unified Whole**

There had been misconceptions about the hierarchical nature of the pyramid. However, based on Carroll’s (2016) clarifications, the IOCs are not expected to discharge their social responsibilities in a sequential or hierarchical way or any other way that may be considered beneficial to them because. As was presented in Chapter Six of this thesis, the general perception is that the tendency of the IOCs has always been to start from the base of the pyramid by considering what operational advantages they stand to derive from CSP. Furthermore, rather than yielding priority to the base of the pyramid, the IOCs should aspire for total social responsibility which was mathematically defined by Carroll (2016, p. 6) as: “Economic Responsibility + Legal Responsibility + Ethical Responsibility + Philanthropic Responsibility = Total Social Responsibility”.

### **7.3.4 The Pyramid's Sustainable Stakeholder Framework**

Within the context of this study, economic responsibility impacts shareholders, JV partners, and employees, while legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities all impact the communities directly. The IOCs are expected to see social responsibilities as long-term obligations which are dynamic, adaptable, and focused on both the present and future generations. The LS deliberations in this study revealed common leadership styles of CEOs such as 'situational management', whereby IOCs tend to 'cut corners' by collaborating with their so-called 'friends of the company', instead of accredited community leaders, for short-term gains. In my view, community relations engagements are expected to be powered by evidence-based narratives and principle-based actions.

### **7.3.5 The Pyramid's Global Applicability and Use in Diverse Contexts**

The traditional notion had been that Carroll's models were only suitable for application in Europe and have different relevance in other climes. Viser (2006), in particular, found that in Africa and other developing countries the priority of firms is at the base of Carroll's pyramid due to certain misconceptions about CSP. The literature reviewed (Tuodolo, 2009) and the interviews conducted in this study indicated that some of the IOCs tend to display double standards in environmental management. This practice amounts to ethical manoeuvring in a negative way. In my view, it is an unethical business conduct for an IOC to view CSP differently in Africa, as it will be hugely beneficial in the long run for all IOCs to leverage the global applicability of Carroll's models.

From the foregoing, it can be concluded that the major challenge the IOCs critically need to surmount in the pursuit of CSP is ethical accountability. This conclusion aligns with both the literature reviewed (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Onweazu, 2012) and the empirical evidence produced in this study. In particular, the conclusion resonates with Masuch's (1978) emphasis that "neither Devine Will, nor legal statutes, nor the assemblage of architectural artefacts is sufficient to keep such systems alive...Human activity determines the character and behaviour of social systems". And acceptable standards of human activity in any society are a function of ethical and moral principles. Thankfully, the rubrics of ethical responsibility and management morality have all been clearly defined by Carroll (1979; 1991) for the IOCs to adopt for a values-based change paradigm.

## **7.4 Recommendations**

Bridging the ‘rhetoric’ versus ‘reality’ gap in CSP can only be achieved if and when the IOCs decide to undertake a paradigm shift from their current CSP strategies and practices to incorporate the management of ethical and moral principles into their core business, rather than continuing to practice ingenious ethical manoeuvring tactics which can only offer short-term gains. Furthermore, in measuring success, firms should take into account the extent to which they have performed in ethical accountability, and not primarily by the volume of profits they make. And in order to achieve and sustain such transformation, the IOCs should also consider ethics training wherein managers would be exposed to the virtue of critically exploring their own values with a view to aligning them with the established management morality principles.

The quantitative studies also revealed that seriousness of social need was ranked the least possible factor that influences the involvement of the IOCs in CSP, meaning that the critical needs of the communities may not be receiving priority attention. It is recommended that giving priority to seriousness of community needs should be the bedrock of CSP planning.

This study also found that reliance on government commitment in the timely commissioning and utilization of social infrastructure has also hampered the successes that would have been achieved with the declared investments. From the foregoing, it may not be out of place to say that the government has not adequately played its role as a development collaborator in Bayelsa State. For this reason, the IOCs need a paradigm shift to seek collaboration with NGOs trusted by the communities to work out modalities of delivering sustainable social projects as well as addressing environmental degradation and poverty alleviation issues. This is in line with one of the findings of the AR analyses.

Regarding sustainable community development practice in line with the position of the World Bank, I am in support of the Akassa Development Project (ADP) currently practiced in the Brass Local Government Area of Bayelsa State. Frynas (2005) and Egbe & Paki (2011) have both held that the ADP epitomizes the positive impact of sustainable community development as well as represents a workable model for all IOCs and external donors in the Niger Delta. The ADP is funded by an IOC (Statoil) in collaboration with an NGO which consults the people and carries out needs assessments on regular basis, thereby adopting the bottom-up self-driven approach in developmental initiatives. The projects and programmes are initiated and implemented by the people with the expert advice of the partnering consultant and funded by Statoil without the interference of company’s personnel, government or any outsiders. As a

way of addressing the challenges of ethical accountability, communities' felt needs, and sustainability of social actions, it is advisable for the IOCs to take a cue from the ADP model. This model also guarantees the needed reciprocal stakeholder responsibility, as communities will be encouraged to take direct 'ownership' of social projects and their environment.

Lastly, drawing insight from the results of this study, a five-step cyclical approach is hereby recommended to guide dedicated departments of the IOCs on Social Projects/Community Investment in managing communities' perception on CSP, for sustainable community development. The five steps are as follows:

Step 1: Undertake perception gap mapping across communities in collaboration with NGOs.

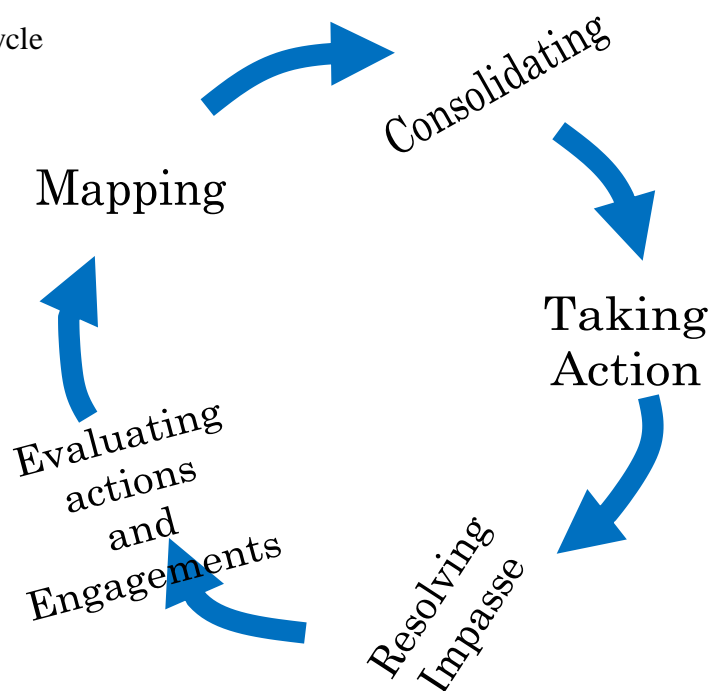
Step 2: Plan consolidation strategies in areas of alignment.

Step 3: Take actions to bridge identified gaps.

Step 4: Resolve any impasse by engaging to enlighten communities on the following: (i) Stakeholder reciprocal responsibility in sustainable community development (the communities need to understand their own responsibility of ensuring sustainability of social projects commissioned for their utilization), and (ii) the constitutional responsibility of government in community development.

Step 5: Evaluate actions taken and engagements made.

Spirals of the Cycle





## 7.5 Research Implications for Theory and Practice

A significant original contribution and value of this research is that the results provide insights to theory-based approach to the management and evaluation of CSP for sustainability and accountability. The theoretical approach successfully tested in this study contributes to the filling of the identified gap in the literature arising from the lack of reference to normative standards in the evaluation of CSP. Secondly, this research is not only an AR with a mixed methods strategy; it is also interdisciplinary, as I and the LS members all leveraged our various professional disciplines in arriving at actionable decisions for theoretical reference and practical relevance. Thirdly, the study contributes to practice by providing a pragmatic approach in planning and taking appropriate actions to effect change as will be discussed in the next section.

### 7.5.1 Summary of Actions Taken to Effect Change

Highlighted in the table below are key actions that were within the remit of the LS to implement. These changes, if sustained, will undoubtedly improve the CSP of the IOCs which in turn will engender sustainable development in the NDR.

	<b>Actionable Decisions</b>	<b>Responsibility</b>	<b>Outcome</b>
1	Making adequate budgetary provisions for CSP activities and ensuring due approval by JV partners	Researcher and Stakeholders' Management Department with support from other relevant departments and units	Implementation commenced and change effected
2	Providing a template on Ethical Community/NGO/Government engagement on CSP	Researcher and Stakeholders' Management Department with support from other relevant departments and units	Implementation commenced and change effected
3	Regular engagement of local communities, free of coercion or manipulation with a view to re-orientating them on the roles and responsibilities of IOCs, Government, and Communities	Researcher and Stakeholders' Management Department with support from other relevant departments and units	Implementation commenced and change effected

4	Enhancing collaboration with Government Regulatory Agencies, NGOs and other civil society groups on environmental management and other industry-specific challenges and to commit to taking responsibility for issues of environmental violation	Researcher and Stakeholders' Management Department with support from HSE department	Implementation commenced and change effected
5	Giving first consideration to host communities and expanding patronage to them in the award of contracts	Researcher and Stakeholders' Management Department with support from other relevant departments and units	Implementation commenced and change effected

### **7.6 How the Research Objectives Were Met in the Study**

The stated objectives of this study are: (1) to examine the CSP policies/practices of the research IOC, and to evaluate their effectiveness; (2) to find out the OPC's perception of the CSP of the IOCs operating in their communities; and (3) to explore the implications of CSP management and implementation strategies of the IOCs on the achievement of sustainable community development in Bayelsa State. From the findings of the study, the perception of the OPCs is that the CSP policies/practices of the research IOC are not as effective as expected compared to the investments declared and, therefore, there is need for a paradigm shift. The study has highlighted the perception of the host communities regarding the contributions of the IOCs operating on their land, which is generally negative. The study has also revealed that there is shared perception that the current CSP management and implementation policies of the IOCs have not ushered in the desired sustainable community development in Bayelsa State. In this regard, apart from my advocacy for the IOCs to critically consider the centrality of ethics in organisational transformation, I have discussed my preference for the ADP as a standard corporate - community foundation model for sustainable community development in the State.

