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Sustainable Peace Building and Development in Nigeria’s Post-Amnesty Programme: the Role of Corporate Social Responsibility in Oil Host Communities

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Abstract

The activities and violence of militants in the Niger Delta which saw the capacity for production of oil in Nigeria fall to an all-time low resulted in the federal government of Nigeria (FGN) announcing the Presidential Amnesty Programme in return for peace in the region. We examine how multinational oil companies’ (MOCs’) corporate social responsibility (CSR) impact on entrepreneurship development and job creation to absorb the youths. 1200 youths were sampled across the nine states of Niger Delta. Results from the use of estimated logit model reveal that GMoU interventions are prevalent in communities with greater ownership, creating room for better projects, sustainability and improved trust; yet the interventions failed to make significant impact on entrepreneurship development and job creation. Clearly, facilitating how youths get involved in skill acquisition and empowerment programmes would help them become entrepreneurs, improving their self-assurance that they can prosper outside militancy activities and violence.

Keywords: Presidential amnesty programme, multinational oil companies, corporate social responsibility, youths and entrepreneurship development, Nigeria.
1. Introduction

The economy of Nigeria is greatly dependent on the oil sector. Yet, the Niger Delta area of the country where the activities of the multinational oil companies (MOCs) are noticeable is affected by incessant violent conflicts. The Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN) is in joint-venture agreements with the MOCs functional in the oil and gas sector in Nigeria. The FGN controls and owns the land with its natural resources in the sub-soil, and land can be taken over by the government for over-riding public purposes in line with the Land Use Act 1978. This is a key source of conflict in the region (NDDC, 2001, 2004). The period 2006-2009 in the Niger Delta was marked by wide-ranging insecurity, sabotage of oil company equipment, violence with rival militant groups, the kidnapping of oil workers, illegal oil bunkering, car bombing and violent clashes with government forces (PIND, 2015a, 2015b, 2017, 2018). The militant groups blamable for much of these conflicts and devastations in the region include the Egbesu Boys, Niger Delta Volunteer Force, Arogbo Freedom Fighters, Movement for the survival of the Ijaw Ethnic Nationality (MOSEIN), Joint Revolutionary Council, Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND), MEBUTU etc (Aderogba, 2016b; Ajibola, 2015; Ajodo-Adebanjoko, 2017).

Before these years of severe militancy activities and violence in the region, Nigeria was chief producer and exporter of oil in Africa. The rise in violence, however, held up the exploration of oil, the nation’s oil production capacity dropped from 2 million barrels to 800,000 per day. This resulted in a substantial decline in the nation’s oil revenue, and displacement as the number one oil producer and exporter in Africa, which, in turn, further led to sharp drop in the nation’s foreign investment (Akinbobola & Aderoba, 2016; Akinwale, 2010). It is against this unwanted development that the late President of Nigeria, Umaru Musa Yar’Adua, established the Presidential Amnesty Programme (PAP) in 2009 to realize sustainable peace, human and environmental security in the Niger Delta region (Chikwem & Duru, 2018; Davidheiser & Nyiaayaana; Ebiede, 2018). The central aim of this programme was to grant pardon to all militants that turned in their arms within a 60 day period, between August and October 2009. Besides, the ex-militants were to receive a monthly stipend of N 65, 000 (USD 180) each, and go through government funded skills acquisition empowerment training from 2010-2015 within and outside the nation for acquiring gainful employment and reintegration into the society when the programme is completed (Etekpe, 2012; Essien, 2008; Ering et al, 2013). Since PAP’s inauguration, a projected amount of 234 billion naira (USD 645 million)
has been purportedly spent and figure 1 indicates trends in mortality rate due to group-based violence in Niger Delta during the period of 2009-2017. (PIND, 2015a, 2015b, 2018).

![Figure 1. Trend in fatalities due to group based Violence in Niger delta since 2009](image)

