

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN QUEENSLAND

**AN EXAMINATION OF SOCIAL AND
ENVIRONMENTAL DISCLOSURES IN NIGERIAN
OIL COMPANIES**

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ABSTRACT

A review of the Social and Environmental Disclosures (SED) literature reveals that this area of accounting has been the subject of various studies in different countries, particularly in developed countries. SED does not apply universally to all countries that are in various stages of economic development and to companies that have differing levels of awareness and attitudes. SED are often perceived as a tool for communicating the social and environmental effects of a company's actions to its relevant interest groups and to the society as a whole. Stakeholders have become increasingly concerned about the way in which companies interact with society and the environment. Consequently, the increased interest in the social and environmental impacts of companies has resulted in heightened pressure from stakeholders for SED. This study seeks to: (1) identify Nigerian host communities' (HCs) perceptions of SED by oil companies; (2) examine the quantity and quality of SED in Nigerian oil companies; and (3) distinguish if there are differences between local and foreign oil companies in regards to their SED.

This study is divided into three parts. In the first part, identifying factors influencing and shaping HCs perceptions present fertile ground for a better understanding of community actions. Primary data was collected through semi-structured interviews from members of three HCs in the Niger Delta; Ogbunabali community in Port Harcourt (Rivers State), Biogbolo community in Yenagoa (Bayelsa State) and Ogonu community in Warri (Delta State). The interview data was recorded, transcribed and qualitatively analysed through content analysis using the NVivo 10 software program. The results show that HCs perceptions are largely informed by the contradictions of wealth generation through oil production amidst widespread poverty resulting in anger, frustration and hostility towards the oil companies. The companies are perceived as being responsible for the negative impacts of oil exploration and extraction. Perceptions regarding both the negative and positive aspects of the oil companies operations were identified. These included environmental concerns; lack of compensation; health effects; lack of social development;

neglecting communities; not creating enough employment opportunities and infrastructure; and not providing community and educational support.

In the second part, this study examined the quantity and quality of SED of the oil companies. Fifteen companies listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange, as well as an additional three non-listed major foreign companies (Shell, Chevron and Agip), were selected for analysis. The latter were chosen because of the scale of their operations in Nigeria. Annual Reports (AR) from 1992 to 2011 were examined using content analysis. SED activities were reported by most of the companies and by quantity, employee information was found to be the most common type of disclosure. Most SED were almost always general and limited in nature, declarative (that is, descriptive) with non-monetary quantification in terms of financial impacts. Companies are engaging in impression management to convince stakeholders, government and the HCs that they are ‘good corporate citizens’. SED quantity and quality in the environment category was found to be overwhelmingly low despite the large scale public concern expressed about the level of environmental degradation caused by the operations of oil companies.

In the third part, this study sought to distinguish SED levels by comparing local and foreign companies operating in the oil sector. It sought to identify differences between local and foreign companies’ SED practices. A Social and Environmental Disclosure Index (SEDI) was constructed to evaluate the contents of SED in AR. Furthermore, a dichotomous method was employed to identify SED sentences based on a checklist of 62 items in the SEDI. Local companies were found to provide more extent, type and nature of SED than foreign companies. However, local companies reported mostly general SED information. Results reveal that majority of the total SED in both local and foreign companies was positive news.

This study enriches the existing SED literature by examining the state of voluntary disclosures made by companies in the context of a developing country. The findings of this study provide more insights into the current status of SED in an environmentally sensitive industry.

CERTIFICATION OF THESIS

I certify that the work presented in this dissertation is entirely my own effort, except where otherwise acknowledged. This thesis represents my own original work and has not previously been submitted for a degree in any other university.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my late Father Professor Odera Ongudu, who passed away during the late stages of this thesis. Baba, thank you for your support, faith and belief in me.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	i
CERTIFICATION OF THESIS	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	vii
DEDICATION	ix
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xxvii
Chapter 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background to the study	1
1.2 Research problem	3
1.3 Aims and research questions	5
1.4 Motivation and contribution	5
1.5 Justification of the study.....	6
1.6 Methodological approach	8
1.7 Structure of thesis	8
Chapter 2 LITERATURE REVIEW	9
2.1 Introduction	9
2.2 SED Theory	9
2.2.1 The nature of SED.....	9
2.2.2 SED information	10
2.2.3 Historical background of SED	11
2.2.4 Motivations for SED	12
2.2.4.1 Business case-related motivation.....	13
2.2.4.2 Morality-related motivation.....	13
2.2.4.3 External pressure-related motivation.....	14
2.2.4.4 Conclusion	14
2.3 SED Evidence.....	15
2.3.1 Examining SED quality.....	15
2.3.2 Developed countries studies on SED practices.....	18
2.3.3 Developing countries studies on SED practices.....	22
2.4 Limitations of prior studies	26
2.5 Conclusion.....	27
Chapter 3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	29
3.1 Introduction	29
3.2 An Integrated Theoretical Framework to study SED	29
3.3 Dialectical Materialism Theory	32
3.4 Alienation Theory.....	34
3.5 Political Economy Theory (PET)	37
3.6 Application of the Adopted Theoretical Framework to this study.....	39
3.7 Conclusion.....	41

Chapter 4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	43
4.1 Introduction	43
4.2 Research design	43
4.2.1 Area of study	44
4.2.2 Study population and sample	45
4.3 Data collection procedures and sources of data	46
4.4 Primary research	47
4.4.1 Interviews	47
4.4.2 Sample selection.....	48
4.4.3 Data collection	49
4.4.4 Unit of analysis for interview data	49
4.4.5 Quality of primary SED data.....	50
4.4.6 Analysis of interview data.....	50
4.4.7 Validity and reliability of interviews	51
4.5 Quantity and quality of SED	52
4.5.1 AR	52
4.5.2 The quantity of SED.....	53
4.5.2.1 SED categories.....	53
4.5.2.2 Unit of analysis for SED quantity	55
4.5.3 The quality of SED.....	56
4.5.3.1 SED quality in AR	56
4.5.4 Analysis of SED quantity and quality.....	58
4.5.4.1 Content analysis	58
4.5.4.2 Analysis	59
4.5.4.3 Validity and reliability of content analysis	59
4.6 Differential reporting of SED between local and foreign oil companies	60
4.6.1 Comparative analysis of differential reporting	60
4.6.2 SEDI Index	61
4.6.3 Analysis	64
4.7 Archival research.....	65
4.7.1 Archival data analysis	66
4.8 Ethical considerations.....	66
4.9 Conclusion.....	67
Chapter 5 RESULTS: HOST COMMUNITIES' PERCEPTIONS OF OIL COMPANIES	69
5.1 Introduction	69
5.2 Previous literature.....	69
5.3 Results	71

5.3.1	Conducting the interviews.....	71
5.3.2	Data coding and analysis.....	71
5.3.3	Description of the sample.....	72
5.3.4	Identification of themes.....	73
5.3.4.1	Relationship between the oil companies and HCs.....	75
5.3.4.2	Participants characteristics on perceptions of negative news of the oil companies	81
5.3.4.3	Perceptions of negative aspects of the oil companies.....	81
5.3.4.4	Participants characteristics on perceptions of positive aspects of the oil companies	86
5.3.4.5	Perceptions of positive aspects of the oil companies.....	86
5.4	Discussion.....	88
5.5	Conclusion.....	92
Chapter 6 RESULTS: SED REPORTING QUANTITY AND QUALITY		95
6.1	Introduction	95
6.2	Sample profile	95
6.3	SED categories	98
6.4	Quantity	100
6.4.1	Number of sentences	101
6.4.2	Number of pages	103
6.4.3	Aggregated SED measures.....	104
6.4.4	Correlation results between SED quantity categories.....	105
6.4.5	Further Analysis	105
6.4.5.1	The reliability of measurement of SED quantity	105
6.4.5.2	Tests of Normality for SED quantity categories.....	106
6.4.5.3	Robustness Tests for SED quantity categories	107
6.4.5.4	Wilks' Lambda or U Statistic for SED quantity	108
6.4.5.5	Multiple Regression Analysis.....	108
6.5	Quality	110
6.5.1	Alternative measure of SED quality	112
6.5.2	Correlation results between SED quality categories.....	114
6.5.3	Further Analysis	114
6.5.3.1	The reliability of measurement of SED quality	114
6.5.3.2	Tests of Normality for SED quality categories.....	115
6.5.3.3	Robustness Tests for SED quality categories	117
6.5.3.4	Wilks' Lambda or U Statistic for SED quality	117
6.5.3.5	Relationship between total SED quality, company size, age and profitability.....	118

6.5.4 Sensitivity Analyses	119
6.6 Discussion.....	119
6.7 Conclusion.....	122
Chapter 7 RESULTS: DIFFERENTIAL REPORTING OF SED BETWEEN LOCAL AND FOREIGN OIL COMPANIES	123
7.1 Introduction	123
7.2 Distinction of sample profile between local and foreign companies .	123
7.3 Comparative analysis between local and foreign companies	124
7.3.1 Descriptive statistics of SED extent in local and foreign companies	125
7.3.2 SED type in local and foreign companies.....	126
7.3.3 SED nature in local and foreign companies.....	128
7.4 SEDI for local and foreign oil companies	130
7.4.1 Further Analysis	135
7.4.1.1 Student t-tests.....	135
7.4.1.2 Kruskal Wallis Tests.....	137
7.4.1.3 Mann Whitney-Wilcoxon Tests.....	138
7.4.1.4 ANOVA	139
7.4.1.5 Multiple Regression Analysis	140
7.4.2 Sensitivity Analyses	141
7.5 Discussion.....	141
7.6 Conclusion.....	144
Chapter 8 CONCLUSION	147
8.1 Introduction	147
8.2 Summary of findings	147
8.2.1 SED practice.....	147
8.2.1.1 HCs perceptions of SED practices of the oil companies	147
8.2.1.2 SED quantity and quality of the oil companies	149
8.2.1.3 Differences between local and foreign companies in regards to the disclosure of social and environmental data	150
8.2.2 SED Theories interpretation.....	151
8.3 Contributions to knowledge	151
8.3.1 Contribution to theory	151
8.3.2 Contribution to practice.....	152
8.4 Implications and Recommendations.....	153
8.4.1 Implications of research findings	154
8.4.2 Recommendations	155
8.5 Limitations of the study.....	156