### **7.7 Learning from the AR and Managerial Implication of the Study**

One of the key deliverables of AR is to enhance professional development and the resolution of the problem of inquiry and, therefore, it would be pertinent to highlight the study outcomes at three levels – organizational, LS members, and personal.

### **7.7.1 Organizational Implications**

The knowledge created in course of the study will represent a resource document for my organisation and sister IOCs. I had made arrangements with the Knowledge Management Department of my organisation for a synopsis of this thesis to be disseminated in the organization's knowledge management portal via webinars. However, this could not be accomplished due to my sudden retirement from the company. I retired from the company with effect from 15<sup>th</sup> June, 2017 and could not follow-up the implementation of all the actionable decisions. Nevertheless, action on some of the decisions had already commenced before my retirement, as already indicated in the section on Actions Taken.

In conclusion, apart from the actionable decisions reached, the outcome of this research offers managerial insights for measuring the effectiveness of my IOCs' current CSP practices and for the formulation of strategies that can usher in sustainable development in her areas of operation and, by so doing, strengthen peaceful coexistence with host communities and create opportunities for corporate growth and sustainability.

### **7.7.2 LS Members**

Most of the LS members confirmed to me how useful the exercise was to them despite the initial difficulties we encountered. The AR process as a research paradigm is relatively new in our part of the world and, therefore, the initial hiccups which were experienced were not strange and out of place. There were palpable concerns about confidentiality and career security because of the sensitivity of the issues associated with the study. Understandably, this generated some sort of inertia amongst LS members. However, things got better as we progressed.

In the words of Raelin (2008, p.9), "executives live in a world of frenetic activity". This author referred to a survey which showed that executives need time to reflect on some important issues such as the desire for personal reflection time, desire for more legitimate group discussion, and what communities need from businesses. The high-octane nature of the oil and gas business in the NDR leaves executives short of time to reflect on such issues. This study equipped the LS members with the understanding that reflecting on important managerial issues irrespective of the hectic nature of their job and the fear of making mistakes is a vital managerial competence.

Some of the LS members also informed me that the questioning mode and reflective practice associated with the AR process is a new skill they have acquired from the study and that this

will assist them in addressing other managerial problems. The LS members learned how to subject their individual knowledge and preconceived ideas to public reflection. Some of them had never had to question the way they thought about problems prior to the study, but public scrutiny empowered them to think about the way they think.

The study deepened the understanding and expectations of the social contribution of the IOCs and this significantly refined the perception of the research participants. While the community participants understood what the social responsibilities of the IOCs are vis-à-vis the constitutional responsibilities of the government, the LS participants also learned that going by the rubrics of the processes of responsiveness that were discussed in this study, there is still a lot to be done by the IOCs.

The LS members expressed how much they look forward to receiving the outcome of the research, as they considered the rich knowledge created as a veritable source of reference in their managerial practice. Generally, most of them see the entire exercise as having contributed immensely to their professional development in terms of competence and skills that will enable them to manage complex organizational issues. Most of the members agreed with me that the findings of the study if given management's endorsement, will enable the organization to resolve the problem of inquiry.

### **7.7.3 Personal Learning**

As a scholar-practitioner, I also shared in the learning outcomes the LS members experienced. Beyond that, the study gave me the opportunity to put into practice the various skills I had learned about workplace-based study and AR throughout the period of the Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) coursework. The study enhanced my capability to manage group processes involving managers with diverse experiences, knowledge and deep-seated assumptions without falling prey to groupthink and other decision-making traps. The study also built and refined my skills in conducting collaborative research and managing the processes of cogeneration of knowledge in a democratic mode. The study has equipped me with the relevant skills and competencies of bridging knowledge and action in the workplace. Managing the study refined my teamwork and interpersonal competencies and working through my problem of inquiry instilled a lot of self-discipline and transformation in me. Notably, it enabled me to experience Argyris' (1994) single- and double-loop learning, and Isaac's (1993) triple-loop learning dimensions. While the single-loop learning enabled me to understand the immediate problem and be able to proffer a solution, the double-loop learning

enabled me to unravel the implicit procedures and assumptions behind the problem. The triple-loop, on the other hand, extended my learning to a point of surfacing the premises behind the very procedures and assumptions.

Most importantly, my role in the AR process developed me more as a leader by practicing being a change agent, a reflector, learner, team facilitator, and charismatic influencer (Raelin, 2003). The aim of the study is to bring about change in the CSP policies and practices of my organization, and this presents me as a change agent which is one of the important qualities of a leader (Ford & Ford, 2010; Schein, 1999). The study has also built me as a reflector, learner and team facilitator (Argyris, 1994), as I reflected through the various evocative postings of LS members and provided informed guidance and insight to the topic of inquiry. At the initial stage of the LS activities, there was a somewhat lukewarm attitude from members, and this called for my ability to demonstrate some characteristics of a charismatic personality and an influencer in managing the team. I encouraged them individually to participate in the study and take advantage of the ultimate benefit of the rich knowledge that will eventually be produced and, based on the regard they had for me as an individual, there was a significant improvement in their participation going forward.

### **7.8 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research**

The vicious circles prevalent in the industry and the inertia on the part of the government to address them posed a great limitation to this study. It will be difficult to evaluate the CSP of the IOCs for as long as the relevant governments fail to discharge their constitutional responsibility of developing the communities. The status quo is that constitutional developmental responsibilities are erroneously conflated with corporate responsibilities. Emeseh (2009, p.121) aptly captured this scenario when she stated that “in truth, far too much responsibility and freedom is placed on companies whose traditional role is not governance. Only when the government performs its role can we perhaps see a proper commitment to CSR...”

Generally, the qualitative aspect of the study is highly subjective as the findings are all based on realities that have been socially constructed by the participants within a volatile, highly demanding, and complicated environment with peculiar socio-economic and political exigencies.

The small sample sizes taken for the community interviews, which were largely due to the remoteness of the oil producing communities and the suddenly renewed militancy following the change of government leadership on May 29, 2015, were also limitations to the study.

The LS activities of the study suffered a number of serious limitations. First, knowledge of AR as a research methodology is yet to gain significant ground and acceptance in my country. The implication of this was that I had to explain every step and process of the methodology to the LS participants, and this made the learning process a bit cumbersome and slow. Second, the LS participants were all very busy managers with extremely tight official schedules, in addition to personal and family commitments. This made it imperative for me to appropriate so much verbal activation strategy to ignite and sustain their enthusiasm and commitment to the LS activities. Thirdly, the LS participants were also understandably wary of taking certain actions as part of the AR cycle for fear of management censure and possible career implications.

As earlier noted, the most serious impediment to the AR was the ‘command and control’ organisational climate of the research IOC the implication of which was that, although, the researcher and the LS came away with a number of critical actionable decisions at the end of the study, the freedom to take the appropriate actions and effect desired changes was limited.

In conclusion, a research direction that future researchers can pursue is to carry out similar investigations using other evaluation models.

## References

- Ackerman, R.W. & Bauer, R.A. (1976) 'Corporate Social Responsiveness: The Modern Dilemma, Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. Aaron, K.K. (2012) New Corporate Social Responsibility Models for Oil Companies in Nigeria's Delta Region: What Challenges for Sustainability?' *Progress in Development Studies*, Vol. 12 (4), pp.259-273.
- Adegbite, A.A., Amiolemen, S.O. Ologeh, & Oyefuga, I.O. (2012) 'Sustainable Development Policy and Corporate Social Responsibility in Business Organization in Nigeria', *Journal of Sustainable Development*, Vol. 5 (6), pp.83-98.
- Ako, R.T., Obokoh, L.O., & Okonmah, P. (2009) 'Forging Peaceful Relationships between Oil-Companies and Host-Communities in Nigeria's Delta Region', *Journal of Enterprising Communities, People and Places in the Global Economy*, Vol. 3 (2), pp. 205-216.
- Akpan, W. (2006) 'Between Responsibility and Rhetoric: Some Consequences of CSR in Nigeria's Oil Province', *Development Southern Africa*, Vol. 23, pp.223-240.
- Akpomuvie, O.B. (2008) 'Environmental Degradation, Poverty and the Problem of Sustainable Development in the Niger Delta', *Nigerian Sociological Review*, Vol. 3(1-2), pp. 85-92.
- Akpomuvie, O.B. (2011) 'Tragedy of Commons: Analysis of Oil Spillage, Gas Flaring and Sustainable Development of the Niger Delta of Nigeria', *Journal of Sustainable Development*, Vol. 4(2), pp. 200-210.
- Altman, B.W. (1998a) 'Corporate Community Relations in the 1990s: A Study in Transformation', *Business and Society*, Vol. 37 (2), pp.221-227.
- Altman, B.W. (1998b) 'Transformed Corporate Community Relations: Management Tool for Achieving Corporate Citizenship', *Business and Society Review*, Vol. 102/103, pp. 43-51.
- Aluko, M.A.O (2004) 'Sustainable Development, Environmental Degradation and the Entrenchment of Poverty in the Niger Delta of Nigeria', *J. Hum. Ecol.*, Vol. 15(1): pp.63-68.
- Amadi, B.O. & Abdullah, H. (2012) 'Poverty Alleviation through Corporate Social Responsibility in Niger Delta, Nigeria', *Asian Social Science*, Vol. 8 (4), pp.57-67.
- Aram, J.D. & Salipante, P.F. (2003) 'Bridging Scholarship in Management: Epistemological Reflections', *British Journal of Management*, Vol. 14 (3), pp. 189-205.