**Source:** PIND, 2018/Authors’ modification

Nevertheless, PAP has continued to be a disputatious policy issue. As a concept, it has been seriously criticized, and there is now fierce debate over conflict deterrence in the aftermath of the PAP. While advocates view PAP as a vehicle for violence reduction, including the submission of notable militant leaders, and a decline in threats to oil exploration and production, critics see it as an avenue for purchasing of peace, believing the rebellion will return if the payments cease (Nwobueze & Inokoba, 2017; Obi, 2014; Mbalisi et al, 2012; Odubo & Tabor, 2016; Ogbruene, 2017; Ogege, 2011; Olatoke & Olokoba, 2012). This variance in views invariably sets the background for the sustainable peace building and development in the post-amnesty programme. In the present day, debates on post-amnesty programme seems to be tilting towards the role of MOCs corporate social responsibility (CSR) making use of general memorandum of understanding (GMoU) for sustainable peace building and development in the Niger Delta region (Uduji & Okolo-Obasi, 2017, 2018c, 2018d, 2019). Over the years, the MOCs have boosted how they get involved in local communities to deliver the CSR interventions in social projects and programmes in the Niger Delta. In 2006, MOCs made known a new way of working with communities called the GMoU which represent a vital tilt in approach, emphasizing on a clearer and more accountable process, regular communication with the grassroots, conflict prevention, and sustainability (SPDC, 2013, Chevron, 2014, 2017). MOCs, by the end of 2012, have signed
agreements with 33 clusters, covering 349 communities, which is about 35% of the local communities within their business operations in the region. A total of 723 projects were effectively completed through the GMoUs; the cumulative total funding for GMoU projects and programme was over $117 million. In addition, nine of the Cluster Development Boards (CDB) have grown to become registered foundations who in the present receive third party funding (Chevron, 2017; SPDC, 2013). Yet, academics such as Idemudia (2014), Alfred (2013), Marchant (2014), Ekhator (2014) and others have disputed that the new CSR model (GMoU) is not far reaching or deeply rooted as many communities still face various problems including oil spillage, gas flaring and violence amongst others. In a contrary view, Uduji et al (2018b, 2019b, 2019c, 2019d), Lombo & Trani (2013) support CSR initiatives of MOCs, insisting that GMoU model is making positive mark in the area of community development initiatives in the Niger Delta. Based on that, this paper tries to establish the level of joblessness among youths, the level of CSR investment that MOCs have made in the area of entrepreneurship development as well as to determine the level of assistance from such investment that accrue to the youths (especially the ex-militants). In addition, the study examines the impact of CSR investment of the MOCs on job creation for youths in the rural Niger Delta region of Nigeria. These five areas of focus also reflect the following questions:

- To what degree are youths without a job along sex, age, and location (urban/rural) in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?
- What is the level of MOCs’ CSR investment in entrepreneurship development in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?
- Do GMoU interventions of MOCs impact on the ex-militant entrepreneurship development in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?
- How does the GMoU interventions of the Multinationals trigger job creation for youths in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?
- What are the effects of entrepreneurship development in Nigeria’s Niger Delta post-amnesty era?

1.1 Study hypothesis

The over three years of severe militancy activities and violence in the Niger Delta which saw the Nigeria’s oil production capacity drop to an all-time low, resulted in President Yar’Adua declaring the Presidential Amnesty Programme in 2009. The programme made available amnesty from prosecution for ex-militants in return for the surrender of arms, and ongoing financial motivations to maintain peace. In complement, MOCs have presented a new way of
working with communities called the GMoU, emphasizing on regular communication with the grassroots, sustainability and avoidance of conflict. Yet, the rates of unemployment in the region are higher than the national average. As a result, we hypothesize that MOC’s CSR has not made significant impact on entrepreneurship development and creation of jobs to absorb the ex-militant that take part in the government sponsored skill acquisition empowerment training for the post-amnesty programme in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

This paper, in its positioning, departs from existing African amnesty programme literature, which has aimed at, *inter alia:* the search of sustainable peace in the Niger Delta through the amnesty programme (Oludoro & Oludoro, 2012); understanding justice and equity in the Niger Delta amnesty programme (Omokha, 2015); challenges and opportunities in amnesty to Niger Delta militants for future peace mission (Thom-Otuya & Eremie, 2011); challenges and prospects of post-amnesty programme in the Niger Delta (Oluwaniyi, 2011); amnesty programme as a peacebuilding initiative in Niger Delta, Nigeria (Tobor & Odubo, 2017); political economy of amnesty programme for sustainable peace and development of the Niger Delta (Udoh & Chijioke, 2017); the impact and challenges in post conflict in Niger Delta amnesty programme (Omolhoa & Ikelegbe, 2016); dissent and state excesses in the Niger Delta (Omotola, 2009); peril of pluralisms in electoral violence and incumbency in sub-Saharan Africa (Taylor *et al*, 2017); a silver bullet in the Nigeria’s amnesty programme as a peacebuilding infrastructure (Ushie, 2013); timing and sequencing in peacebuilding of the Niger Delta amnesty programme (Ukiwo, 2016); oil and militancy in Nigeria’s Niger Delta region (Oluwaniyi, 2010); a qualitative review of the militancy, amnesty, and peacebuilding in Nigeria’s Niger Delta (Udoh, 2013); causes and consequences of crude oil pipeline vandalism in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria (Umar & Othma, 2017); and Niger Delta militants with respect to the Movement for Emancipation of the Niger Delta (UNHCR, 2011).