8.6 Suggestions for future research	157
8.7 Conclusion	158
REFERENCES	159
APPENDICES	217
Appendix 1: Registered oil companies in Nigeria as at 1 st January, 1992	217
Appendix 2: Interview guide.....	221
Appendix 3: Participant Information Sheet	223
Appendix 4: Consent Form	226
Appendix 5: Nomination of proxy supervisor	227
Appendix 6: Acceptance of assistance with data collection	228
Appendix 7: Ethics conditional approval.....	229
Appendix 8: Statement outlining researcher’s safety	230
Appendix 9: Ethics approval.....	231
Appendix 10: Introductory letter.....	232

TABLE OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Types of SED.....	15
Figure 2.2 Country of Origin of SED Published Studies (O'Connor, 2006) ..	18
Figure 4.1 Map of Nigeria.....	45
Figure 4.2 Niger Delta cities	48
Figure 5.1 An illustration of the HCs perceptions of their relationship with the oil companies	74
Figure 6.1 SED categories	99
Figure 6.2 Five Normal Q-Q plots for SED quantity categories	107
Figure 6.3 Five Normal Q-Q plots for SED quality categories	116

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Summary of previous developed countries studies.....	20
Table 2.2 Summary of previous developing countries studies	23
Table 4.1 SED categories.....	53
Table 4.2 Examples for the quality rating score	58
Table 4.3 GRI-based SED scoring index	62
Table 4.4 Details of interviewees' category.....	67
Table 5.1 Matrix Coding Query of participant's characteristics on perceptions of negative aspects of the oil companies.....	80
Table 5.2 Matrix Coding Query of participant's characteristics on perceptions of positive aspects of the oil companies.....	85
Table 6.1 Summary of company profiles of the sample	96
Table 6.2 SED by sample companies.....	100
Table 6.3 Summary of SED disclosures in AR.....	100
Table 6.4 Descriptive statistics of the number of SED sentences.....	102
Table 6.5 Descriptive statistics of the number of SED pages	103
Table 6.6 Descriptive statistics for aggregated SED measures.....	104
Table 6.7 Correlation matrix between SED quantity categories.....	105
Table 6.8 Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test for SED quantity categories	106
Table 6.9 Multicollinearity Tests for SED quantity.....	108
Table 6.10 Wilks' Lambda Tests for SED quantity	108

Table 6.11 Regression output for total SED quantity, company size, age and profitability	109
Table 6.12 Descriptive statistics of the number of quality SED sentences..	111
Table 6.13 Alternative measure of the number of quality SED sentences ..	113
Table 6.14 Correlation matrix between SED quality categories.....	114
Table 6.15 Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test for SED quality categories	115
Table 6.16 Multicollinearity Tests for SED quality.....	117
Table 6.17 Wilks' Lambda Tests for SED quality.....	117
Table 6.18 Regression output for total SED quality, company size, age and profitability.....	118
Table 7.1 Foreign owned Nigeria oil companies	124
Table 7.2 Descriptive statistics of the extent of SED categories in local (L) and foreign (F) companies	125
Table 7.3 Comparison of the type of SED categories in local and foreign companies.....	127
Table 7.4 Descriptive statistics of the type of SED by local and foreign companies.....	128
Table 7.5 Comparison of the nature of SED categories in local and foreign companies.....	129
Table 7.6 Descriptive statistics of the nature of SED in local and foreign companies.....	130
Table 7.7 Distribution of SED indicators in local and foreign companies ..	131
Table 7.8 SED frequency scores in local and foreign companies.....	133
Table 7.9 Items of SED not disclosed by any company	133
Table 7.10 Student t-test results for extent of SED categories	135
Table 7.11 Student t-test results for type of SED in local and foreign companies.....	136
Table 7.12 Student t-test results for the nature of SED in local and foreign companies.....	136
Table 7.13 Kruskal Wallis tests	137
Table 7.14 Mann-Whitney U tests	138
Table 7.15 One-way ANOVA for extent, type, nature of SED in local and foreign companies	139

Table 7.16 Regression output for local and foreign companies SED,
companysize, age and profitability140

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANAN	-	Association of National Accountants of Nigeria
AR	-	Annual Reports
CERES	-	Coalition for Environmentally Responsible Economies
CEO	-	Chief Executive Officer
CSR	-	Corporate Social Responsibility
EDI	-	Environmental Disclosure Index
EPI	-	Environmental Performance Indicators
GRI	-	Global Reporting Initiative
FRCN	-	Financial Reporting Council of Nigeria
HCs	-	Host Communities
HREC	-	Human Ethics Research Committee
ICAN	-	Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria
ISEA	-	Institute of Social and Ethical Accountability
ILO	-	International Labour Organisation
ISO	-	International Organisation for Standardisation
MNCs	-	Multinational Corporations
NAOC	-	Nigerian Agip Oil Company Ltd
NNPC	-	Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation
NGOs	-	Non-governmental Organisations
PET	-	Political Economy Theory
SPDC	-	Shell Petroleum Development Company
SDI	-	Social Disclosure Index
SED	-	Social and Environmental Disclosures
SEDI	-	Social and Environmental Disclosure Index
SPI	-	Social Performance Indicators
R&D	-	Research & Development
UNEP	-	United Nations Environment Programme

Chapter 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Over the last twenty years, SED have become an issue of interest to researchers (Hossain et al, 2006). There has been a significant increase in the number of companies in both developed and developing countries making SED in their AR and other corporate communications over the last two decades (Deegan & Gordon, 1996; Kolk, 2003). Stakeholders have become increasingly concerned about the way in which companies interact with society and the environment. They have equally become concerned about the extent to which the companies were engaged in societal, environmental protection and pollution prevention (Branco et al, 2008; Monteiro & Aibar-Guzmán, 2010). Many companies have responded to stakeholder concerns by voluntarily disclosing social and environmental information in AR or in stand-alone sustainability reports (Kolk & Perego, 2010).

According to Rajapakse & Abeygunasekera (2006), the traditional approaches by corporate entities to accounting only focused on their economic operations. Currently however, SED has been added to corporate financial reports for various reasons: (1) a desire to create, maintain or repair the entity's societal legitimacy (Uwalomwa & Uadiale, 2011); (2) a responsibility of management complying with regulatory requirements and to legitimise various aspects of their respective organisations (Basamalah & Jermias, 2005); (3) to attract investment funds and to comply with borrowing requirements as well as meeting community expectations (Deegan & Blomquist, 2006); (4) to gain competitive advantage and to be socially responsible (Hasnas, 1998); and (5) to manage powerful stakeholder groups (Ullmann, 1985). The above reasons sum up management's quest to meet regulatory and social requirements. Henderson & Peirson (2004) explain that SED covers sustainability so that it reflects concerns about environmental protection and social justice. The introduction of the GRI in the year 2000 proposed certain guidelines to social, environmental and financial reporting that many companies could follow as guidelines. However, SED are still voluntary in most developing countries, including Nigeria, because of a lack of regulation (Ionescu, 2010; O'Dwyer, 2002).

Accounting and reporting systems are challenged by various regulatory perspectives in a multiplicity of social, political and cultural settings. Accordingly, firms need to strive to achieve both financial and societal goals (Brammer & Pavelin, 2004; Gray et al, 1995a; b). Taking care of society and the environment is essential for the long-term sustainability of companies which makes SED an important issue (Pramanik et al, 2007). Cortez & Penacerrada (2010) state that protecting the society and environment is part of the CSR of companies. SED have received increased attention in recent years as a part of an increased interest in sustainable development across the world (see Baxi & Ray, 2009; Farid et al, 2009; Uwalomwa & Uadiale, 2011). SED does not apply universally to all

countries which are in various stages of economic development and with companies having differing levels of awareness and attitudes. However, as economies grow and interact globally, there is likely to be an increasing convergence in SED practices across countries (Ismail & Koh, 1999).

An alternative school of thought argues that companies have no need for an ethical code for their behaviour and that managers merely respond to market, social and political pressures when making SED. According to this school of thought, SED reflect differential political, regulatory and lobbying power in different countries. Where these powers are the strongest, the firm makes greater SED in response. Where powers are weaker, for example in unstable and developing countries (like in Nigeria), managers face less direct pressure to make SED. Actual disclosure may in these circumstances be aimed at government and the public where the company is domiciled, particularly where political, regulatory and lobbying systems are well-developed (Toms, 2008).

The progression from voluntary to mandatory SED in Nigeria can be achieved through regulation and legislation. The introduction of regulation may act as a stimulus to changes in the quantity and/or content of AR voluntary SED (Cowan, 2007). Listed companies in the Nigerian Stock Exchange can be required to publish mandatory SED in AR. If a company does not succeed in its attempts to legitimise through SED, the risk of government intervention may be increased (Wilmshurst & Frost, 2000). Guthrie & Parker (1990) identified greater detail in SED in countries where disclosure legislation exists.

SED, like other accounting disclosures, are responses to the requirements of shareholders. As a powerful interest group, shareholders demand non-financial information as part of a risk management process designed to mitigate political risks. Consequently, SED will be made for the benefit of the domestic population rather than for the benefit of communities impacted by the firms' overseas operations (Toms, 2008).