Argyris, C. (1977) 'Double-Loop Learning in Organizations', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 55(5), pp. 11-34.

Argyris, C. (1985) *Strategy, Change and Defensive Routine*. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.

Argyris, C. (1994) 'Good Communication that Blocks Learning', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 72 (4), p.85.

Armenakis, A. A. & Bedeian, A.G. (1999) 'Organizational Change: A Review of Theory and Research in the 1990s', *Journal of Management*, Vol. 25 (3), pp. 293-315.

Asawo, P.S. (2011) 'Corporate Integrity and Company-Community Conflict Management in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria', *Journal of Leadership, Accountability, and Ethics*, Vol. 8(3), pp. 77-88.

Ayoola, T.J. (2011) 'Gas Flaring and its Implication for Environmental Accounting in Nigeria', *Journal of Sustainable Development*, Vol. 4 (5), pp. 244-250.

Ayuso, S., Rodriguez, M.A., Garcia-Castro, R. & Arino, M. A. (2014) 'Maximizing Stakeholders' Interests: An Empirical Analysis of the Stakeholder Approach to Corporate Governance', *Business Society*, Vol. 53 (3), pp.414-439.

Babiak, K. & Trendafilova, S. (2011) 'CSR and Environmental Responsibility: Motives and Pressures to Adopt Green Management Practices', *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, Vol. 18, pp.11-24.

Bagire, V.a., Tusiime, I., Nalweyiso, G. & Kakooza, J.B. (2011) 'Contextual Environmental and Stakeholder Perception of Corporate Social Responsibility Practices in Uganda', *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, Vol. 18, pp. 102-109.

Bhattacharya, C. B., Korschun, D., & Sen, S. (2009) 'Strengthening Stakeholder-Company Relationships Through Mutually Beneficial Corporate Social Responsibility Initiatives', *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 85, pp. 257-272.

Barker, J.R. (1993) 'Tightening the Iron Cage: Concertive Control in Self-Managing Teams', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 38 (3), pp. 408-437.



- Bartlett, J. E., II, Kotrlik, J. W., & Higgins, C. (2001) 'Organizational Research: Determining Appropriate Sample Size for Survey Research'. *Information Technology, Learning, and Performance Journal*, Vol. 19(1) 43–50.
- Bazerman, M.H. & Samuelson, W.F. (1983) 'I Won the Auction but Don't Want the Prize', *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, Vol. 27(4), pp.618-634.
- Berle, A.A. (1932) 'For Whom Corporate Managers Are Trustees: A Note'. *Harvard Law Review*, Vol. 45, p.1365.
- Berger, P.L. & Luckman, T. (1966), *The Social Construction of Reality: A Treatise in the Sociology of Knowledge*. New York, Anchor.
- Bowen, H. R. (1953) *Social Responsibilities of The Businessman*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Branco, M.C. & Rodrigues, L.L. (2007) 'Positioning Stakeholder Theory within the Debate on Corporate Social Responsibility', *EJBO Electronic Journal of Business Ethics and Organization Studies*, Vol. 12 (1), pp. 5-15.
- Brown, A.D., Colville, I. & Pye, A. (2015) Making Sense of Sensemaking in Organization Studies', *Organization Studies*, available at:  
<http://oss.sagepub.com/content/36/2/265.full.pdf?ijkey=Yi9bUVM4kaPzwvO&keytype=finite>
- Burrell, G. & Morgan, G. (1979) *Sociological Paradigms and Organisational Analysis*. Aldershot: Ashgate.
- Buyse, K. & Verbeke, A. (2003) 'Proactive Environmental Strategies: A Stakeholder Management Perspective', *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 24, pp.453-470.
- Calabrese, A., Costa, R. & Menichini, T. (2013) 'Does Corporate Social Responsibility Hit the Mark? A Stakeholder Oriented Methodology for CSR Assessment', *Knowledge and Process Management*, Vol. 20(2), pp. 77-89.
- Caldwell, R. (2003) 'Modes of Change Agency: A Fourfold Classification', *British Journal of Management*, Vol. 14(2), pp. 131-142.
- Calvano, L. (2008) 'Multinational Corporations and Local Communities: A Critical Analysis of Conflict', *Journal of Business Ethics, Springer*, Vol. 8, pp. 793-805.

- Cameron, R. (2011) 'Mixed Methods Research: The Five Ps Framework', *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, Vol. 9 (2), pp. 96-108.
- Carroll, A.B. (1979) 'A Three-Dimensional Conceptual Model of Corporate Social Performance', *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 4, pp. 497-506.
- Carroll, A.B. (1991) 'The Pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility: Toward the Moral Management of Organizational Stakeholders', *Business Horizons*, Vol. 43, pp. 39-48.
- Carroll, A.B. (1999) 'Corporate Social Responsibility: Evolution of a Definitional Construct', *Business and Society*, Vol. 38(3), pp. 268-295.
- Carroll, A.B. (2000) 'Ethical Challenges for Business in the New Millennium: Corporate Social Responsibility and Models of Management Morality', *Business Ethics Quarterly*, Vol. 10(1), pp. 33-42.
- Carroll, A.B. (2016) 'Carroll's Pyramid of CSR: Taking Another Look', *International Journal of Corporate Social Responsibility*, Accessed at DOI 10.1186/s40991-016-0004-6.
- Carroll, A.B. & Shabana, K. M. (2010) 'The Business Case for Corporate Social Responsibility: A Review of Concepts, Research and Practice', *International Journal of Management Reviews*, Accessed at: DOI:10.1111/j.1468-2370.2009.00275.x, pp.85-105.
- Chia, R. & Holt, R. (2008) 'The Nature of Knowledge in Business Schools', *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, Vol. 7, pp. 471-86.
- Clarkson, M.B.E. (1995) 'A Stakeholder Framework for Analysing and Evaluating Corporate Social Performance', *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 20 (1), pp. 92-117.
- Coghlan, D. & Brannick, T. (2010) *Doing Action Research in Your Own Organization*, 3rd Edition. London: Sage.
- Coghlan, D. (1994) 'Organizational Development Through Interlevel Dynamics', *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, Vol. 2 (3), pp. 264-279.
- Coghlan, D. (2001) 'Insider Action Research Projects: Implications for Practising Managers', *Management Learning*, Vol. 32 (1), pp. 49-60.

Coll, J.E. & Zalaquett, C. (2008) 'The Relationship of Worldviews of Advisors and Students and Satisfaction with Advising: A Case of Homogenous Group Impact', *J. College Student Retention*, Vol. 9(3). pp. 273-281.

Colville, I., Brown, A.D., & Pye, A. (2012) 'Simplexity: Sensemaking, Organizing and Storytelling for Our Time', *Human Relations*, Vol. 65(1), pp. 5–15.

Comte, A. (1830–46, ET 1896) *The Positive Philosophy of Auguste Comte: Freely Translated and Condensed* by Harriet Martineau. London, George Bell & Sons.

Costa R. & Menichini, T. (2013) 'A Multidimensional Approach for CSR assessment: The Importance of the Stakeholder Perception', *Expert Systems with Applications*, Vol. 40, pp. 150–161.

Creswell, J.W. & Plano Clark, V. L. (2007) *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*. Sage. Thousand Oaks, California.

Creswell, J. (2013) *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Approaches*, 2nd ed. London: Sage.

Cronholm, S. & Hjalmarsson, A. (2011) 'Experiences from Sequential Use of Mixed Methods', *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, Vol. 9 (2), pp. 87-95.

Dandago, K. I. & Arugu, L.O. (2014) 'Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Concerns in Nigeria: A Critical Focus on Oil Producing Communities', *Issues in Social and Environmental Accounting*, Vol. 8 (2), pp. 104-115.

Davies, K. (1973) 'The Case for and Against Business Assumption of Social Responsibilities', *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 16, pp.312-322.

Day, D.D. (2000) 'Leadership Development: A Review in Context', *Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 11 (4), pp. 581-613.