The other contents of the paper can be adumbrated as follows: section 2, examining the background and theoretical underpinnings; section 3, describing the materials and methods; section 4, presenting the results and corresponding discussion; then, section 5, concluding the work with implications and future research directions.
2. Background and Theoretical Underpinnings

2.1 The Context of the Niger Delta

The Niger Delta is an enormous 70,000km$^2$ oil basin in the Southern Nigeria that is made up of nine administration states (Figure 2). The region is characterized by notable ethnolinguistic diversity and communities that were economically marginalized during the colonial rule of the British in Nigeria (Watts, 2004). Since the independence of the country, the communities have persisted in their protest about their remaining in a position of marginal status in a federation that is dominated by the ethnic majorities of the Hausa-Fulani, Igbo and Yoruba (NDDC, 2001; Watts, 2004). The entrance of extraction of oil into this conflict added a new dynamic to the bitterness of these communities. They have agitated that income from oil are not shared to the local governments and, thus, they continued to be excluded from the oil wealth, even when the oil is drilled from their communities (NDDC, 2004). These records of the past happenings and exclusion have interacted with the developments of oil spillage and gas flaring that made farming and fishing, which are the traditional sources of the people’s livelihood, either no longer worthwhile or experience significant drop (Uduji & Okolo-Obasi, 2018a, 2018b). As a result, the unemployment rates of the region and the speedily growing population stay higher than the national average (Uduji et al, 2018a, 2019a, and 2019b). The accumulation of these events could have somewhat added to the rise of militant youth groups that line up themselves with traditional rulers and partake in sabotage of MOCs equipment and engage in violence with competing groups in order to extract concession and compensations from the MOCs for their communities (Watts, 2014; Oluwaniyi, 2010). The destruction of the environment which goes with oil extraction, along with the relationship between MOCs and the Nigerian government, including the deficiency in revenue sharing, could have provoked these protests being amplified and directed towards MOCs in the Niger Delta region.
2.2 General Memorandum of Understanding

MOCs participate in a plethora of CSR activities in the Niger Delta and other parts of Nigeria. Each year, MOCs finance social projects and programmes in communities predominantly in the host communities (Akpan, 2006). Over the years, MOCs have tried to enhance on their engagements with the local communities to deliver these projects. Even with a century of experience in Nigeria, MOCs anticipate that creating and executing the GMoU would at first be challenging given the history of social strife amid various ethnic groups, each with its own languages and dialects in the region (Chevron, 2014). A GMoU is a written statement between MOCs and a group (or cluster) of several communities. Clusters are centered on local government or clan/historical affinity lines as advised by the appropriate state government. The structures of governance are well defined, having a 10-person community trust, a CDB and a steering committee chaired by the state government (SPDC, 2013). The CDB serves as the main supervisory and administrative organ, making sure projects are implemented and setting out plans/programmes; it is the decision-making committee, and the GMoU empowers representatives of the state and local governments, MOCs, non-profit organizations (such as NGOs interested in development) to come together under the umbrella of the CDB as the governing body (Alfred, 2013). Based on the terms of the GMoUs, the communities agree on the development they want while MOCs make available secure funding for five years, seeing to it that the communities have stable and dependable financing as they take on the execution of their community development plans. In addition, MOCs provide access to development experts to supervise project execution and build the capacity of the CDBs to grow into active community development functions (SPDC, 2013). This system substitutes the previous approach whereby MOCs decided on hundreds of separate development projects with individual communities and managed them directly and distinctly. According to Uduji et al (2018b, 2019b, 2019c, 2019d) GMoUs have brought about better ownership and a robust sense of pride amongst communities as they are responsible for the execution of their projects; besides, the openness and accountability in the GMoU model provides a good ground for other local and international donor agencies to finance development projects directly through the CDBs.
2.3 Theoretical Underpinnings