Olorode (2000) asserts that the socio-environmental induced crisis in the oil sector of the Nigerian economy is a national issue that has created serious security problems for life and property in the area. Over time, oil companies in Nigeria have signed agreements with the government to carry out their industrial activities without acknowledgment of their obligations to the immediate HCs. This has led to social unrest in the oil-rich Niger Delta, as oil companies have for decades continued to violate social and environmental rules to the detriment of the HCs (Owolabi, 2011). The companies have taken advantage of weak laws and regulatory watch agencies, who have failed to regulate their activities. The sector's history in the Niger Delta is characterised by frequent oil spills, environmental degradation and hostile relations between the oil companies and the HCs. The oil companies have faced numerous demonstrations and uprisings against them as the benefits from extracting oil resources profit mainly the elite and leave only oil spills behind (Moen, 2012). It is claimed that the resulting violence, especially in the Niger Delta region, has led to a great

loss of lives and property that could have been avoided if the oil companies had engaged in business practices that were more socially and environmentally sustainable (Owolabi, 2011).

There is little publicly available concrete information on the state of the environment in the delta or the impact that oil production has had. According to Adebola et al (2006), the Niger River Delta extends over 70,000 km² and consists of Bayelsa, Delta, Rivers, Abia, Akwa-Ibom, Cross-River, Edo, Imo and Ondo States. Adebola et al (2006) indicate that some 20 million people from more than 40 ethnic groups speaking about 250 different dialects live in the Niger Delta.

The oil companies claim to have executed several social and environmental projects in the HCs which include: construction of hospitals, roads and schools, provision of potable water, electricity, sponsorships, scholarships and supporting health campaign programmes, among others (Alabi & Ntukekpo, 2012). However, the HCs in Niger Delta seem not to have acknowledged these community development projects. According to Omole (2000), the cordial relationship which existed between HCs and the oil companies has given way to hostility and violence. The hostility takes the form of pipeline vandalism, kidnappings of oil company executives and their families, seizure of oil installations, union militancy, intra and inter-community conflict (Alabi & Ntukekpo, 2012). The crises or upsurge of violence in the Niger Delta is both a matter of national and international concern.

The social and environmental problems caused by the oil industry include cases of open and continuous gas flaring, environmental degradation in the Niger Delta regions, widespread poverty, indiscriminate land and hill clearing, and toxic waste dumping. These have contributed to public concern for the detrimental effects of the operations of the oil companies on the social and natural environment. Due to this public concern and awareness of social and environmental issues, the oil companies operating in Nigeria should respond to such changes by providing SED within their AR (Uwalomwa & Egide, 2012).

1.2 Research problem

Accountability is concerned with creating participative democratic systems where all voices in society are given a fair hearing. It also relates to the notion of 'insight', which permits us to discern what is best for our society, what goals we want to achieve and how companies should operate in our community (Lehman, 1999). The growing concerns about accountability have increased organisations' awareness of the importance of disseminating SED. Thus, organisations use disclosures as a vehicle to enforce the values of social and environmental concerns to the public (O'Dwyer, 2001). This is done to justify the social and environmental values of the companies, decrease tension with pressure groups, build a good corporate image and to show the companies' commitment to social and environmental responsibility (see Buniamin, 2010; Dong & Burritt, 2010; O'Donovan, 2002; Romlah & Sharifah, 2004).

SED serves to provide answers to the following crucial question: what do companies actually disclose when they commit to protecting the natural environment? Since SED is not formalised, companies have freedom to choose the quantity of information, indicators, format and time horizon (Dragomir, 2011). Oil companies are facing increasing pressure to disclose information regarding their social and environmental performance to governments and the public (Wawryk, 2002).

Some reasons oil companies consider SED as relevant and important are: to satisfy community and individual "right to know" requirements; to improve company performance in social and environmental areas by demonstrating corporate accountability for the social and environmental impacts of operations; and to add shareholder value through the demonstration of a superior ability to manage environmental and social impacts (Deegan, 1996).

Nigeria has a population of over 110 million people, is the 12th largest oil producer in the world, the third largest in Africa, and the most prolific oil producer in Sub-Saharan Africa. The Nigerian economy is largely dependent on its oil sector which supplies 95% of its foreign exchange earnings (Amaeshi et al, 2006). Despite this importance, disputes between oil companies and HCs are common in the vast wetland region that pumps all of Nigeria's 2.5 million barrels per day of oil. Rosenstein (2005) notes that despite the fact that Nigeria has generated over USD 300 billion in oil rents over the past 25 years, more than 70% of the population lives in poverty. Oil rents are the revenue received from sale of the resource minus the cost of producing it (Gaddy & Ickes, 2006). Companies thus far have done little to ensure transparency in their business dealings with government, worrying that the enforcement of regulations would cause future oil contracts to be awarded to their competitors. Donwa (2011) asserts that the HCs strongly believe that oil companies show high levels of neglect to the environmental damage caused by their operations which has led to continuous agitations by those inhabiting the immediate community.

The issue at the basis of most civil unrest (the frequency of oil worker assaults, kidnappings, and armed struggle against the Nigerian state and oil companies) is the current inequitable sharing of the country's annual oil revenues among its population. The question of social and environmental responsibilities of the oil companies becomes critical. Civil unrest has resulted in over 700 deaths since 1997 and resulted in the shut in of terminals and flow stations (King & Lawrence, 2005). Ken Saro-Wiwa, spokesperson for the Movement of the Survival of the Ogoni People (MOSOP) until he was hanged in November 1995, maintained that 'I looked at Ogoni [Niger Delta] and found that the entire place was now a wasteland; and that we are victims of an ecological war, an ecological war that is serious and unconventional. It is unconventional because no bones are broken, no one is maimed. People are not alarmed because they cannot see what is happening. But human beings are at risk, plants and animals are at risk. The air and water are poisoned. Human life, flora, fauna, the air, fall at

its feet, and finally, the land itself dies. Oil has brought nothing but disaster to our people [Niger Delta]' (Saro-Wiwa, 1996).

Despite problems associated with unrest, Nigeria's reserves of oil makes it most attractive to the major oil companies, most of which are represented in Nigeria (King & Lawrence, 2005). The contentious nature of oil companies' interactions with HCs often leads to conflicts over access to infrastructure (see Cormier & Magnan, 2007; Diamond, 2011; O'Rourke & Connolly, 2003; Radebaugh et al, 2005; Rena, 2008). The growing concern of civil society and the public regarding oil companies' social and environmental impacts creates a demand for examining the disclosures of these companies.

1.3 Aims and research questions

The study aims to obtain the perceptions of host community members regarding SED of Nigerian oil companies. Combined with an examination of the quantity and quality of disclosure, the study will aim to provide a detailed and concrete analysis of the state of SED of Nigerian oil companies. Importantly, the study will also investigate the oil companies' reactions to community concerns about their operations. Do they change their behaviour to meet community expectations or do they ignore the community reactions? Problems identified include land degradation; oil and air pollution; noise and light pollution; health problems; low agricultural production; socio-economic problems; lack of community participation and weak or non-existent laws and regulations.

Therefore, the main research questions underlying the study are:

RQ 1: What are the host communities' perceptions of the social and environmental disclosures of Nigerian oil companies?

RQ 2: What is the quantity and quality of social and environmental disclosure by Nigerian oil companies to various stakeholders?

RQ 3: Are there differences between local and foreign oil companies in regards to the disclosure of social and environmental data to various stakeholders?

1.4 Motivation and contribution

Many studies of SED in annual or sustainability reports have focused on companies in developed countries such as the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Japan and the European Union, creating a perception that disclosures are a western phenomenon (Hassan, 2010; Kolk et al, 2001). The motivation for using the Nigerian context is that it belongs to an example of developing countries that can be described as having experienced massive degradation and destruction of their environmental systems and natural resources through economic activities. Since SED are largely a voluntary activity, the study is driven by a desire to see companies being held accountable for their social and environmental impacts. Accountability leads to better performance, but much of the current disclosure practices in Africa do not represent a genuine attempt to be accountable. Factors influencing disclosures to improve accountability are: the extensiveness of disclosure; the quantity and quality of disclosure by

companies; the completeness or comprehensiveness of disclosure (by understanding the reasons for non-disclosure) and the potential role of legislation in achieving improvements in SED (Adams, 2002). Adams (2002) argues that the factors influencing SED can be grouped into three: (1) corporate characteristics such as size, industry group, financial/economic performance and risk; (2) general contextual factors such as country of origin, time, specific events, stakeholders and social, political, cultural and economic context; and (3) internal factors such as identity of company chairperson and existence of a social reporting committee. This study is motivated by the observation of the breakdown in the relationship between Nigerian oil companies and the HCs as a result of the environmental impacts of their operations.

There are few studies that have focused on the link between SED and the perceptions of the HCs. Deegan et al (2002) examined whether BHP Ltd disclosed social and environmental information in response to particular social expectations. Guthrie & Parker (1989) undertook a study of the SED practices of BHP Ltd and concluded that the peak in disclosures was associated with a time when mining, steel and oil industries became targets for criticism by conservationists. O'Donovan (1999) found that managers use AR to respond to perceived public concerns, with scrutiny in the news media affecting what information they disclosed. O'Donovan (1999) further suggests that management believe that the AR is an effective way for informing and influencing the public as to the company's view about certain social and environmental issues.

Therefore, this study will contribute to the literature in three ways. Firstly, by extending Deegan et al (2002) to examine the SED of oil companies in Nigeria. Secondly, by extending the study of O'Donovan (1999) to examine the perceptions of HCs on the SED of oil companies in Nigeria. Thirdly, by investigating the differences between local and foreign oil companies in Nigeria regarding their SED.