De Bono Group, *Six Thinking Hats*. Retrieved from:

[http://www.debonogroup.com/six\\_thinking\\_hats.php](http://www.debonogroup.com/six_thinking_hats.php)

Denzin, N. & Lincoln, Y. (1994) *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Denzin, N. K. (1978) *The Research Act*, 2nd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Devinney, T. (2009) 'Is the Socially Responsible Corporation a Myth? The Good, the Bad, and the Ugly of Corporate Social Responsibility', *Academy of Management Perspectives*, Vol. 23 (2), pp.44-56.
- Dokpesi, A.O. & Abaye-Lameed, M. (2014) 'Internal and External Factors Affecting the Corporate Social Responsibility Efforts of AGIP in Oil-bearing Communities of South-South Nigeria', *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, Vol. 4 (3), pp.459-468.
- Donaldson, L. (2008) 'Vita Contemplativa—Following the Scientific Method: How I Became A Committed Functionalist and Positivist', *Organization Studies*, Vol. 26 (7), pp.1071-1088.
- Donaldson, T. & Preston, L.E. (1995) 'The Stakeholder Theory of the Corporation: Concepts, Evidence, and Implications', *The Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 20(1), pp. 65-91.
- Dooley, K.J. (1997) 'A Complex Adaptive Systems Model of Organizational Change', *Nonlinear Dynamics, Psychology, And Life Science*, Vol. 1 (1), Pp. 69-97.
- Drummond, H. (2001) *The Art of Decision-making: Mirrors of Imagination, Masks of Fate*. Chichester: Wiley.
- Dunham, L., Freeman, R.E & Liedtka, J. (2006) 'Exchanging Stakeholder Practice: A Particularized Exploration of Community', *Business Ethics Quarterly*, Vol. 16, pp.23-42.
- Easterby-Smith, M., Golden-Biddle, K. & Karen Locke, K. (2008) 'Working with Pluralism Determining Quality in Qualitative Research', *Organizational Research Methods*, Vol. 11 (3), pp. 419-429.
- Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R. & Jackson, P. (2012) *Management Research*, 4th ed. London: Sage.
- Edoho, F.M. (2008) 'Oil Transnational Corporations: Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Sustainability', *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, Vol. 15, pp.210–222.
- Eells, R. (1956) *Corporate Giving in A Free Society*. New York

- Egbe, O.S. & Paki, F.A.E. (2011) 'The Rhetoric of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)', *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, Vol. 1 (3), pp. 123-133.
- Ejumudo, K., Edo, Z.O., Avweromre, L. & Sagay, J. (2012) 'Environmental issues and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in Nigeria Niger Delta Region: The Need for a Pragmatic Approach', *Journal of Social Science and Public Policy*, Vol. 4, pp. 1-21.
- Elkington, J. (1994) 'Towards the Sustainable Corporation: Win-Win-Win Business Strategies for Sustainable Development,' *California Management Review*, Vol. 36 (2), pp. 90–100.
- Emeseh, E. (2009) 'Social Responsibility in Practice in the Oil Producing Niger Delta: Assessing Corporations and Government's Actions', *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*, Vol. 11 (2), pp.113-125.
- Emeseh, E., Ako, R. Okonmah, P. (2010) 'Corporations, CSR, and Self-Regulation: What Lessons from the Global Financial Crisis?', *11 German Law Journal*, Vol. 230, pp. 230–232.
- Ericson, T. (2001) 'Sensemaking in Organisations – Towards a Conceptual Framework for Understanding Strategic Change', *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, Vol. 17, pp. 109-131.
- Eweje, G. (2007) 'Multinational Oil Companies' CSR Initiatives in Nigeria: the Skepticism of Stakeholders in Host Communities', *Managerial Law*, Vol. 49(5/6).
- Ford, J.D. & Ford, L.W. (2010) 'Stop Blaming Resistance to Change and Start Using it', *Organizational Dynamics*, Vol. 39(1), pp. 24-36.
- Freeman, R.E. (1984) *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach*. Boston, M.A: Pitman.
- Friedman, M. (1970) 'The Social Responsibility of Business Is to Increase Its Profits', *New York Times Magazine*, Sept. 13.
- Frynas, J.G. (2005) 'The False Developmental Promise of Corporate Social Responsibility: Evidence from Multinational Oil Companies', *International Affairs*, Vol. 81 (3), pp. 581-598.
- Ganiyu, A. & Okogbule, E.E. (2013) 'Relationship between Shell Petroleum Development Company (SPDC) and Her Host Communities in the Promotion of Community Development in Rivers State, Nigeria', *International Education Research*, Vol. 1 (1), pp. 21-33.

Gibbons, M., Limoges, C., Nowotny, H., Schwartzman, S., Scott, P., & Trow, M. (1994) *The New Production of Knowledge*. London: Sage.

Gioia D.A. & Chittipeddi, K. (1991) 'Sensemaking and Sensegiving in Strategic Change Initiation', *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 12 (6), pp. 433-448.

Gold, J. & Holman, D. (2001) 'Let Me Tell You a Story: An Evaluation of the Use of Storytelling and Argument Analysis in Management Education', *Career Development International*, Vol. 6(7), pp. 384-395.

Greer, J. & Bruno, K. (1996) *Greenwash: The Reality Behind Corporate Environmentalism*. New York: Apex Press.

Habermas, J. (1970) 'Knowledge and Interest', *Sociological Theory and Philosophical Analysis*, pp. 36-54.

Hassard, J. (1991) 'Multiple Paradigms and Organizational Analysis: A Case Study', *Organization Studies*, Vol. 12 (2), pp.275–299.

Heine, S.J., Lehman, D. R., Peng, K. & Greenholtz, J. (2002). 'What's Wrong with Cross-Cultural Comparisons of Subjective Likert Scales? The Reference-Group Effect', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 82 (6), pp. 903-918.

Hillery, G. A. (1995) 'Definitions of Community: Areas of Agreement', *Rural Sociology*, Vol. 20, pp.194-204.

Holmes, S.L. (1976) 'Executive Perceptions of Corporate Social Responsibility', *Business Horizons*, Vol. 19 (3), pp.34-40.

<http://www.eni.com>

<http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/perception.html>

<http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/group-think.html>

Hughes, T., O'Regan, N. & Whornham, D. (2009) 'Let's Talk: Getting Business and Academia to Collaborate', *Journal of Business Strategy*, Vol. 30 (5), pp. 49-56.

Human Rights Watch (HRW) (1999) 'Nigeria: Crackdown in the Niger Delta', *Human Rights Watch*, Vol. 11 (2a).

Human Rights Watch (HRW) (2003) 'The Warri Crisis: Fuelling Violence', *Human Rights Watch*, Vol. 15 (18A).

Ibe, C.M., Min, W.Z., Ling, K.C. & Yii. D. S. K. (2015) 'Exploring the Impact of Strategic Proactivity on Perceived Corporate Social Responsibility in Nigeria's Petroleum Industry: A Structural Equation Modelling Approach', *Asian Social Science*, Vol. 11(4), pp.275-297.

Ibok, E.E. & Mboho, K.S. (2011) 'Corporate Social Responsibility towards Host Communities in Nigeria: Focus on Exxon/Mobil in Akwa Ibom State', *Journal of Sociology, Psychology, and Anthropology in Practice*, Vol. 3(1), pp.110-119.

Idemudia, U. & Ite, U.E. (2006) 'Corporate-Community Relations in Nigeria's Oil Industry: Challenges and Imperatives', *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, Vol.13, pp. 194-206.

Idemudia, U. & Ite, U.E. (2006) 'Demystifying the Niger Delta Conflict: Towards an Integrated Explanation', *Review of African Political Economy*, Vol.109, pp. 392-406.

Idemudia, U. (2007) 'Corporate Partnerships and Community Development in the Nigerian Oil Industry – Strengths and Limitations', *Markets, Business, and Regulation Programme Paper No. 2*.

Idemudia, U. (2007) 'Community Perceptions and Expectations: Reinventing the Wheels of Corporate Social Responsibility Practices in the Nigerian Oil Industry', *Business and Society Review*, Vol. 112 (3), pp. 369-405.

Idemudia, U. (2009) 'Oil Extraction and Poverty Reduction in the Niger Delta: A Critical Examination of Partnership Initiatives', *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 90, pp. 91-116.

Idemudia, U. (2009) 'Assessing Corporate-Community Involvement Strategies in the Nigerian Oil Industry: An Empirical Analysis', *Resources Policy*, No. 34, pp.133-141.

Idemudia, U. (2010) 'Corporate Social Responsibility and the Rentier Nigerian State: Rethinking the Role of Government and the Possibility of Corporate Social Development in the Niger Delta', *Canadian Journal of Development Studies*, Vol. 30 (1-3), pp.131-153.

Idemudia, U. (2010) 'Rethinking the Role of Corporate Social Responsibility in the Nigerian Oil Conflict: The Limits of CSR', *Journal of International Development*, Vol. 22, pp.833-845.

Idemudia, U. (2011) 'Corporate Social Responsibility and Developing Countries: Moving the Critical CSR Research Agenda in Africa Forward', *Progress in Development Studies*, Vol. 11(1), pp.1-18.

International Finance Corporation, 2006. Performance Standard 5: Land Acquisition and Involuntary Resettlement. Accessed at [http://www.ifc.org/ifcext/sustainability.nsf/AttachmentsByTitle/pol\\_PerformanceStandards2006\\_PS5/\\$FILE/PS\\_5\\_LandAcqInvolResettlement.pdf](http://www.ifc.org/ifcext/sustainability.nsf/AttachmentsByTitle/pol_PerformanceStandards2006_PS5/$FILE/PS_5_LandAcqInvolResettlement.pdf).