The exploration of CSR in developing countries has been used to question the accuracy and usefulness of Carroll’s CSR Pyramid (Carroll, 1991). For example, Visser (2006) disputed that the task for CSR in developing countries is outlined by a vision that was distilled in 2000 into the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of a world with less poverty, better educated children, reduced hunger and disease, greater survival prospects for mothers, and their infants, equal opportunities for women, and a healthier environment. Regrettably, these goal aspirations are far from being met in many developing countries at present. The question addressed by this paper, as a result, is: Do GMoU intervention of MOCs impact on the ex-militant entrepreneurship development in the Nigeria’s post-amnesty programme in the Niger Delta region? Amaeshi et al (2006) have reasoned that the Nigerian idea of CSR remarkably vary from the Western version, and should be targeted towards addressing the distinctiveness of the socio-economic development challenges of the country (e.g. poverty alleviation, health care provision, education, infrastructural development, etc.) and should be informed by socio-cultural influences (e.g. communalism and charity); the popular Western standard/expectations of CSR might not essentially be reflected (e.g. consumer protection, fair trade, green marketing, climate change concerns, social responsible investments etc). Uduji & Okolo-Obasi (2017, 2018c, 2018d, 2019) certified that charitable initiatives as CSR by companies are predominant in Nigeria. Thus in developing countries, the insufficiency of government action in making available amenities for its citizens emphasizes the role of multinationals in CSR and liberaly which are not regarded as CSR in Western countries (Frynas, 2009). Muthuri (2012), depending on the extent literature on CSR in Africa, posited that the CSR issues predominant in Africa include poverty reduction, education and training, economic and enterprise development community development, health and HIV/AIDS, sports, human right, environment, corruption and governance and accountability. Quite a number of other studies have also looked at the CSR concept and initiatives of MOCs long-term outcome and beneficiaries in the oil producing communities, which include: Ite (2007), Edoho (2008), Tuodolo (2009), Eweje (2006), Asongu et al (2019a, 2019b, 2019c, 2019d), etc. Yet, this study is different from extant literature by explicitly concentrating on the existing relationship between MOCs GMoU interventions and the ex-militant entrepreneurship development in Nigeria’s post-amnesty programme in the Niger Delta region. Since the expended GMoU model attempts to increase household revenues, employment, and development of small-scale businesses, then, align projects and programmes with the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) for the
improvement of health, education and gender equity as well as to promote peace and justice, this paper, thus, adopts quantitative methodology but looks at the result from the outlook of CSR in an African context.

### 3. Materials and Method

Data triangulation at multiple levels was used in this study. To this, we made use of both primary and secondary data in the analysis. In reaction to the dearth of quantitative data in the area of CSR studies in the region (Uduji and Okolo-Obasi, 2018c; Uduji \textit{et al}, 2018c, Lompo and Trani, 2014), we adopted a quantitative method in the study. Survey research technique was put to work with a view to collecting information from a representative sample in the oil producing communities of the Niger Delta region. Cross-sectional primary data was collected using semi structured interview questionnaire which profiled the individual, households as well as communities in the study area. We gleaned secondary data from six major multinational oil companies (Shell, Chevron, Total E&P, ExxonMobil, Agip and Halliburton) in the region. These data were used to provide a situational analysis of the GMoU. Also data were gathered from the entrepreneurship development database of the National Bureau of statistics, Nigeria general household survey of 2015-2016, and WDI database (World Bank 2018).

#### 3.1 Sampling procedure

In choosing the respondents, deliberate and simple unsystematic samplings techniques were used. First, we intentionally selected two local government areas (LGAs), each from the Niger Delta region’s nine states. This selection was based on the LGAs hosting multinational oil facilities that have also witnessed or are still witnessing actions of militants. In stage two, also on the same basis of hosting MOC facilities, we purposefully chose three or four communities from each of the selected LGAs. Two communities that have established cluster development board (CDB) and two that have not were picked. Lastly, out of the chosen communities, youths were randomly selected with the help of community leaders to get the required 1200 respondents for the study as shown in Table 1.
Table 1. Sample Size Determination Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>Total Population</th>
<th>Youth Population</th>
<th>Minimum Sample Per Community</th>
<th>Minimum Sample Per State</th>
<th>% of Pop.</th>
<th>Receiver</th>
<th>Non-Receiver</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abia</td>
<td>2,881,380</td>
<td>1,613,573</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akwa Ibom</td>
<td>3,902,051</td>
<td>2,185,149</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross River</td>
<td>2,892,988</td>
<td>1,620,073</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delta</td>
<td>4,112,445</td>
<td>2,302,969</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imo</td>
<td>3,927,563</td>
<td>2,199,435</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ondo</td>
<td>3,460,877</td>
<td>1,938,091</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edo</td>
<td>3,233,366</td>
<td>1,810,685</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bayelsa</td>
<td>1,704,515</td>
<td>954,528</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rivers</td>
<td>5,198,716</td>
<td>2,911,281</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>31,313,901</strong></td>
<td><strong>17,535,785</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
<td><strong>1200</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td><strong>600</strong></td>
<td><strong>600</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2017/Authors’ computation

3.2 Data collection

We made use of participatory research technique (semi-structured interview questionnaire) in gathering CSR impact data, particularly as it concerns the youths in the oil host communities. This is based on fact that it encompasses directly those being studied, and the handling of their opinions is very essential (Uduji & Okolo-Obasi 2017, 2018a, 2018d). The semi-structured interview questionnaire was administered directly with the assistance of research aides. The local research assistants were required in order to bridge the language barrier due to the participation of many ethnic groups in the region. Also, the land is very rough with a high level of ferocity in some areas, and would require a local (an indigenous person) assistant.