1.5 Justification of the study

SED activities have increased in recent years in Nigeria as companies attempt to project a positive image to society. Another explanation may be that in the year 2007, Nigeria promulgated the Fiscal Responsibility Act which empowered government to serve as custodian of the citizens' rights (Owolabi, 2011). Economic activity is presently characterised by flagrant pollution of the air, water and environment. This translates to a negative reputation for companies. However, both the business and society gain when firms actively strive to be socially responsible; that is, business organisations gain through an enhanced reputation, while society gains from the social projects executed by business organisations (Adeyanju, 2012). The increase in SED has corresponded with an increase in community concern regarding social and environmental matters (Cunningham, 2002).

This study will provide awareness to organisations on ways to disclose social and environmental information. Moreover, it will make clear the need for monitoring social and environmental performance and improvement.

Furthermore, this study will provide information on ways in which the quality of SED of companies can be measured.

SED have been largely studied in the context of the developed countries (Adams & Kuasirikun, 2000; Milne & Patten, 2002; O'Dwyer, 2002). Prior studies into SED have failed to explain the causal factors that clarify the HCs perceptions and the variations in the disclosure of social and environmental information. This study seeks to fill this gap in the literature with an examination of the SED of oil companies listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange.

The choice of Nigeria stems from the fact that despite obvious oil wealth, the country remains one of the world's 30 poorest countries (World Bank, 2011). Nonetheless, the levels of environmental degradation arising from oil companies' operations have resulted in social unrest, sabotage of oil installations and frequent kidnapping of oil workers. Oil companies have been chosen because they operate in a socially and environmentally sensitive industry. There has been almost continuous animosity amongst the HCs towards the oil companies as a result of detrimental social and environmental outcomes of their operations. Due to highly publicised incidents like the Ogoni incidents, social and environmental issues and the need for disclosure appear to be even more important from the context of a developing country (Belal, 2008; UNRISD, 2000).

This study will investigate oil companies listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange. There are 244 companies listed in various sectors: agriculture, breweries, automobile and tyre, aviation, banking, building materials, chemical and paints, commercial services, computer and office equipment, conglomerates, construction, engineering technology, food/beverages and tobacco, footwear, health care, hotel and tourism, industrial/domestic products, insurance, leasing, machinery (marketing), managed funds, maritime, mortgage companies, packaging, petroleum marketing, printing and publishing, real estate, road transportation, textiles and foreign listings. Two categories are used to select a sample for this study, namely: petroleum marketing and foreign listings. These two categories comprise both upstream (exploration and production) as well as downstream (marketing and distributions) operations. This study concentrates on listed companies due of the accessibility of oil companies' AR through the Securities and Exchange Commission.

Additionally, this study will investigate the perceptions of host community members on the disclosure of SED by the oil companies and their relationships with the HCs. This study has selected three (3) states in which questionnaires are to be administered. The choice of these states is based on the levels of reported/documented kidnappings, environmental pollution and history of social unrest. These states are Rivers, Bayelsa and Delta.

To examine social disclosure the study will focus on the following social factors: interactions with HCs; observed corruption; occupational health and safety; diversity and equal opportunities; customer health and safety. For

environmental disclosure, the study will focus on information regarding: environmental policy; operating and capital environmental expenditures; the net effect of environmental policy on companies operations; plans for environmental improvements in operations; total monetary amount committed to such plans; the monetary amount spent to date; the types of environmentally oriented assets that have and/or will be acquired and the results of environmental audits.

1.6 Methodological approach

Qualitative, interpretive and critical research approaches will be used. The qualitative approach utilises language, descriptions and seeks to understand social phenomena within the context of the participant's perspectives and experiences (Merriam & Associates, 2002). Interpretive research assumes that access to reality is only through social construction such as consciousness, shared meanings and instruments. Interpretive research approach attempts to understand the meaning of phenomena through meanings that people assign to them (Boland, 1991; Kaplan & Maxwell, 1994; Orlikowski & Baroudi, 1991). Critical research approach performs a critique of the current social situation. It also advocates ethical values such as open democracy, equal opportunity and environmental sustainability (Myers, 2008).

What have been the HCs perceptions of the SED of Nigerian oil companies? This will be determined through face-to-face interviews using a semi-structured questionnaire. Content analysis and descriptive statistics will analyse the responses.

What is the quantity and quality of SED of Nigerian oil companies? Content analysis will be used to measure both the quantity and quality of social and environmental disclosure through AR.

What are the differences between local and foreign oil companies in regards to the disclosure of social and environmental data? Analysis of AR will be undertaken. Media articles/reports initiated by oil companies will also be considered. SDI (Sutantoputra, 2009) and EDI (Clarkson et al, 2008) are used to quantify both the quantity and quality of SED in AR.

1.7 Structure of thesis

Chapter 2 discusses the literature review by examining the SED theory and evidence. Chapter 3 focuses on the theoretical framework and discusses three theories, namely Dialectical Materialism theory, Alienation theory and Political Economy theory used to explore the research questions. Chapter 4 explains the research methodology adopted. It also outlines how the data was sourced, collected and analysed using the adopted research instruments. Chapters 5, 6 and 7 will outline the results of the study. Chapter 8 concludes with the outcomes and present the limitations of the study. This chapter will also outline the contributions the study makes to both theory and practice and offer suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The academic literature on SED is particularly concerned with three questions; which, why and what? The first question is: Which companies seem more interested in providing information on their social and environmental responsibilities? To answer this question, the literature provides an empirical analysis of the factors affecting SED. The second question is: Why are companies interested in SED? Some studies explain the motivations of companies to disclose social and environmental information. The third question is: What is the quality of these disclosures? In this context, part of the literature has focused on the SED quality. This chapter is based on a review of previous studies related to SED theory and evidence. The remainder of this chapter is organised as follows: Section 2 considers the literature regarding SED theory; Section 3 assesses SED evidence, while Section 4 identifies gaps in the existing literature.

2.2 SED Theory

2.2.1 The nature of SED

The terms: social and environmental performance information, social and environmental accounting, socio-economic accounting, social and environmental responsibility accounting, social responsibility reporting, sustainability reporting, social and environmental reporting and social and environmental disclosures have been used interchangeably in the literature. This thesis will refer to all the above terms as SED.

According to Hassan (2010), there is no clear definition of what constitutes SED information. Gray et al (2006) define SED as: “The process of providing information designed to discharge social accountability”. Deegan (2001) defines SED as the provision of information about the performance of an organisation in regard to its interaction with its physical and social environment. Adams (2011) asserts that SED involves accounting for and reporting organisations’ policies, procedures and impacts on society and the environment. This study adopts a combination of Adams (2011), and Deegan (2001) SED definitions’ for two reasons: (1) SED will be examined with no distinction between mandatory and voluntary disclosure; (2) SED will be examined in relation to community and environmental activities. Furthermore, SED quantity in this study is defined in terms of the amount of disclosures in AR.

SED has been developed to measure socially and environmentally induced financial impacts (Guo, 2005). The level of SED is influenced by the different stages of social and economic development in a given country which prompt varied demands (Xiao et al, 2005). People in developed economies are less concerned about their basic material needs, but more concerned about social and cultural needs, quality of life, equity, justice and issues arising from polluted air, water and land. They are more aware of and sensitive to social and environmental issues, compared with citizens in developing countries (Xiao et al, 2005).

SED therefore: (1) gives an account of companies' social and environmental activities to all those affected by their activities; (2) is when a company's perception of CSR is in conformity with those of its customers, this will further its financial performance (Lou & Bhattacharya, 2006); and (3) is when companies have as an objective to maximise shareholders' wealth and this objective coincides with its CSR stated goals, the coincidence will positively affect financial performance (Poitras, 1994).

Yuen & Yip (2002) consider SED as a means for recognising performance. Spencer-Cooke (1994) believes that SED can assist a business to boost its reputation, attract the best employees and differentiate itself from less proactive competitors. SED has several roles including; (1) measuring; (2) reporting on; and (3) assessing the effectiveness of social and environmental programs (Jenkins & Yakovleva, 2006). Despite the benefits, the level of SED in developing countries is considerably/fairly low, general and descriptive in nature (Xiao et al, 2005).

Greenwood (2002) indicates that SED is not normally regulated by legislation. Thus the quality, quantity and type of information disclosed by companies in different jurisdictions varies significantly. In a bid to bring the level of quality and consistency to voluntary SED, international agencies have begun to develop standards and guidelines. The most comprehensive of all standards are the AA1000 and the GRI (Owen, 2003). AA1000 was developed by the ISEA and the GRI by the CERES in partnership with the UNEP. The basic principles underlying these standards are: clarity of objectives, a systemic approach, completeness, integrity and independence (Gray, 2001). According to GRI (2002), collectively these principles define a compact between the disclosing organisation and the report user, ensuring that both parties share a common understanding. The principles will 'ensure a true and fair account; facilitate comparison over time and across organisations and credibly address issues of concern to stakeholders' (GRI, 2002).

The literature suggests that the SED research should focus on: (1) the reasons for disclosure; (2) the issues facing the disclosing organisation; and (3) distinguishing SED from other reports (Schaltegger et al, 1996). There is need for companies to disclose their performance on SED to enable society to evaluate the fulfilment of their social contract. Simms (2002) sums up three potential problems of the SED: (1) many of the companies do not clearly understand what SED is; (2) SED activities are largely defensive; and (3) many SED are not independently audited and as such have limited potential for comparability.

2.2.2 SED information

In the absence of legislative requirements, voluntary disclosure demonstrates a commitment to society (Azim, 2010). Van der Laan (2009) asserts that voluntary SED provides information to the public regarding the company's activities that relates to the community and environment. Further he states that: "Much of the demand for SED may be viewed as the result of public desire for information on which to base an opinion about whether or not a company is "appropriate" or "right and proper", that is to evaluate corporate legitimacy. Much of voluntary SED issued by companies may be viewed as efforts at legitimation. This situation allows the reporting company to set the agenda for SED. The company therefore

decides what to report on, how to report, what level of detail is reported and where the information will be published (Gray, 2001). By disclosing information on social and environmental issues, companies can minimise the risk of consumer boycotts, communicate with stakeholders and construct a competitive advantage (Anand, 2002).