Ihugba, B.U. (2012) 'Compulsory Regulation of CSR: A Case Study of Nigeria', *Journal of Politics and Law*, Vol. 5 (2), p. 68.

Ijaiye, H. (2014) 'Challenges of Corporate Social Responsibility in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria', *Afe Babalola University Journal of Sustainable Development and Policy*, Vol. 3 (1), pp. 60-71.

Ikejiaku, B. (2012) 'Consideration of Ethical and Legal Aspects of Corporate Social Responsibility: The Issue of Multinational Corporation and Sustainable Development', *Nordic Journal of Commercial Law*, Vol. 1, pp.1-32.

Imomotimi, E.K. & Collins, A.E. (2014) 'Corporate Social Responsibility and Community Development in the Niger Delta', *Africanology*, Vol. 1 (1), pp.11-21.

Isaacs, W.N. (1993) 'Taking Flight: Dialogue, Collective Thinking, And Organizational Learning', *Organizational Dynamics*, 22 (2), pp.24-39.

Ismail, M. (2009) 'Corporate Social Responsibility and its Role in Community Development: An International Perspective', *Journal of International Social Research*, Vol. 2 (9), pp. 199-209.

Isola, W.A. & Mesagan, E.P. (2014) 'Impact of Oil Production on Human Condition in Nigeria', *MPRA Paper No. 67784*, available at <https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/67784/>

Ite, U.E. (2004) 'Multinationals and Corporate Social Responsibility in Developing Countries: A Case Study of Nigeria', *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management Journal*, Vol. 11(1), pp.1-11.



Ite, U.E. (2005) 'Poverty Reduction in Resource-Rich Developing Countries: What Have Multinational Corporations Got to Do with It?', *Journal of International Development*, Vol. 17, pp.913-929.

Iteh, U.E. (2007) 'Changing Times and Strategies: Shell's Contribution to Sustainable Community Development in the Niger Delta, Nigeria', *Sustainable Development*, Vol. 15, pp.1-14.

Iteh, U.E. (2007) 'Partnering with the State for Sustainable Development: Shell's Experience in the Niger Delta, Nigeria', *Sustainable Development*, Vol. 15, pp.216-228.

IUCN (1980) 'International Union for the Conservation of Nature: World Conservation Strategy, Living Resource Conservation with the United Nations Environment Program and the World Wildlife Fund', *Switzerland*.

Jamali, D. (2008) 'A Stakeholder Approach to Corporate Social Responsibility: A Fresh Perspective into Theory and Practice', *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 82, pp.213-231.

Janis, I. L. (1973) 'Groupthink and Group Dynamics: A Social Psychological Analysis of Defective Policy Decisions', *Policy Studies Journal*, 2(1), pp.19-25.

Jayachandran, S., Kalaignanam, K. & Eilert, M. (2013) 'Product and Environmental Social Performance: Varying Effect on firm Performance', *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 34, pp. 1255-1264.

Jenkinson, J., Oakley, C. & Mason, F. (2013) 'Teamwork: The Art of Being a Leader and a Team Player', *Advances in Psychiatric Treatment*, Vol. 19, pp. 221-228.

Jick, T. D. (1979) 'Mixing Qualitative and Quantitative Methods: Triangulation in Action'. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 24, pp. 602-611.

Jike, V.T. (2004) 'Environmental Degradation, Social Disequilibrium, and the Dilemma of Sustainable Development in the Niger Delta of Nigeria', *Journal of Black Studies*, Vol. 34(5), pp.686-701.

Johnson, R. & Onwuegbuzie, A. (2004) 'Mixed methods – A Research Paradigm Whose Time Has Come', *Educational Research*, Vol. 33, pp.14-26.

Johnson, P. & Duberley, J. (2000) *Understanding Management Research: An Introduction to Epistemology*. London: SAGE.

Johnson, K.L. (2010) 'Is the Socially Responsible Corporation a Myth? The Good, the Bad, and the Ugly of Corporate Social Responsibility by Timothy M. Devinney in *Academy of Management Perspectives*, May 2009' Vol. 23(2), *Organization Management Journal*, Vol. 7, pp.82-84.

Kakabadse, N.K., Rozuel, C. & Lee-Davis, L. (2005) 'Corporate Social Responsibility and Stakeholder Approach', *International Journal of Business and Ethics*, Vol. 1 (4), pp.277-302.

Kaplan, S.E. & Ruland, R.G. (1991) 'Positive Theory, Rationality and Accounting Regulation', *Critical Perspectives in Accounting*, Vol. 2(4), pp.361-374.

Kieser, A. & Leiner, L. (2009) 'Why the Rigor-Relevance Gap is Unbridgeable', *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 46 (3), pp.516-533.

Kilduff, M. & Dougherty, D. (2000) 'Change and Development in the Pluralistic World: The View from the Classics', *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 25 (4), pp. 777-782.

Kobeissi, N. & Damanpour, F. (2009) 'Corporate Responsiveness to Community Stakeholders: Effect of Contextual and Organizational Characteristics', *Business & Society*, Vol. 48(3), pp.326-359.

Kolk, A. Tulder, R. V. & Welters, C. (1999) 'International Codes of Conduct and Corporate Social Responsibility: Can Transnational Corporations Regulate Themselves?' *Transnational Corporations*, Vol. 8 (1), pp.143-180.

Kothari, C.R. (2004) *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*, (2nd Revised Edn). New Age International (P) Limited, Publishers, New Delhi.

Kotter, J.P. (1996) *Leading Change*. Harvard Business School Press, Boston, MA.

Lawrence & Weber, J. (2011) *Business and Society: Stakeholders, Ethics, Public Policy*. New York, McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Levitt, T. (1958) 'The Dangers of Social Responsibility', *Harvard Business Review*, pp. 41–50.

- Leavitt, H. J. (1974) 'Suppose We Took Groups Seriously...'", Prepared for *Western Electric's Symposium on the Hawthorne Studies*. Chicago, IL: November.
- Lee, D. & Newby, H. (1983) *The Problem of Sociology: An Introduction to Discipline*. London, Hutchinson.
- Lee, H., Park, T., Moon, H.K., Yang, Y. & Kim, C. (2009) 'Corporate Philanthropy, Attitude Towards Corporations, and Purchase Intentions: A South Korea Study', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 62 (10), pp. 939-946.
- Lee, N. & Greenley, G. (2010) 'The Theory-Practice Divide: Thoughts from the Editors and Senior Advisory Board of EJM', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 44(1/2), pp.5-20.
- Lindgreen, A. Swaen, V. (2010) 'Corporate Social Responsibility', *International Journal of Management Reviews*, Vol. 12(1), pp.1-7.
- Locke, K. (2001) *Grounded Theory in Management Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Longo, M., Mura, M. & Bonoli, A. (2005) 'Corporate Social Responsibility and Corporate Performance: The Case of Italian SMEs', *Corporate Governance: The International Journal of Business in Society*, Vol. 5(4), pp.28-42.
- Lu, W., Wang, W. & Lee, H. (2013) 'The Relationship between Corporate Social Responsibility and Corporate Performance: Evidence from the US Semiconductor Industry', *International Journal of Production*, Vol. 51(19), pp.5683-5695.
- Mackey, S. (2014) 'Virtue Ethics, CSR and Corporate Citizenship', *Journal of Communication Management*, Vol. 18(2), pp. 131-145.
- Mahon, J.F. & Griffin, J.J. (1999) 'Painting a Portrait: A Reply', *Business and Society*, Vol. 38, pp.126-133.
- Maiangwa, B. & Agbibo, D.E. (2013) 'Oil Multinational Corporations, Environmental Irresponsibility and Turbulent Peace in the Niger Delta Communities', *African Spectrum*, Vol. 2, pp.71-83.
- Mangos, N. (2010) 'An Integrated Theoretical Framework to Identify Poverty Alleviation Strategies for Corporate Sustainable Development: Poverty Alleviation Strategy of a Firm',

*International Journal of Knowledge, Culture and Change Management*, Vol. 10(1), pp.289-302.

Maon, F., Lindgreen, A. & Swaen, V. (2008) 'Thinking of the Organization as a System: The Role of Managerial Perceptions in Developing a CSR Strategic Agenda', *Systems Research and Behavioural Science*, Vol. 25(3), pp.413-426.

Margolis, J.D. & Walsh, J.P. (2003) 'Misery Loves Companies: Social Initiatives by Business', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 48, pp.268-305.

Marquis, C. & Battilana, J. (2009) 'Acting Globally but Thinking Locally? The Enduring Influence of Local Communities on Organizations', *Research in Organizational Behaviour*, Vol. 29, pp. 283-302.

Marti, J. (2015) 'Measuring in Action Research: Four Ways of Integrating Quantitative Methods in Participatory Dynamics', *Action Research*. Available online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1476750315590883>

Masuch (1985) 'Vicious Circles in Organizations', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 30(1), pp.14-33.

May, E.L (2004) 'Corporate Citizenship', *Healthcare Executive*, May/June 2004.

McNiff, J. (2013) *Action Research: Principles and Practice*, 3rd Edition. New York: Routledge.

Menz, K. (2010) 'Corporate Social Responsibility: Is it Rewarded by the Corporate Bond Market? A Critical Note', *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 96 (1), pp 117–134.