3.3 Analytical framework

In the analysis of data collated from the study, both descriptive and inferential statistics were applied so as to answer the study questions and test the hypotheses. Objective 1, 2 and 5 were realised using the descriptive method of data analysis and the outcomes are presented in frequency tables, graph and charts. To attain objective 3 & 4; advanced econometrics technique of logit model was estimated. This binary choice model provides the opportunity to identify the probability of taking part based on the subject of the study, which is the probability of a youth partaking in GMoU cluster capacity building and empowerment due to the CSR support of the MOCs. The dependent variable (probability of getting involved in GMoU cluster empowerment programme) regresses up against the observable individuals,
household cum community level characteristics which include receipt or non-receipt of CSR backing.
Hence for the binomial responses, the linear regression model of the odds ratios is stated thus:

\[
\log \left( \frac{p_i}{1-p_i} \right) = \log \left( \frac{Y}{1-Y} \right) = \alpha + \beta_i I_i + \gamma_i H_i + \pi_i C_i + \mu \quad \text{Equation 1}
\]

Where:
\(\alpha\) - Vector of coefficient of independent variation,
\(\beta\) = Vector coefficient of variables, which indicate individual characteristics,
\(\gamma\) = Vector coefficient of variables, which indicate household characteristics,
\(\pi\) = Vector coefficient of variables, which indicate community level characteristics,
\(Y\) = whether the individual is self-employed or not i.e. 1= self-employed 0= not self-employed,
\(P_i\) = probability of \(Y=1\)
\(I_i\) - Vector variables, which indicate individual characteristics,
\(H_i\) - Vector variables, which indicates household characteristics,
\(C_i\) - Vector variables, which indicates community characteristics and
\(\mu\) - Error term

In order to make certain a more detailed and properly demonstrated work, the marginal effects of the independent variable to the dependent variables were estimated. On the other hand, multicollinearity test based on variance inflation factor (VIF), correction method for heteroskedasticity problem, and specification tests were carried out to validate how the variance of an estimator is inflated by the presence of multicollinearity. In accordance with the position of Gujarati, (2004), the variables is said to be highly collinear if the VIF of a variable surpasses 10. After the post optimality tests of endogeneity and multicollinearity was made, our discovery shows a mean VIF result of less than 10. Therefore, the variables are not highly collinear.

4. Results and Discussion
4.1 Socio-economic characteristics analysis
We commence the analysis with a description of some of the social (household, location, income etc), demographic (age, marital status, household size etc), and economic
(occupation, business size, household income etc) characteristics of the respondents. These characteristics are essential in understanding the variances in the socio-economic status of the respondent who have received CSR support for empowerment compared to their non-receiving counterparts. Analysis (Table 2) shows that about 28% of the respondent from communities with established CDBs (CDB communities) are unemployed, while 33% of those from communities without established CDBs (non-CDB communities) are unemployed; 13% of the youths in the CDB communities are private entrepreneurs, while 7% of the youths in non-CDB communities are private entrepreneurs. About 18% of the youths in CDB communities are involved in one handicraft or the other, while just 6% are involved in same from non-CDB communities. Others are involved in either small-scale subsistence farming, fishing or trading, most of which can be termed underemployed. The response also shows that the CDB communities have 53% male and 47% female respectively; while for the non-CDB communities it is 58% male and 42% female. This reveals that both male and female youths are sufficiently represented in the sample; in other words, gender sensitive. The average age of the respondent from both categories of the communities falls within 26 to 30 years of age. Only 3% of the respondents from CDB communities are illiterate while for the non-CDB communities, they are 8%. This indicates that among the youths, literacy level is very high (97% for CDB communities and 92% for non-CDB communities). Furthermore, the analysis (Table 2) reveals that despite the ample potentials of entrepreneurship development in the host communities, the average annual revenue of the youths is less than NGN150,000 (equivalent of 429 USD) per annum (approximately 1.2 USD per day). This indicates that most of the youths still live on less than 2 USD per a day; which is far below poverty level.
Table 2. Socio-economic characteristics of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Receivers</th>
<th>Non-Receivers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary Occupation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farming</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trading</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishing</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paid Employment</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handicraft</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneurs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>600</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age of Respondents</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 20 years</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25 years</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30 years</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 - 35 years</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 - 40 years</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 40 years</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>600</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level of Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>600</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sex of respondents</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>600</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Computed from the field data by authors