Mathews (1993) classifies information arguments of SED into three categories: (1) it has a positive impact on how an organisation performs; (2) it may legitimise the organisations' behaviour by influencing other stakeholders; and (3) it signifies recognition of the organisations accountability to society. Although companies are increasingly disclosing social responsibility information, it is highly questionable whether the current annual, stand-alone or social and environmental reports can satisfy the increasing demand for accountability (see Adams, 2004; Archel et al, 2008; Gray et al, 2001; Milne & Gray, 2007). Hopwood (2009) states that companies report much more on aims and intentions than on actual actions and performance. To close this gap, it is suggested that companies should disclose comprehensively by providing SED information on their: (1) aims and intentions, (2) actions; and (3) subsequent performance (see Adams & Harte, 2000; Adams, 2004; Van Staden & Hooks, 2007).

2.2.3 Historical background of SED

SED originated from a growing public awareness of the role of companies in society and environment (Ratanajongkol et al, 2006). Research into social and environmental accounting and associated disclosure has existed and enjoyed varying levels of interest for several decades (Deegan, 2002; Gray, 2002; Mathews, 1997). Clark (1916) emphasises the importance of transparency in business dealings: "if men are responsible for the known results of their actions, business responsibilities must include the known results of business dealings, whether these have been recognised by law or not". In the early 1930s, Professor Theodore Krels introduced the subject of Business and Social Welfare to Stanford University and used the term "social audit" for the first time in relation to companies reporting on their social responsibilities. Peter Drucker argued in 1942 that companies have a social dimension as well as an economic purpose in his book "The Future of Industrial Man" which addressed primarily responsibility and preservation of freedom (Katsoulakos & Katsoulakos, 2006). Friedman's (1962) assertion that the only proper reason for the existence of a company is to make a profit for its shareholders, may have provided the impetus for an examination of the relationships between social and environmental performance, SED and economic performance. Early research examining these themes focused on SED as a variable in statistical analyses of performance, both social and financial (Gray, 2002).

According to Barr (2011), disclosure related to the social and environmental aspects of business first received significant interest in the 1970s. Considerable debate existed over whether business was responsible for providing those services that were not being supplied by government. At this time, a surplus of companies in the United States and Europe adopted practices of SED, defined at the time as: "the identification, measurement, monitoring and disclosure of the social and economic effects of an institution on society" (Kolk, 2006). As a response to the wider criticism of industrialisation that emerged in the 1960s and 1970s, many

MNCs developed policies for social and environmental responsibility. In the late 1960s, debates about issues like social responsibility and growing concern about the environment played a part in accounting research and business literature (Barut, 2007).

In the mid-1970s there was a change in corporate external disclosure from a largely profit-oriented perspective to a broader view encompassing SED perspective (Ramanathan, 1976). According to Tilling (2004), the accounting firm Ernst & Ernst were the first to document this change (Kolk, 2006). Their survey over a six year period (1972 – 1978) shows an increase in the numbers of companies disclosing information of a social and environmental nature. One of the earliest academic studies in Australia, undertaken by Trotman (1979), concluded that across a number of areas of social concern (including human resource and community categories), the number of companies disclosing information had increased markedly over the period 1967 – 1977. It was noted however, that the actual amount of disclosure within reports was minimal. This supported trends being reported in the US, where companies on the Fortune 500 list increased their SED from 51.4% in 1971 to 85.7% in 1975 (Abbott & Mosen, 1979). In Europe, SED occurred most frequently in Germany, Netherlands and France. Unlike in the United States, European reports focused more on employee matters and less on HCs. These reports contained more quantitative information than those in the U.S. (Kolk, 2006). Nevertheless, SED lost its momentum in the early 1980s as a result of adverse economic conditions.

In the late 1980s, SED re-emerged with most reports attention focused on external, accountability dimensions, influenced by pressure from NGOs (Barr, 2011; Kolk, 2006). Having established that increasing numbers of companies were disclosing information of a social and environmental nature, researchers began to focus on the actual amount of SED within the AR themselves. Cowen et al (1987) examine the average amount of disclosure made in the 1978 AR of various US-based companies. They found, once categorised into various industry groupings, levels of disclosure ranging from 0.4 up to 1.25 pages. Harte & Owen (1991) reached an almost identical conclusion after examining the AR of 30 UK-based companies, though this was only over one year. Gray et al (1995a) found that for various categories of SED (including community, health & safety) the average amount of disclosure had steadily increased during the 1980s.

International concern for SED was becoming more evident, for example, in ‘triple bottom line’ reporting and the GRI (Hall, 2002; Nash & Awty, 2001; O’Dwyer, 2001; McGrath, 2003). Despite the increasing attention given to the problems of using profit as a measure of performance with little regard to externalities along with the heightened expectations of stakeholders regarding business growth and social responsibility, the development of SED has been somewhat slow, piecemeal, as well as lacking a clear theoretical framework (Gray et al, 1987).

2.2.4 Motivations for SED

The evidence in the literature is inconsistent as to the motives for providing SED (Murthy & Abeysekera, 2008). According to Idowu & Towler (2004) some motives for SED include increased customer loyalty, more supportive communities, the recruitment and retention of more talented employees, improved

quality and productivity and the avoidance of potential reputation risks which may arise from environmental incidents. Henderson (2006) suggests that some companies may adopt SED, but their attitudes towards the society and environment may remain unchanged since they are directed by self-interest, commercial dictates and political advantage. According to Kolk (2004) societal aspects such as credibility and reputation have been found important as reasons for undertaking SED. Thien et al (2010) stated that the major reasons why companies undertake SED can be distilled into three main drivers of corporate social responses; business case, morality and external pressure related motivations.

Hassan (2010) states that analysis of SED motivations are a major consideration. Researchers attempt to answer two major questions: (1) what attitudes do companies adopt toward accounting disclosure, either general or specific? This question leads to analysis of the disclosure level; (2) why do some companies disclose more, or less, information than others? This question leads to analysis of disclosure motivations. Because SED is a voluntary activity, it is important to understand which companies disclose information about social and environmental activities, or which companies disclose such information, more so than others. Adams (2002) indicates that an understanding of the factors which influence SED is necessary for improving accountability.

2.2.4.1 Business case-related motivation

Business-case rationale motivation is when SED is primarily viewed from the standpoint of what's in it for companies and their shareholders (Brown & Fraser, 2004). Spence (2007) proposes that there are many motivations for businesses to undertake SED but the business-case rationale seems to "shape and constrain the ideologies that are communicated through SED". O'Dwyer (2003) notes that there is a tendency for managers to interpret SED in a biased manner that is consistent with the goals of shareholders whose motivation is to maximise wealth. Bebbington et al (2008) reveal that the motivation behind SED is a business-related differentiation strategy. The influence of stakeholders that directly affects the companies' activities becomes significant through factors such as risk to reputation and investor relation (Deegan, 2002).

SED have been linked to better stock price performance and dividend yields (Jones et al, 2005). Additionally, almost half of the companies surveyed reported risk reduction as a major driver for sustainability and corporate responsibility (KPMG, 2005). Along with the reduction of risk, reduced costs of compliance and not having to report environmental contingent liabilities would also be a strong incentive for better SED (Rivera-Camino, 2001). Furthermore, it is found that a company's proprietary costs such as leverage and profitability are significant determinants of a company's SED (Cormier & Magnan, 2003).

2.2.4.2 Morality-related motivation

Moral and ethical motivations refer to when SED is viewed as part of the organisations accountability responsibilities (Unerman et al, 2007). Such moral or ethical motivation is difficult to prove as it involves identifying the values of key organisational decision-makers. Furthermore, having a profit motive is not necessarily being immoral or unethical. It is perhaps only when an organisation

attempts to better its image to enhance stakeholders perceptions, that such intention may be construed as immoral or unethical (Woodward et al, 2001). Communications regarding ethical considerations by means of SED takes place in order for companies to present themselves as ethically concerned and therefore to inform stakeholders that they are socially responsible. Through SED, companies can enhance or repair threatened legitimacy (O'Donovan, 2002).

2.2.4.3 External pressure-related motivation

Not responding to external pressure in a manner seen as appropriate to such pressure could affect business legitimacy. Social contract is relevant as it consists of explicit and implicit terms expected by third parties – or stakeholders (Gray et al, 1996). Prior studies have found support for legitimacy theory noting the existing external pressures and an explanation for the decision to report on SED (O'Donovan, 2002; O'Dwyer, 2002). Researchers have found that financial obligations are frequently put first, which often means prioritising shareholders over other stakeholders. Owen et al (2001) describe it as a 'soft' form of accountability when stakeholder management is undertaken with priority given to the profit motive. Owen et al (2000) suggest that the poor quality of stakeholder involvement and the unwillingness by companies to implement feedback received implies that businesses are not serious about engagement with stakeholder groups. According to Barut (2007), the major reasons companies undertake SED can be developed into three main drivers of corporate social responses; proactive, reactive and risk-based responses.

Larger companies, particularly MNCs, are a target for coordinated campaigns by environmental organisations and tend to be singled out because of their size. Companies that do not engage with their stakeholders are at risk of putting their competitiveness, sustainability and their reputations in danger (Turnbull, 2003). As the size of a company is seen as an indicator for more public scrutiny, large companies may have a tendency to be better disclosers, react to media coverage and pollute more than their smaller counterparts. Numerous studies relating SED to size of the company have been undertaken to link these variables (Mobus, 2005; Yongvanich & Guthrie, 2005). Pressure from external stakeholders suggests that many companies are working to clean up their act whilst other entities perceive the environmental agenda as an opportunity (Sharma, 2000).