Mingers, J. (2000) 'What is it to be Critical? Teaching a Critical Approach to Management Undergraduates', *Management Learning*, Vol. 31 (2), pp. 219-237.

Monk, A. & Howard, S. (1998) 'Methods and Tools, The Rich Picture: A Tool for Reasoning About Work Context', *Interactions*, Vol. 5 (2), pp. 21-30.

Moore, G.A. (1999) 'Tinged Shareholder Theory: or What's so Special About Stakeholders?' *Business Ethics: A European Review*.

- Morgan, G. (1980) 'Paradigms, Metaphors, and Puzzle Solving in Organization Theory', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 25 (4), pp.605-622.
- Morse, J. (1991) 'Approaches to Qualitative-Quantitative Methodological Triangulation', *Methodology Corner*, Vol. 40 (2), pp120-123.
- Moon, J. (2007) 'The Contribution of Corporate Social Responsibility to Sustainable Development', *Sustainable Development*, Vol. 15, pp.296-306.
- Motilewa, B.D. & Worlu, R.E.K. (2015) 'Corporate Social Responsibility as A Tool for Gaining Competitive Advantage', *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Review*, Vol. 1(1), pp. 16-24.
- Mumford, A. (1996) 'Effective Learners in Action Learning Sets', *The Journal of Workplace Learning*, Vol. 8 (6), pp. 3-10.
- Mumford, M.D, Zaccaro, S.J, Harding, F.D., Jacobs T.O. & Fleishman, E. A. (2002) 'Leadership Skills for a Changing World: Solving Complex Social Problems,' *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 11 (1), pp. 11-35.
- Muthuri, J.N., Moon, J. & Idemudia, U. (2012) 'Corporate Innovation and Sustainable Community Development in Developing Countries', *Business & Society*, Vol. 51(3), pp. 355-381.
- Ndu, O.A.E. & Agbonifoh, B.A. (2014) 'Corporate Social Responsibility in Nigeria: A Study of the Petroleum Industry and the Niger Delta', *International Review of Social Sciences and Humanities*, Vol. 6 (2), pp.214-238.
- Nwadiolor, E. & Igwe, N.N. (2013) 'Adapting Corporate Social Responsibility Programs to Risk Management: A Model for Multinational Organizations in Nigeria', *European Journal of Business and Management*, Vol. 5 (15), pp. 17-24.
- Nwafor, J.C. (2006) 'Environmental Impact Assessment for Sustainable Development: The Nigerian Perspective', *Enugu: EL 'DEMAK pubs*, pp. 359-394.
- Nwagbara, U. (2013) 'The Effects of Social Media on Environmental Sustainability Activities of Oil and Gas Multinationals in Nigeria', *Thunderbird International Business Review*, Vol. 55, pp. 689-697.

- Nwagbara, U. & Brown, C. (2014) 'Communication and Conflict Management: Towards the Rhetoric of Integrative Communication for Sustainability in Nigeria's Oil and Gas Industry', *Economic Insights-Trends and Challenges*, Vol. III (LXVI), No. 4, pp. 15-23.
- Nweke, K. (2014) 'The Politics of Sustainable Development in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria: An Appraisal of the Role of the State and Multinational Corporations', *International Journal of Sustainable Development*, Vol. 7(12), pp. 95-110.
- Nyanayo, B. (2009) 'The Effect of Climate Change on the Niger Delta', *Paper Presented at the World Environment Day, United to combat Climate Change, Organised by the Rivers State Ministry of Environment at Degema, Port Harcourt Nigeria*.
- Nyemutu, F.O.R. (1999) 'The Minorities Development in Nigerian Federalism', *Ibadan, Nigerian Institute of Social Economic Research, NISER*.
- Obi, E. (2015) 'Corporate Social Responsibility, Oil Exploration and the Niger Delta Question', *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review (OMAN Chapter)*, Vol. 4 (11), pp. 23-34.
- O'Donovan, G. (1999) 'Managing Legitimacy through Increased Corporate Environmental Reporting: An Exploratory Study', *Interdisciplinary Environmental Review*, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 63-99.
- Odukoya, A. O. (2006) 'Oil and Sustainable Development in Nigeria: A Case Study of the Niger Delta', *Journal of Human Ecology*, Vol. 20(4), pp.249-258.
- Odukoya, B. (2006) 'The Future of Sustainability: Re-thinking Environment and Development in the Twenty-first Century', *Accessed at [http://cmsdata.iucn.org/downloads/iun\\_future\\_of\\_sustainability.pdf](http://cmsdata.iucn.org/downloads/iun_future_of_sustainability.pdf)*
- Ogula, D., Rose, J. & Abii, F.E. (2012) 'A Phenomenological Study of Corporate Social Responsibility in the Niger Delta, Nigeria', *Journal of Leadership Studies*, Vol. 6, pp.32-47.
- Ojo, G.U. (2012) 'Community Perception and the Oil Companies Corporate Social Responsibility Initiative in the Niger Delta', *Studies in Sociology of Science*, Vol. 3(4), pp.11-21.

Okafor, E.E., Hassan, A.R. & Doyin-Hassan, A. (2008) 'Environmental Issues and Corporate Social Responsibility: The Nigerian Experience', *Journal of Human Ecology*, Vol. 23 (2), pp.101-107.

Omotola, J.S. (2006) 'The Next Gulf? Oil Politics, Environmental Apocalypse and Rising Tension in the Niger Delta', *African Centre for Constructive Resolution of Dispute (ACCORD), Occasional Paper Series*, Vol. 1(3), pp. 1-31.

Omotola, J.S. (2008) 'Combating Poverty for Sustainable Human Development in Nigeria: The Continuing Struggle', *Journal of Poverty*, Vol.12(4), pp.496-517.

Omosho, O.J. (2013) 'Transnational Oil Corporations' Operations and Environmental Degradation in Nigeria, 1956-2010', *Afro Asian Journal of Social Sciences*, Vol. 4(4), pp.1-22.

Onah, F.O. & Nyewusira, (2005) 'Oil Exploitation and Sustainable Development in the Niger Delta Area', *Journal of Political and Administrative Studies*, Vol. 2(1).

Onweazu, O.O. (2012) 'Multinational Oil Corporations Corporate Integrity, Ethics and Sustainable Development in Niger Delta, Nigeria,' *Journal of Sustainable Development*, Vol. 5 (10), pp.114-121.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J. & Leech, N.L. (2005) 'On Becoming a Pragmatic Researcher: The Importance of Combining Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methodologies', *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, Vol. 5(5), pp. 375-387.

Opukri, C.O. & Ibaba, S. I. (2008) 'Oil Induced Environmental Degradation and Internal Population Displacement in the Nigeria's Niger Delta', *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*, Vol. 10 (1), pp.173-193.

Oronto, D., Von, K., Ike, O. & Michael, W. (2003) 'Alienation and Militancy in the Niger Delta: A Response to CSIS on Petroleum, Politics, and Democracy in Nigeria', *FPIF Report*, Accessed at <http://www.fpif.org/index.html>

Orubu, C.O. Odusola, A. & Ehwarieme, W. (2004) 'The Nigerian Oil industry: Environmental Diseconomies, Management Strategies and the Need for Community Involvement', *Journal of Human Ecology*, Vol. 16 (3), pp.203-214.

- Owolabi, K. A. & Olu-Owolabi, F. E. (2009) 'Corporate Social Responsibility and the Crisis of Development in Africa', *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*, Vol. 10(4), pp.218-232
- Oyeyemi, G., Adewara, A. A. & Adeyemi, R. A. (2010) 'Complex Survey Data Analysis: A Comparison of SAS, SPSS, and STATA', *Asian Journal of Mathematics & Statistics*, Vol. 3 (1), pp.33-39.
- Palladino, J.M. (2009) 'A Proposed Model of Retransformed Qualitative Data Within a Mixed Methods Research Design', *Journal of Ethnographic and Qualitative Research*, Vol. 3 (2), pp.91-97.
- Pauchant, T.C. & Milroff, I.I. (1988) 'Crisis Prone Versus Crisis Avoiding Organizations: Is Your Company's Culture its Own Worst Enemy in Creating Crisis?' *Organization & Environment*, Vol. 2(1), pp. 53-63.
- Pava, M.L. (2008) 'Why Corporations Should Not Abandon Social Responsibility Competencies', *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 83(4), 805-812.
- Pelozo, J., Loock, M., Cerruti, J. & Muyot, M. (2012) 'Sustainability: How Stakeholder Perceptions Differ from Corporate Reality', *University of California, Berkeley*, Vol. 55(1), pp.74-97.
- Pfeffer, J. (1993) 'Barriers to the Advance of Organizational Science: Paradigm Development as a Dependent Variable', *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 18, pp.599-620.
- Porter, M. E. & Kramer, M.R. (2002) 'The Competitive Advantage of Corporate Philanthropy', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 80, pp.56-69.
- Porter, M. E. & Kramer, M.R. (2006) 'Strategy & Society: The Link between Competitive Advantage and Corporate Social Responsibility', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 84, pp.78-92.
- Porter, M.E. & Kramer, M.R. (2011) 'Creating Shared Value', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 89(1/2), pp. 62–77.
- Post, J.E., Preston, L.E. & Sachs, S. (2002) 'Managing the Extended Enterprise: The New Stakeholder View', *California Management Review*, Vol. 45(1), pp. 6-28.