This information (Table 2) did flow in line with SPDC (2013) claims that Nembe City Development Foundation (NCDF) in Bayelsa State were given a total of $90,000 as counterpart funding from a partnership between PACT Nigeria, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and Foundation for Partnership Initiative in the Delta (PIND) under the Advocacy, Awareness and Civic Empowerment (ADVANCE) programme. Moreover, this instance of noticing failed to give approval to SPDC (2013) assertion that the
funding was used for a capacity building programme – “Add their voice to the Budget” (ATVB) – for all GMoU clusters in Bayelsa state; that also the program was intended to equip the GMoU clusters with pertinent skills required for peaceful engagement and to complement governments effort in the planning and execution of the development plan for the respective communities.

![Figure 3. Rate of unemployment/underemployment by sex](image)

**Source:** Computed from the field data by authors

Analysis (Figure 3) indicates that among the unemployed and underemployed youths, 21% of male youths (CDB communities) are unemployed while 19% are underemployed. For the female youths within the same communities, 20% and 27% are unemployed and underemployed respectively. On the other hand, 37% of males from non-CDB are unemployed, while 31% are underemployed. For females, it is 22% unemployed and 23% underemployed. This shows that despite the much emphasis and attentions on the male ex-militants, female youths are still more engaged than the males. Again, this finding is unable to assent to SPDC (2013) report that the total of 61 representatives from the GMoU clusters comprising of youth, women leaders and traditional rulers effectively completed the ATVB training on budget tracking and advocacy skills. This puts forward that GMoU approach of MOCs is well positioned to build community capacity to drive own development, but it is yet to create platform for other development actors.
Analysis (Figure 4) reveals that the youth unemployment and underemployment is more in the urban than in the rural areas; in addition, while more male youths (36%) are unemployed in the urban, more female youths (29%) are underemployed in the rural areas. This finding is likely to correspond with Chevron (2014) in that MOCs have sustained partnership with rural young farmers associations such as Ubuluku Cassava Farmers Association in Delta State for a pilot project demonstration to share best practices in cassava farming (which attracted more than 200 young rural male farmers; and further identified with agriculture service providers, Notore, Jubaili and Harvest plus provision of fertilizer and herbicides for demonstration).

Analysis (Figure 5) shows that 56% of the youths want to be fully engaged in entrepreneurship; while 21% opt for part-time engagement; then, 9% are uninterested, while 14% are undecided. This intensely paints the picture that any mindful effort made to expose the youths to the basic mentorship, skills and resources in enterprise development will
enhance their involvement and vest them with power in playing decisive roles in entrepreneurship. This observation comply with Chevron (2017) preference in that the youth capacity building programme piloted by the MOCs in partnership with African Center for Leadership and Strategic Development (ACLSD) trained 40 youths in leadership, programme management and peacebuilding, ICT skills, in addition to a six-month mentorship programme.

![Figure 6. Reason for not being an entrepreneur](image)

**Source:** Computed from the field data by authors

In figure 6, we reveal the major reason most of the youths are not entrepreneurs despite their interest. While 27% of the male youth points at unproductive assets like polluted water and degraded lands, 28% of the female fault lack of startup capital. This indicates that many of the female youths have acquired entrepreneurship trainings but lack the capital. This is shown in the fact that only 15% of them complained of insufficient training compared to their male counterpart (25%) making similar complaint. Uduji and Okolo-Obasi (2017) are in agreement with the need of GMoU intervention in equipping the next generation of the oil producing communities with necessary skills, in that of the 80 youth exposed to training in ACLSD second cycle in 2014, at least 30 are engaging in social work in the communities and 61 are currently making money through entrepreneurship. Trainees who have passed through the programme testify to noteworthy and positive changes in their disposition and attitude, as well as improved sense of purpose.
Figure 7. Percentage distribution of CSR intervention of MOCs by sectors in the Niger Delta.

Source: Computed from the field data by authors

Analysis (Figure 7) reveals the level of investment and involvements of the MOCs in the communities. It shows that education (teacher’s training, library and laboratory equipment, provision of infrastructure, and scholarship) accounts for 25% of the CSRs of the MOCs. Health services accounted for 18%; chieftaincy matters 10%, agriculture and rural farming 7%; while policy advocacy accounts for 3%. Capacity building and skill acquisitions accounts for 8%, while the matter of our interest (study) accounts for 5% (which is not too big but significant). This suggests the GMoU interventions for youth cluster entrepreneurship development does not inspire innovation and learning for job creation.