2.2.4.4 Conclusion

Bouten et al (2012) indicate that previous research on the motivations of SED assumes the company's decision to disclose and the disclosure level are the same. Findings suggest that not distinguishing between the motivations for decisions to disclose and the disclosure level may be misleading. Berthelot et al (2003) reviewed literature and illustrate that evidence from studies suggest SED increases with: (1) corporate size and membership in environment-sensitive industries such as oil and gas, chemicals, forest and paper products or utilities; (2) the extent to which a company is widely-owned; (3) a company's exposure to environmental-related legal proceedings or fines related to the environment; (4) a company's media exposure of its environmental activities; (5) the probability of being involved in accidents in the future; and (6) environmental lobby groups' concerns about company's environmental performance.

2.3 SED Evidence

2.3.1 Examining SED quality

According to Aburaya (2012) the measurement of SED quality is a controversial topic and disclosure quality measurement is considered a difficult task. This difficulty can be attributed to the unresolved theoretical debate around the concept of quality itself and consequently, the difficulty of determining a clear and acceptable disclosure quality measurement. In addition to the definition of quality, issues concerning reliability, statistical inaccuracy and source data are also highlighted in the literature (Hammond & Miles, 2004). Thus, measurement depends largely on the researcher's definition of quality as fits with the purposes of the study. SED quality is defined in terms of the information qualities or characteristics such as comparability, understandability, relevance, and reliability (Aburaya, 2012). Attempts have been made to distinguish different types of disclosures and hence to capture the distinct qualitative characteristics of the disclosed information.

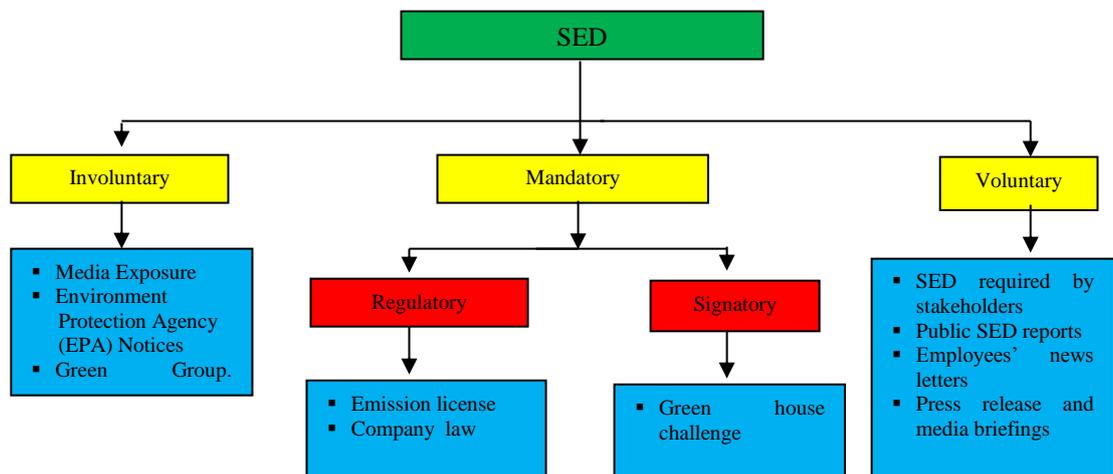


Figure 2.1 Types of SED

Source: Adopted from Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu International (1993)

Two primary forms of SED are identified as mandatory and voluntary (Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu International, 1993). However, SED may also come from a third party, viewed to be involuntary. While involuntary SED is the disclosure of a company's activities without its permission and against its will; voluntary involves the disclosure of information on a willing basis. This information in most cases arises from pressure asserted by various groups that have a direct interest in the performance of companies which include stakeholders, host community members and customers. Mandatory SED is the disclosure of information required by law.

Clarkson et al (2008) developed an environmental disclosure quality index based on the GRI framework. The standards are based on a set of reporting principles important to analysts and investors, including transparency, materiality, relevance and reliability. The content and structure of the quality index follows GRI standards, including sections on: company vision and environmental strategy, governance structure and management systems. The categories represent hard and

soft disclosures with relative higher weighting of hard compared to soft disclosures.

Siddique et al (2011) define the quality of disclosure in terms of relevance or what to report. Relevant SED constitutes: (1) information on the impact of organisational activities on the natural environment; and (2) the consequences of the community perception of such impact on financial and operational activities of the organisation. This definition is guided by GRI G3 guidelines; Global Climate Disclosure Framework and Climate Disclosure Standard Board Framework. A list of relevant SED included: (1) disclosure on strategy (identifying challenges and business impact; setting performance target); and (2) disclosure on impact and performance (material, water and energy use; pollution: emission and waste; product and service; transport; compliance to environmental regulation). The list implies that environmental information is relevant when it provides information on the company's impact on the natural environment including use of resources, pollution and the company's strategy in identifying risks and opportunities.

Liu et al (2011) investigate SED using the methods and criteria of international environmental performance evaluation. SED level is evaluated by using an index method. Full score is 100. The first part is 75, in 25 indices with all indices equally-weighted. The highest score of each index is 3. Each index is valued at a score of 0, 1, 2 or 3: 0 represents lack of SED information, 1 represents only a little description of the index, 3 represents the index is detailed described. The full score of the second part is 25. Disclosure forms include SED reports and environmental information descriptions. If a listed company discloses the independent environmental report, it can earn 10. Otherwise, it gets 0. Within the regulation of paragraph description, if there is an independent description, it is recorded as a score of 3. By this kind of analysis; the highest description of each paragraph is 15.

Glaum et al (2013) measures disclosure quality with data from AR. A comprehensive checklist of more than 300 criteria was used to assess disclosure quality. In the course of the evaluation it is determined whether the information has actually been reported by the companies and in how much detail. Individual items on the checklist are weighted by factors that were determined in the course of interviews and questionnaire surveys. To supplement the information supplied by the AR, the management report is obliged to provide future-oriented details that are of great interest to investors and analysts. The quality of the reports is judged not only on the quantity of information provided, but also on whether reports contain general verbal information or comparative information, quantitative ranges of values or precise point estimates. As in all scoring and ranking procedures, data from AR contests are based in part on subjective judgments and weighting. However, the authors claim that, in comparison with alternative measures, they have two advantages: (1) they enable direct measurement of quality; and (2) they are consistently gathered by independent scientists over relatively long periods of time.

Magness & Bewley (2011), in examining environmental reporting, used the disclosure-rating tool developed by Clarkson et al (2008). This GRI-based disclosure scale has a total of 45 items, each of which is assigned to one of seven

categories. Categories include four sections of hard disclosure items including information related to governance, credibility, environmental performance indicators and spending. The authors argued that hard disclosure information are more likely to be used as quality signals because they cannot be easily mimicked by low quality companies without incurring considerable cost. The remaining sections include information about environmental vision, profile and initiatives. These three sections are classified as soft information disclosures because they include broad claims that lack substantiation.

Eugster & Wagner (2011) use a direct measure of the voluntary disclosure quality of a company. The disclosure quality was assessed using a scorecard with over 100 questions aggregated into 35 items in 9 categories, which are thought to be important for the decision-making process of an investor. The total score of the ranking is a straightforward summation of the checklist with 35 items, which are graded (1 = no information; 6 = very high information quality) based on the information content and quality. The currently required disclosure level was specified on the checklist that assessors use to rate companies. The ratio of the number of reached points over the number of total reachable points was used as a measure of voluntary disclosure quality.

Delmas & Blass (2010) analyse the content of SED in AR and websites consisting of aggregation of seven indicators to represent the quality of companies disclosures: (1) does the company publish SED?; (2) if yes, is it according to the GRI guidelines?; (3) has the CEO signed the SED policy?; (4) what is the transparency and ease of obtaining information; (5) does the company have specific, clear goals and improvement targets?; (6) does the company report actual performance numbers or just relative numbers?; (7) are the company's reported numbers verified by a third party? In addition, the reporting score measurement of the Pacific Social Index which combines qualitative and quantitative measurements was used. The score is based on the percentage of issues that were covered and how well they were covered.

Sutantoputra (2009) develops a SDI rating system to complement environmental rating systems since both are based on GRI 2002 Guidelines. The rating comprised a wide range of social aspects such as labour practices and decent work, human right issues, society, product responsibility and social spending. The first four categories represent hard disclosures and the remaining three are soft disclosures. The relative weighting of hard compared to soft disclosures reflect GRI's focus on hard disclosures.

Plumlee et al (2009) proposed an index to examine SED quality of a company. The GRI framework, which provides voluntary reporting standards, was the basis of the developed index. The standards are based on a set of reporting principles important to analysts and investors, including transparency, materiality, relevance and reliability. Multiple relevant SED indicators were identified to improve the ability of the index to capture quality. Each indicator was identified as either present or absent; they were not evaluated as being positive or negative.

Grüning (2007) investigates SED quality in AR and disclosure was first grouped into categories. For each category, a comprehensive list of items that could

potentially be considered in disclosure is used. For each item, the quality of information provided is evaluated using a scoring model. The scale consists of five values with 1 point for minimal information and 5 points for detailed and forecast information. If there is no information available for a particular item, no points will be allocated. For each item there is a clear definition for what information to assign the different values as follows: 1 point: general description; 2 points: qualitative information; 3 points: additional qualitative information on future development; 4 points: additional growth rate development, including forecast; 5 points: additional prediction on future development and time series analysis of past data.

Raar (2007) measures SED quality by monetary, non-monetary, qualitative discussion or a combination of all three. A ranking system, consisting of seven points, was used to evaluate the quality of disclosure namely: 1=monetary; 2=non-monetary; 3=qualitative only; 4=qualitative and monetary; 5=qualitative and non-monetary; 6=monetary and nonmonetary; 7=qualitative, monetary and non-monetary. For information quality definitions, the highest ranking was given to companies who made the effort to combine measurements, for example, qualitative information and monetary measurement. The basis for this ranking was that companies could more readily provide benchmark's in monetary or non-monetary terms and then use this to compare with actual performance.