- Preston, L.E. & Post, J.E. (1975) *Private Management and Public Policy: The Principles of Public Responsibility*. Eaglewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Raelin, J.A. (2003) *Creating Leaderful Organizations: How to Bring Out Leadership in Everyone*. San Francisco, California: Bernett-Koehler.
- Raelin, J.A. (2008) *Work-Based Learning: Bridging Knowledge Creation and Action in the Workplace*. Business, and Management Series: Jossey-Bass.
- Renouard, C. & Lado, H. (2012) 'CSR and Inequality in the Niger Delta (Nigeria)', *Corporate Governance: The International Journal of Business in Society*, Vol. 12 (4), pp. 472 – 484.
- Revans, R. (1982) *The Origins and Growth of Action Learning*. Chartwell-Bratt: Bromley.
- Reynolds, M. (1997) *Towards a Critical Management Pedagogy*, in J. Burgoyne and Reynolds (eds), *Management Learning: Integrating Perspectives in Theory and Practice*. London: Sage.
- Reynolds, M. (2011) 'Reflective Practice: Origins and Interpretations', *Action Learning: Research and Practice*, Vol. 8 (1), pp. 5-13.
- Rigg, C. & Trehan, K. (2008) 'Critical Reflection in the Workplace: Is it Just Too Difficult?', *Journal of European Industrial Training*, Vol. 32(5), pp. 374-384.
- Saro-Wiwa, K.B. (1995) *A Month and A Day: A Detention Diary*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
- Saiia, D.H. Carroll, A.B. & Buchholtz, A.K. (2003) 'Philanthropy as Strategy: When corporate Charity Begins at Home', *Business & Society*, Vol. 42(2), pp.169-201.
- Schein, E.H. (1999) 'Kurt Lewin's Change Theory in the Field and the Classroom: Notes Toward a Mode of Managing Change', *Reflections*, Vol. 1(1), pp. 59-74.
- Schon, D. (1983) *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action*. New York: Basic Books.
- Schwandt, T. (1997a) *Qualitative Inquiry: A Dictionary of Terms*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Sethi, S.P. (1975) 'Dimensions of Corporate Social Responsibility', *The California Management Review*, Vol.17 (3), pp. 58-64.

Sethi, S.P (1979) 'A Conceptual Framework for Environmental Analysis of Social Issues and Evaluation of Business Response Patterns', *The Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 4, pp. 63-74.

Shah, S. & Corley, K. (2006) 'Building Better Theory by Bridging the Quantitative-Qualitative Divide', *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 43 (8), pp.1821-1835.

Shell Development Company of Nigeria, Annual Report, 2006.

Shell Development Company of Nigeria, Annual Report, 2008.

Shrivastava, P. (1987) 'Rigor and Practical Usefulness of Research in Strategic Management', *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 8 (1), pp.77-92.

Slack, K. (2012) 'Mission Impossible? Adopting a CSR-based Business Model for Extractive Industries in Developing Countries', *Resources Policy*, Vol.37, pp.179-184.

Slaper, T.F. & Hall, T.J. (2011) 'The Triple Bottom Line: What is it and How Does it Work?' *Indiana Business Review*, Spring, Vol. 86 (1), pp. 4-8.

Smircich, L. (1983) *Organizations as Shared Meanings*, In L.R. Pondy, P.J. Frost, G. Morgan, T.C. Dandridge (Eds), *Organizational Symbolism*. Greenwich, C.T: JAI Press.

Smith, D. & Elliott, D. (2007) 'Exploring the Barriers to Learning from Crisis: Organizational Learning and Crisis', *Management Learning*, Vol. 38 (5), pp. 519-538.

Smith, R.D. (2002) 'A Case for the Centrality of Ethics in Organizational Transformation', *Journal of Human Values*, Vol. 8 (1), pp.3-16.

Steurer, R., Langer, M. E., Konrad, A. & Martinuzzi (2005) 'Corporations, Stakeholders and Sustainable Development I: A Theoretical Exploration of Business-Society Relations', *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 61, pp. 263-281.

Storper, M. (2005) 'Society, Community, and Economic Development', *Comparative International Development*, Vol. 39(4), pp.30-57.

Suchman, M.C. (1995) 'Managing Legitimacy: Strategic and Institutional Approaches', *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 20(3), pp.571-610.

Swanson, D.E. (1995) 'Addressing a Theoretical Problem by Reorienting the Corporate Social Performance Model', *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 20(1), pp.43-64.

Tashakkori A. & Teddlie, C. (2008) 'Introduction to Mixed Method and Mixed Model studies in the Social and Behavioural Science, In V. L. Plano-Clark & J. W. Creswell (Eds)', *The Mixed Method Reader*, pp. 7-26.

Tashakkori, A. & Teddlie, C. (2010b) 'Epilogue: Current Developments and Emerging Trends in Integrated Research Methodology, Sage Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioural Research, Tashakkori, A. & Teddlie, C. (Eds) 2010', *California*, pp. 803-826.

Terrell, S. R. (2012) 'Mixed Methods Research Methodologies', *The Qualitative Report*, Vol. 17 (1), pp. 254-280.

Thomas, R. & Hardy, C. (2011) 'Reframing Resistance to Change', *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, Vol. 27, pp. 322-331.

Thorpe, R. & Holt, R. (2008) *The SAGE Dictionary of Qualitative Management Research*. London: SAGE.

Tracey, P., Phillips, N. & Haug, H. (2005) 'Beyond Philanthropy: Community Enterprise as a Basis for Corporate Citizenship', *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 58, pp. 327-344.

Tranfield, D. & Starkey, K. (1998) 'The Nature, Social Organization and Promotion of Management Research: Towards Policy', *British Journal of Management*, Vol. 9 (4), pp.207-222.

Tuodolo, F. (2009) 'Corporate Social responsibility: Between Civil society and the Oil Industry in the Developing World', *An E-Journal for Critical Geographies*, Vol. 8(3), pp. 530-541.

United Nations Development Project (2006) *The Human Development Report*, Palgrave Macmillan, New York.

United Nations Environmental Programme (1992).

United Nations Human Rights (2012) *Interpretive Guide to UN Guiding Principles' Corporate Responsibility to Respect Human Rights*, Office of the High Commissioner.

United Nations Human Rights (2011) *Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights: Implementing the United Nations' Protect, Respect and Remedy Framework*, Office of the High Commissioner.

United Nations Global Compact (2009).

Utting, P. (2003) 'Promoting Development Through Corporate Social Responsibility-Prospects and Limitations', *Global Futures*, Third Quarter, pp.11-13.

Van Maanen, J. (1995) 'Style as Theory', *Organization Science*, Vol. 6 (1), pp.133-143.

Viser, W. (2006) 'Revisiting Carroll's Pyramid: An African Perspective, In M. Huniche & E.P. Rahbek (Eds)', *Corporate Citizenship in Developing Countries – New Partnership Perspectives*, pp. 29-56.

Vivero, H. (2016) 'Examining Stakeholders' Perceptions of Mining Impacts and Corporate Social Responsibility', *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, Vol. 23, pp. 50-64.

Waddock, S.A. & Boyle, M. (1995) 'The Dynamics of Change in Corporate Community Relations', *California Management Review*, Vol. 37(4), pp.125-140.

Waldman, D. A. & Siegel, D. (2008) 'Defining the Socially Responsible Leader', *Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 19(1), pp. 117-131.

Wartick, S.L. & Cochran, P.L. (1985) 'The Evolution of the Corporate Social Performance Model', *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 10 (4), pp. 758-769.

Watson, W.E., Kumar, K. & Michaelsen, L.K. (1993) 'Cultural Diversity's Impact on Interaction Process and Performance: Comparing Homogenous and Diverse Task Groups', *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 36 (3), pp. 590-602.

Watzlawiek, E. (Ed.). (1984). *The Invented Reality: Contributions to Constructivism*. New York: Norton.

WCED (1987) *World Commission on Environmental Development: Our Common Future*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.

- Web, E. J., Campbell, D. T., Schwartz, R. D. & Sechrest, L. (1966) *Unobtrusive Measures: Nonreactive Research in the Social Sciences*. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Weick, K. E. (1985) 'Cosmos vs. Chaos: Sense and Nonsense in Electronic Contexts', *Organizational Dynamics*, Vol. 14(2), pp.51-64.
- Weick, K. E. (1969) *The Social Psychology of Organizing*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Weick, K. E. (1995) *Sensemaking in Organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Weick, K. E. (1993) 'The Collapse of Sensemaking in Organizations: The Mann Gulch Disaster', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 38, pp.628-652.
- Weick, K. E. (1979) *The Social Psychology of Organizing*. California MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Wheeler, D., Fabig, H. & Boele, R. (2002) 'Paradoxes and Dilemmas for Stakeholder Responsive Firms in the Extractive Sector: Lessons from the Case of Shell and the Ogoni', *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 39(3), pp.297-318.
- Wisniewska, D. (2011) 'Mixed Methods and Action Research: Similar or Different?', *GLOTTODIDACTICA*, Vol. 37, pp. 59-72.
- Wood, D.J. (1991) 'Corporate Social Performance Revisited', *Academy of Management Review*, Vol.16, pp.691-718.
- Wood, D.J. (1991) 'Social Issues in Management: Theory and Research in Corporate Social Performance', *Journal of Management Review*, Vol.17 (2), pp.383-406.
- Wood, D.J. (2010) 'Measuring Corporate Social Performance: A Review', *International Journal of Management Reviews*, DOI: 10.1111/j.1468-2370.2009.00274.x, pp. 50-84.
- World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD).
- World Bank (2004) 'Public Policy for Corporate Social Responsibility in D. Petkoski and N. Twose (Eds)', *WBI Series on Corporate Responsibility, Accountability and Sustainable Competitiveness (7-25)*.
- World Bank Institute and the International Finance Corporation (IFC).
- World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED, 1987).