Figure 8. Percentage distribution of CSR intervention of MOCs by sectors in the skill acquisition and capacity building

Source: Uduji and Okolo-obasi, 2019/Authors’ modification.

Analysis (Figure 8) shows that, out of the 8% assigned to skill acquisition and capacity building, the catchment areas of MOCs capacity building using GMoU is circulated thus:27%

\[ \text{HR = Housing and Roads, HS = Health Services, CM = Chieftaincy Matters, TD = Tourism Development, FB = Fishing Business, WD = Women Development, DYE = Direct Youth Employment, RE = Rural Electrification, PA = Policy Advocacy, EDU = Education, ARF = Agriculture and Rural Farming, SA&CB = Skill Acquisition & Capacity Building} \]

\[ \text{OEDT, PET, Sch, ASA, AGE, OMGPP} \]
in the area of peaceful engagement training; 21% in the area of operation and maintenance of gas/power plants; 8% in agro entrepreneurship development receives while other entrepreneurship development and training received 21%. This proposes that, though the CSR of the MOCs are mostly aimed at the areas that guarantee their exploration in a peaceful atmosphere, some good amount of resources have been channeled toward improving the capacity and business development of the host communities. However, further analysis shows that the beneficiaries of such helpful involvements are mainly urban based, while little attention are paid to the bulk living in rural areas. This finding is confirmed in SPDC (2013) in that using the GMoU platform and structure in Oyigbo cluster GMoU, River State, the Afam Gas and Power Asset is at present giving hands-on capacity/Local content development through a two-year training for fifteen (15) engineering graduates from the Afam VI power plant host communities. This is also reinforced in Uduji et al (2019c, 2019d) in that this was the first phase of a two-pronged programme targeted at training a total of 30 such youths over a period of four years; the training concentrates on operations and upkeep of the power plant and its supporting facilities.

![Figure 9. Rate of receipt of GMoU CSR intervention by household.](image)

Source: Computed from the field data by authors

Analysis (Figure 9) shows that out of the respondents that have received direct intervention as CSR from the MOCs, about 43% (male) and 22% (female) youths are resident in the urban areas, while 20%(male) and 12% (female) are resident in the rural communities. This shows that while about 68% of the receipt went to the urban only 32% found its way to the rural. This analysis is acknowledged in Uduji et al (2019e, 2019f) in that in the Niger Delta, income inequality is mirrored in uneven access to resources and opportunities between rural and urban resident, and between women and men. This puts forward how tailor-made GMoU pro-youth can provide them with the skills and insights needed to take part in entrepreneurship development in Nigeria’s oil producing communities.
4.2 Econometric analysis

In line with the selected characteristics which capture the GMoU receivers and their counterparts’ pertinent observable differences, the probability of attaining the position of an entrepreneur through receiving CSR support is predicted. The Logit model as built has the reported analysis (Table 3), the estimated coefficients; the odd ratio are conveyed in terms of odds of $Z=1$, the marginal effect and standard error. Examining single observables, it is revealed that primary occupation, educational level of the respondents, and perception of the GMoU are factors that positively impact on their involvement in the GMoU clusters.

Table 3. Logit model to predict the probability of receiving strategic CSR conditional on selected observables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Odd Ratio</th>
<th>Marginal Effect</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age$^3$</td>
<td>-.037</td>
<td>.893</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.091</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>-0.214</td>
<td>.0231</td>
<td>.0037</td>
<td>.043</td>
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<td>PriOcc</td>
<td>.328</td>
<td>.692</td>
<td>.102*</td>
<td>.412</td>
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<tr>
<td>Polaff</td>
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<td>1.31</td>
<td>.0521</td>
<td>.013</td>
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<tr>
<td>Edu</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>1.170</td>
<td>.015**</td>
<td>.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AY</td>
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<td>.01014</td>
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<td>MS</td>
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<td>HMY</td>
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<td>.205</td>
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<tr>
<td>LoctN</td>
<td>.529</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>.0321</td>
<td>.197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception of GMoU</td>
<td>1.425</td>
<td>8.243</td>
<td>.072*</td>
<td>.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.169</td>
<td>4.381</td>
<td>.01216</td>
<td>.617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Likelihood Ratio - LR test ($\rho=0$) $\chi^2 (1) = 8135.31^*$

Likelihood Ratio - LR test ($\rho=0$)

Pseudo $R^2$ 0.744

*= significant at 10% level; ** = significant at 5% level; and *** = significant at 1% level

Source: Computed from the field data by authors.