2.3.2 Developed countries studies on SED practices

Prior studies were reviewed from both developed and developing countries so as to obtain a comprehensive analysis of existing literatures. SED practices may not apply universally because countries are in various stages of economic development and companies have different levels of awareness and attitudes towards disclosures (Hossain et al, 2006). The nature and volume of SED tends to vary both over time and between different countries, with issues considered important in one country, or at one particular point in time, being regarded as less important in other countries, or at another time (Gray et al, 1995a). However, as economies grow and a prospect for expansion becomes global, there is a likelihood of an increasing convergence in SED practices (Ismail & Koh, 1999).

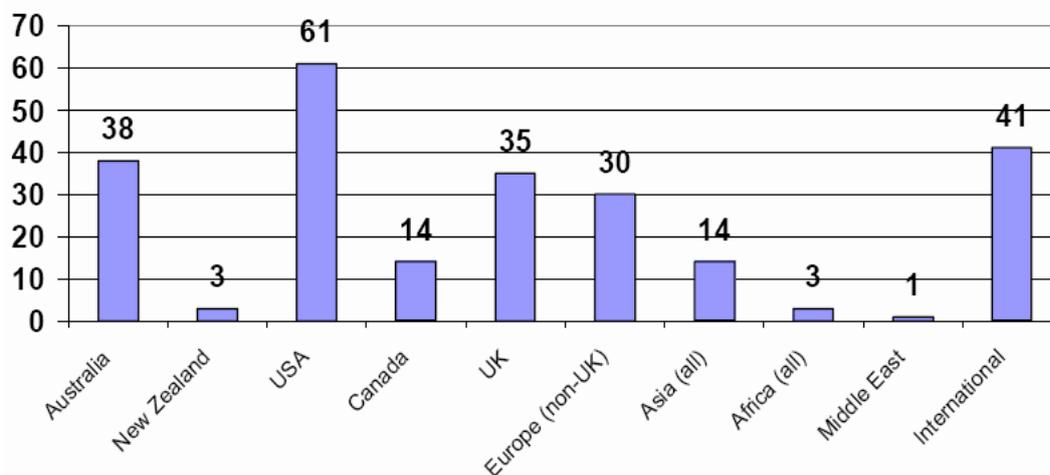


Figure 2.2 Country of Origin of SED Published Studies (O'Connor, 2006)

In Figure 2.2, an analysis of the country of origin reveals that the majority of SED studies (181 of 240 or 75%) have been based on data collected in developed countries. This finding is not surprising given that business and society debates on SED have taken place predominantly in developed countries. This view is supported by the findings of a number of studies examining SED in developing countries which suggest significantly less established disclosures practices compared to developed countries (O'Connor, 2006). Although this evidence is not conclusive, it lends support that SED is a socio-political practice.

Table 2.1 Summary of previous developed countries studies

Study	Aims	Country	Findings
Cecil (2010)	Explore SED practices.	USA	There is a growing trend in issuing SED. There are very few SED audited or assured.
Holder-Webb et al (2009)	Evaluate SED.	USA	SED disclosed by most companies.
De Barros & Monteiro (2012)	Analyse SED level.	Portugal	Most companies (77%) do not provide SED.
Branco & Rodrigues (2008)	Examine SED.	Portugal	The perspective adopted explains SED by banks.
Monteiro & Aibar-Guzmán (2010)	Examine SED practices.	Portugal	Even though SED level is low, the extent has increased.
Gallego-Alvarez (2008)	Verify presentation of SED.	Spain	Companies make known their ethical behaviour and seek to improve the quality of life of their workers, as well as their social conditions.
Llena et al (2007)	Explore and explain SED content.	Spain	Significant SED increase. The amount of narrative data exceeded that of quantitative data.
Garcia-Ayuso & Larrinaga (2008)	Analyze SED practices.	Spain	SED increased due to rise in social concerns for environmental issues.
Aburaya (2012)	Examines the relationship between corporate governance and SED quantity and quality.	UK	SED quantity is relatively low but quality is comparatively high. An association exists between SED and most governance mechanisms.
Haddock-Fraser & Fraser (2008)	Examine whether market proximity affects SED extent and form.	UK	Companies close to the market, or are brand-names, are highly likely to adopt SED.
Sweeney & Coughlan (2008)	Examine how to orient SED towards different stakeholders.	UK	Difference exists on how organisations report SED.
Brammer & Pavelin (2008)	Examine patterns in SED quality.	UK	High quality SED disclosure associated with larger firms.
Khan & Charaf (2010)	Explore SED patterns.	France	SED focus mainly on employees and environment.
Damak-Ayadi (2010)	Analyses changes in SED practices.	France	Most SED were qualitative reflecting human resources and community involvement.
Bouten et al (2012)	Examine SED determinants.	Belgium & USA	Different determinants influence SED and the disclosure level.

Study	Aims	Country	Findings
Everaert et al (2007)	Examine SED practices.	Belgium	SED extent is different between industries. Utilities and banks are providing more elaborate SED than other categories.
Orens et al (2005)	Extent to which managers have changed their behaviour towards SED over time.	Belgium	Improvement in SED practices.
Gamerschlag et al (2011)	Extend SED motivations.	Germany	SED issues are affected by their visibility, shareholder structure, and relationship with their stakeholders.
Quick (2008)	Evaluates SED quality.	Germany	A weak positive correlation found between the financial strength and SED quality.
Cormier et al (2005)	Identify SED determinants.	Germany	Risk, ownership, and firm size determine the SED level.
Giannarakis et al (2011)	Illustrate what SED provide to readers.	Greece	SED are almost similar in all dimensions.
Papaspyropoulos et al (2010)	Examine differences among company sectors in terms of SED.	Greece	Few companies reported SED.
Kotonen (2009)	Analyses SED.	Finland	Companies understand SED as a response to stakeholders' expectations and demands.
Belal & Lubinin (2009)	Examine SED extent.	Russia	90% of companies provided SED with employee related disclosures being the dominant category.
Uyar & Kiliç (2012)	Examine SED practices.	Turkey	SED is value-relevant.
Ahulu et al (2010)	Investigate SED changes.	Australia	Significant increases in SED.
Guthrie (2007)	Develop an industry-specific SED framework.	Australia	Companies reported more on industry specific issues than CSR issues.
Gadenne & Ladewig (2007)	Examine SED practices.	Australia	Companies increased only negative and neutral disclosures if prosecuted.
Mitchell et al (2006)	Examine SED practices.	Australia	Violating companies' AR are limited to amounts of positive SED.
Deloitte & Van Staden (2011)	Investigate SED motivations.	New Zealand	New Zealand companies are recent reporters of SED with under-developed and under-utilised systems.

Table 2.1 shows a summary of prior literature on SED practices for developed countries. Most SED studies (twenty) were conducted in European countries while four were in Australia. The table shows that seven studies from the thirty reviewed considered SED practices, while seven examined disclosure changes. Five assessed SED levels, patterns and extent while three investigated motivations. All the studies reviewed adopted content analysis. Eight studies revealed that there was growth of SED while three reported that SED had increased. Three documented that disclosures were mainly employee related while two had different SED determinants.

Most SED studies in developed countries cover with a wide spectrum of concerns. SED are more likely to be subject to governmental regulation in these countries (Xiao et al, 2005). Consequently, disclosures would be more extensive since a country's move towards a higher social and economic status leads to an increasing demand of stakeholders for SED (Xiao et al, 2005). A number of studies have been conducted to examine specific characteristics of companies in developed countries (the number and type of characteristics used in each study more or less is different) and also their relationships with SED (Yaftian, 2011).

2.3.3 Developing countries studies on SED practices

Literature of previous developing countries studies on SED practices has been reviewed because of the growing interest in disclosures. This is not only because many companies have started to be responsible to their social and environmental impact, but due to pressure exerted from the public (Zhang, 2013). Futhermore, the review will assist in identifying gaps in SED studies. Developing countries' companies are still lagging behind those of developed in SED practices (KPMG, 2008). Numerous SED studies have been conducted in developing countries however, they tend to be descriptive and narrative in nature as most companies disclose good news to enhance their reputation (Ali & Mohammad, 2013). Many of the findings reported are consistent with the early studies in the developed countries (Elijido-Ten, 2006).

Table 2.2 Summary of previous developing countries studies

Study	Aims	Country	Findings
Setyorini & Ishak (2012)	Examine SED.	Indonesia	SED extent increased.
Gunawan (2010)	Investigates SED as perceived by the stakeholders.	Indonesia	There are gaps between SED perceived by stakeholders and those disclosed by the companies.
Siregar & Bachtiar (2010)	Investigate the effect of board size, foreign ownership, firm size and profitability on SED.	Indonesia	Board and firm size have a positive relationship with SED.
Suttiapun & Stanton (2012)	Investigate SED practices.	Thailand	Companies providing the most SED were in the resources business while the smallest were in services industry.
Ratanajongkol et al (2006)	Examine SED extent and nature of practices.	Thailand	A trend of increasing SED on human resources.
Kuo et al (2012)	Evaluate SED quality.	China	Environmentally sensitive industries (ESIs) and state-owned enterprises (SOEs) are significantly more committed to SED.
Yao et al (2011)	Identify SED determinants.	China	Negative relationship between SED and firm age.
Azim et al (2011)	Identify SED practices.	Bangladesh	Companies in the banking sector secure the highest rank in terms of SED; more than one half of the disclosures are located in the director's report and the mean amount of disclosures is less than half a page.
Kamal & Deegan (2013)	Investigate SED practices.	Bangladesh	The textile and garments companies disclose their governance policies and procedures in order to secure/maintain legitimacy and/or to meet community expectation.
Khan (2010)	Investigates SED level.	Bangladesh	Demonstrates that though voluntary, overall SED are rather moderate, however, the varieties of CSR items are impressive.
Khan et al (2011)	Examine SED tendencies.	Bangladesh	Information on society is addressed most extensively with regard to the extent of SED.
Yeshmin (2012)	Explores SED.	Bangladesh	Most of the SED is qualitative in nature.
Murthy (2008)	Examines SED practices.	India	Companies use dual strategies in reporting their human resource and social relations to legitimise their activities to stakeholders.
Buniamin (2010)	Determines SED quantity and quality.	Malaysia	Only 28% of the companies reported SED.