## APPENDICES

*A Critical Evaluation of Corporate Social Performance in the Nigerian Oil and Gas Industry and Sustainable Community Development: An Action Research on Community Stakeholders' Perception in Bayelsa State, Nigeria*

### RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

In answering the following questions, please focus on your personal experience with the International Oil Companies (IOCs) operating in your area and indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement in each of the following statements.

#### Research Question 1: Economic Responsibility

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	SD
1	IOCs consider it important to maximize earnings per share.				
2	IOCs consider it important to be committed to being as profitable as possible.				
3	IOCs consider it important to maintain a strong competitive position.				
4	IOCs consider it important to maintain a high level of operating efficiency.				
5	IOCs consider it important that a successful firm be described as one that is always profitable.				

#### Research Question 2: Legal Responsibility

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	SD
1	IOCs consider it important to act in a manner consistent with expectations of government				
2	IOCs consider it important to comply with federal, state, and local laws and regulations.				
3	IOCs consider it important to be a law-abiding corporate citizen.				
4	IOCs consider it important for corporations to fulfil their legal obligations.				
5	IOCs consider it important to provide goods/services that meet minimum legal requirements.				

#### Research Question 3: Ethical Responsibility

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	SD
1	IOCs consider it important to perform in a manner consistent with societal ethical norms.				
2	IOCs consider it important to recognize and respect societal ethical moral norms.				
3	IOCs consider it important to prevent ethical norms from being compromised to achieve corporate goals.				
4	IOCs consider it important that good corporate citizenship be defined as doing what is expected morally and ethically.				

5	IOCs consider it important to know that corporate integrity and ethical behavior go beyond simple compliance with laws and regulations.				
---	-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	--	--	--	--

#### Research Question 4: Philanthropic Responsibility

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	SD
1	IOCs consider it important to perform in a manner consistent with the philanthropic and charitable expectations of society.				
2	IOCs consider it important to assist in community wellbeing.				
3	IOCs consider it important that managers and employees participate in voluntary and charitable activities within their local communities.				
4	IOCs consider it important to provide assistance to private and public educational institutions.				
5	IOCs consider it important to assist voluntarily those projects that enhance a community's quality of life.				

#### Research Question 5: Factors Influencing IOCs' Involvement in Social Issues Confronting Host Communities

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	SD
1	Matching of a social need to corporate skill, need, or ability to help				
2	Seriousness of social need				
3	Interest of top executives				
4	Public relations value of social action				
5	Government pressure				
6	Pressure of general public opinion				
7	Pressure from special interest groups				
8	Amount of corporate effort required				
9	Measurability of results, or some form of cost/benefit analysis of social effort				
10	Profitability of the venture				

#### Research Question 6: Response Attitude (RDAP)

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	SD
1	IOCs adopt strategies that enable them to escape the responsibility that comes with the negative effects of their activities - <b>REACTIVE</b>				

2	IOCs ensure that extant legal and ethical frameworks protect the company from taking responsibility for the negative effects of their activities <b>-DEFENSIVE</b>				
3	IOCs adopt strategy that is not meant to escape responsibility, but rather emphasizes the need to feel the pressure from stakeholders before implementing CSR initiatives <b>-ACCOMMODATIVE</b>				
4	IOCs implement CSR activities without being pressurized or without the occurrence of negative externalities <b>-PROACTIVE</b>				

## DEMOGRAPHICS

**Please indicate your gender:**

Male

Female

**Please indicate your age:**

Under 30  30-40  41-50  Over 50

**Please indicate your leadership position in the community:**

\_\_\_\_\_

**Please indicate your highest educational qualification:**

Elementary school  Secondary school

Trade/technical/vocational training

Bachelor's degree  Master's degree

Doctorate degree  Post-doctoral degree

**Please indicate how long you have been in your present community leadership position:**

Less than a year  5-10 years

1-3 years  10-20 years

3-5 years  More than 20 years

***Thank you for your contribution in this important study!!!***



**Qualitative Research (Community Interview) Questions**

**A. Summary of Carroll's (1979; 1991) Four Corporate Social Responsibilities:**

<b>Economic Responsibilities</b>	<b>Legal Responsibilities</b>	<b>Ethical Responsibilities</b>	<b>Philanthropic Responsibilities</b>
IOCs consider it important to maximize earnings per share	IOCs consider it important to act in a manner consistent with expectations of government	IOCs consider it important to perform in a manner consistent with societal ethical norms	IOCs consider it important to perform in a manner consistent with the philanthropic and charitable expectations of society
IOCs consider it important to be committed to being as profitable as possible	IOCs consider it important to comply with federal, state, and local laws and regulations	IOCs consider it important to recognize and respect societal ethical moral norms	IOCs consider it important to assist the fine and performing arts
IOCs consider it important to maintain a strong competitive position	IOCs consider it important to be a law-abiding corporate citizen	IOCs consider it important to prevent ethical norms from being compromised to achieve corporate goals	IOCs consider it important that managers and employees participate in voluntary and charitable activities within their local communities
IOCs consider it important to maintain a high	IOCs consider it important for corporations to	IOCs consider it important that good corporate citizenship be	IOCs consider it important to provide assistance

level of operating efficiency	fulfill their legal obligations.	defined as doing what is expected morally and ethically	to private and public educational institutions
IOCs consider it important that a successful firm be described as one that is always profitable	IOCs consider it important to provide goods/services that meet minimum legal requirements	IOCs consider it important to know that corporate integrity and ethical behavior go beyond simple compliance with laws and regulations	IOCs consider it important to assist voluntarily those projects that enhance a community's quality of life

**B. Factors Influencing the Involvement of the IOCs in Social Issues affecting the Stakeholder Communities (Holmes, 1976):**

1	Matching of a social need to corporate skill, need, or ability to help
2	Seriousness of social need
3	Interest of top executives
4	Public relations value of social action
5	Government pressure
6	Pressure of general public opinion
7	Pressure from special interest groups
8	Amount of corporate effort required
9	Measurability of results, or some form of cost/benefit analysis of social effort
10	Profitability of the venture

**C. Response Attitude of the IOCs (Carroll, 1979;1991) - RDAP:**

S/N	Statement
1	IOCs adopt strategies that enable them to escape the responsibility that comes with the negative effects of their activities - <b>REACTIVE</b>
2	IOCs ensure that extant legal and ethical frameworks protect the company from taking responsibility for the negative effects of their activities - <b>DEFENSIVE</b>
3	IOCs adopt strategy that is not meant to escape responsibility, but rather emphasizes the need to feel the pressure from stakeholders before implementing CSR initiatives

	- <b>ACCOMMODATIVE</b>
4	IOCs implement CSR activities without being pressurized or without the occurrence of negative externalities - <b>PROACTIVE</b>

Please use the criteria established in the models presented in sections ‘A’, ‘B’, and ‘C’ above and tell me your *perception* of the performance of the international oil companies (IOCs) operating in your community, by responding to the following six research questions:

RQ1: How do you perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs operating in your community regarding the performance of their economic responsibility?

- i. What are the economic responsibilities of the IOCs?
- ii. To what extent have they discharged this responsibility?

RQ2: How do you perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs operating in your community regarding the performance of their legal responsibility?

- i. What are the legal responsibilities of IOCs?
- ii. To what extent have they discharged this responsibility?

RQ3: How do you perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs operating in your community regarding the performance of their ethical responsibility?

- i. What are the ethical responsibilities of the IOCs?
- ii. To what extent have they discharged this responsibility?

RQ4: How do you perceive the responsiveness of the IOCs operating in your community regarding the performance of their philanthropic responsibility?

- i. What are the philanthropic responsibilities of the IOCs?
- ii. To what extent have they discharged this responsibility?

RQ5: What is your perception regarding the main factors that influence the involvement of the IOCs operating in your community in the social issues confronting your community?

- i. What are the main social issues confronting your community as a result of oil and gas exploration?

- ii. To what extent have the IOCs met your community's expectations in their response to the social issues?

RQ6: How do you perceive the response attitude of the IOCs regarding the negative effects of their operations in your community?

- i. What is the general response attitude of the IOCs towards the needs of the host communities?
- ii. To what extent have the IOCs met your community's expectations in their response attitude regarding the negative effects of their operations in your community?

## DEMOGRAPHICS

**Please indicate your gender:**

Male

Female

**Please indicate your age:**

Under 30  30-40  41-50  Over 50

**Please indicate your leadership position in the community:**

\_\_\_\_\_

**Please indicate your highest educational qualification:**

Elementary school  Secondary school

Trade/technical/vocational training

Bachelor's degree  Master's degree

Doctorate degree  Post-doctoral degree

**Please indicate how long you have been in your present community leadership position:**

Less than a year  5-10 years

1-3 years  10-20 years

3-5 years  More than 20 years

***Thank you for your contribution in this important study!!!***