A test of the full model against a constant only model was statistically significant, showing that the predictors as a set dependably distinguished between the “yes” and “no” impact of strategic CSR (chi square = 38.721, $p < .000$ with df= 8). Nagelkerke’s $R^2$ of .744 showed a strong relationship between prediction and grouping. Prediction success overall was 89% (90%

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$^3$Age = Age of the respondent youth measured in number of years, Sex = the natural sex of the respondent (male or female) PriOcc, = primary (major) occupation of the youth, Polaff = political affiliation of the youth measured with a dummy (member of ruling party = 1 otherwise = 0); Edu = highest educational attainment of the respondent, measured in number of years spent in formal education, AY = annual income of the respondent measured in Nigeria naira (NGN), MS = marital status, HMY = income of other household members measured in NGN, LoctN = location of the respondent (urban =1 rural = 0) and CDB perception = how the respondent youth see the cluster development board.
percent for yes and 88 percent for the no). The Z-value for the perception of GMoU is 6.317, with an associated p-value of .0065. On the basis of the set 5 percent significant level, the study concludes that GMoU interventions have made significant impact on empowering the youths of Niger Delta region. Also, the EXP (B) value of the Predictor – Perception of GMoU is 8.243, which denotes that if the MOCs raise their GMoU intervention aimed at enhancing job creation and youth empowerment by one unit, the odds ratio is 8.2 times as large, and thus youths will be 8.2 times more implicitly engaged in entrepreneurship development and job creation for themselves.

On the whole, this study explores the nature of CSR in an African context. In synchrony with Visser (2006), it proposes that the relative priorities of CSR in Africa should likely vary from the classic American ordering. Also, the finding steadfastly adheres to Ameshi (2006) in that CSR in Nigeria should be targeted towards addressing the distinctiveness of the socio-economic development challenges of the country. However, by extension and contribution, we argue for the importance of cultural context in the determination of suitable MOCs’ CSR priorities and programmes that generally improve on youths’ entrepreneurship development and ex-militant in particular. We contend for GMoU cluster interventions that prompt job creations for youths, sustainable peacebuilding and development in Nigeria’s post amnesty programme in the Niger Delta. Taking on entrepreneurship development should form the foundation of CDB practices designed to equip the GMoU clusters with necessary skills for sustainable livelihoods. Addressing this will prove vital to increasing youth’s (ex-militants in particular) involvement in the entrepreneurship development and job creations, and eventually addressing the significant untapped potentials of this sizeable and growing demographic. In Niger Delta in particular, assisting the youth cohort’s involvement in entrepreneurship has the potential to drive widespread poverty reduction among youths and adults alike.

5. Concluding Implications and Future Research Directions
More than three years of severe militancy activities and violence in the Niger Delta resulted in the Nigeria’s oil production capacity dropping to an all-time low, leading President Yar’Adua into declaring the Presidential Amnesty Programme in 2009. The programme made available amnesty from prosecution for ex-militants in return for the surrender of arms, and ongoing financial inducements to maintain peace. In complement, MOCs have presented a new way of working with communities called the GMoU, emphasizing on regular communication with the masses, sustainability and avoidance of conflict. Yet, the region’s
unemployment rates are higher than the national average. Thus, we set out to look at the impact of GMoU on entrepreneurship development and job creation for youths in the region. A total of one thousand two hundred youths were sampled across the nine states of the Niger Delta. Results from the use of estimated logit model show that GMoU interventions of MOCs have become very popular with communities, with greater ownership leading to better projects, sustainability and improved trust; yet, entrepreneurship development and job creation for the youths in the region did not significantly improve. These articulate two challenges in the post amnesty drive for sustainable peacebuilding and poverty reduction in the Niger Delta. Hence, there is the short- to medium-term challenge of making sure that the ex-militant can be integrated productively into the economy, and the longer-term challenge of the youths’ transitioning to lower fertility levels.

While these challenges are intricate and interwoven, a coordinated response of the public and private sector is needed to increase youth’s participation in the entrepreneurship development; which is more imperative than ever, as rising regional population and increased unemployment gains mean that youths must play a pivotal role in ensuring a future for them and for the future generation. The private sector is in the best position to address some of the challenges that face youths’ entrepreneurship development in the Niger Delta. MOCs, in particular, are well positioned for the transfer of responsible business practices to economic opportunity and human capital development in Nigeria’s oil producing communities. This study contributes to sustainable amnesty programme from the CSR perspective. However, the main limitation of the study is that it is bound to the scope of oil producing communities in Nigeria. Hence, the findings cannot be generalized to other developing countries with the same policy challenges. In the light of this shortcoming, replicating the analysis in other countries is advisable in order to look at whether the recognized nexuses withstand empirical examination in diverse oil producing contexts of developing regions.

**Disclosure Statement**

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.
References