Study	Aims	Country	Findings
Esa & Ghazali (2012)	Investigate SED changes.	Malaysia	The paired-sample t-tests showed that there was an increase in SED extent.
Homayoun et al (2012)	Examine SED level.	Malaysia	Many companies are ignoring new requirements to enhance SED on their websites.
Mohammed et al (2010)	Investigate how Shari'ah compliant listed companies present SED.	Malaysia	SED mainly on corporate governance index themes, followed by social/ environmental index themes.
Rahman et al (2010)	Examine SED locations, extent, and trends.	Malaysia	Volume of SED improved.
Rahman et al (2011)	Assess SED level.	Malaysia	SED theme has shifted from human resource to marketplace. This is followed by community and finally, environment. Ironically, companies are not only disclosing good news, but also negative news.
Al Naimi et al (2012)	Explore the current status and extent of SED.	Qatar	Most companies disclosed information related to human resources and product development, followed by community involvement.
Zubairu et al (2011)	Examine SED practices.	Saudi Arabia	Islamic banks have much more in common with their conventional counterparts than they do with banks that are supposedly based on Shari'ah.
Ismail & Ibrahim (2008)	Investigate SED extent.	Jordan	85% of the companies report SED. Human resource is the most disclosed theme while the environmental issue had the lowest disclosure.
Menassa (2010)	Identifies SED quality and extent.	Lebanon	The banks attribute greater importance to human resource, product and customers' disclosures, whereas the extent and availability of SED is still weak.
Alawi & Rahman (2011)	Examine SED level.	Yemen	While SED level is low, companies have increased the disclosure in response to CSR award announcement.
Kabir & Akinnusi (2012)	Determine SED practices.	Swaziland	CSR is fairly new and very few companies provide SED.
Ponnu & Okoth (2009)	Investigate SED practices.	Kenya	SED received only modest attention and the theme most commonly disclosed was community involvement.
Mahadeo et al (2011)	Examine SED.	Mauritius	Increase in SED volume and variety, although information in relation to social activities remains the most prominent form of disclosure.
Aldrugi & Abdo (2012)	Investigate relationship between SED level and company characteristics.	Libya	Identified a number of characteristics that are associated with SED namely, company size, privatisation, age and nationality.

Study	Aims	Country	Findings
Ahmad & Mousa (2010)	Examine SED extent and practice.	Libya	SED quantity and quality has developed over the study period.
Bayoud et al (2012)	Explore whether company age, size and industry type influence SED levels.	Libya	Positive relationship between all factors influencing SED level.
Elmogla (2009)	Investigates SED.	Libya	Companies generally disclose some information related to social responsibility.
Pratten & Mashat (2009)	Examine SED.	Libya	Emphasis on SED is different from those found in the west.
Dawkins & Ngunjiri (2008)	Compare SED.	South Africa	SED frequency and level in South African companies was higher than that of the Fortune Global 100, which indicates willingness to convey social responsibility in their disclosure practices.
De Villiers & Alexander (2010)	Compare SED in South Africa and Australian mining companies.	South Africa	No significant differences between the two countries.
Uwalomwa & Jimoh (2012)	Examine SED level and practices.	Nigeria	Most companies disclose SED related to products, consumers, employees and community involvement.
Uwalomwa & Egbide (2012)	Investigate the relationship between companies' financial performance and SED level.	Nigeria	Companies' financial performance and size of audit firm have a positive relationship with SED level.
Uwalomwa (2011a)	Investigates the association between company characteristics and SED level.	Nigeria	Positive association between company's characteristics and SED level.
Uwalomwa (2011b)	Investigates relationship between management ownership and SED level.	Nigeria	Managerial ownership structure has a positive impact on SED level.
Asaolu et al (2011)	Assess SED level.	Nigeria	Arbitrary and incompatible SED indicators.

Table 2.2 shows a summary of SED practices studies for developing countries. Forty studies were reviewed based on their aims, methods, country and findings. Most studies (twenty) were undertaken in Asian countries. There have also been fifteen studies in African countries and there are only a small number of studies (five) on Middle Eastern countries. The table shows that twenty six studies considered SED levels or practices. Seven studies examined whether company characteristics such as age, industry type and size influence SED. It can be noticed that only two studies compared developed and developing countries SED practices. All prior studies reviewed adopted content analysis.

The findings are mixed and although almost all studies have used companies as samples, their number, size and industry type differed from study to study (Yaftian, 2011). For example, five studies revealed that human resources was the most frequently disclosed item while three indicated that SED had increased. Five established positive relationships with board and firm size; factors influencing SED level; company's characteristics; managerial ownership and financial performance. Two studies reported that companies generally disclose information related to the society while two identified SED mainly on corporate governance themes. Of interest is the common finding that SED practices in developing countries are still at the early stages; hence, there is still a lot of room for improvement in this area of disclosure (Elijido-Ten, 2006).

2.4 Limitations of prior studies

The current study examines a framework of variables that could explain the quantity and quality of SED. Aburaya (2012) asserts that SED has been widely discussed in the academic literature for more than four decades. The development of SED has created a space for researchers to study how organisations can benefit from interaction with the society that is, the value relevance of their social and environmental activities (Gray, 2010). Companies have started implementing a focused strategic management approach in social and environmental practices (Roy & Ghosh, 2011). A considerable body of literature from a wide range of theoretical backgrounds concluded that SED are an important phenomenon employed by companies and are influenced by a variety of explanatory factors (Gray et al, 2001).

Nevertheless, limitations identified from these studies indicate that the majority have concentrated on measuring the quantity of SED; few studies have taken into account the quality of SED. The quality of SED does not necessarily or directly link to the amount of disclosure (Brammer & Pavelin, 2006). There has been recognition that reliance on mere numbers of disclosures may be misleading. Counting the number of sentences or words does not provide an understanding of the type and importance of information being disclosed (Smith et al, 2005). Focusing on the quantity of disclosures, however, does not mean higher quality which reflects the true state of the company's strategies (Ho & Wong, 2001). Hence, more disclosures do not necessarily mean higher quality (Aburaya, 2012). There is a view that SED quality affects a company's immediate stakeholders and society, more than the quantity (Cormier et al, 2005). SED quality reflects whether a company provides information about actual activities or provides a quantity of general information. Nevertheless measuring quality is difficult and may lack objectivity, it is important to evaluate SED taking into account both quantity and quality. The analysis of the different quality dimensions provide deeper understanding of and richer insights into

disclosure quality (Beattie et al, 2004; Beretta & Bozzolan, 2004).

Most studies have concentrated on analysing environmental disclosure and have largely ignored social disclosures. These studies seem to be motivated by growing global concerns of environmental issues and increasing attention from the public in regards to the impact on the environment of companies' activities. Some studies indicate that environmental information is not the prevalent social disclosure category in AR. Rizk et al (2008) assert that employee-related information is significant in Egyptian companies. Furthermore, Sobhani et al (2009) establish that human resources information is extensive in Bangladesh companies' AR. Concentration on environmental disclosure has also led to concentration on particular economic sectors, which are in environmentally sensitive sectors and consequently other economic sectors are ignored. This idea is based on the notion that some economic sectors, in particular the finance and services sector, have no impact on the environment. Concentration on some economic sectors could provide misleading results. For example, previous literature indicates a positive relationship between company size and SED, but this relationship could be disputed if all economic sectors are taken into account.

Although some studies have examined SED in Nigeria, very few of them have been conducted in the oil industry. Only one study has focused on oil companies. Asaolu et al (2011) assessed the SED level in the Nigerian oil and gas sector. Content analysis was used from AR of selected oil companies to identify the extent to which their reporting has been in line with global best practices. The study found arbitrary and incompatible SED indicators among all the sampled companies therefore, recommended the introduction of an SED framework. Previous studies elsewhere related to SED display two basic limitations: (1) relates to SED itself, as these studies, in most cases, have concentrated on quantity of SED in AR; (2) most studies have concentrated on environmental disclosure. Little attention has been paid to the impact of HCs perception on the oil companies' SED.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter provided a review of the prior literature on SED. It explored SED theory regarding activities associated with companies' responsibilities towards the environment and society as a whole. Through the historical review of SED patterns, it was observed that companies are becoming increasingly concerned with their social and environmental responsibilities. An examination of motivations was undertaken, leading to accountability concerns of stakeholders and market responses explanations for the momentum behind the growth of SED.

Consistent with the study, SED evidence predominantly focussing on AR as a vehicle for disclosures was reviewed. The majority of SED studies have been conducted using content analysis by measuring, counting and evaluating the level of disclosures. The chapter concluded with a discussion identifying gaps in the existing literature. Of particular interest was the assessment of SED quality which still remains a controversial issue. Following the identification of gaps requires the adoption of a theoretical framework within which an analysis of SED was undertaken. The next chapter presents the theories adopted for the present study.

Chapter 3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

Many human resources other than accountants play a significant role within an organisation, and in a broader sense, within society. Therefore, it becomes necessary in accounting research to consider a broader framework which should provide a richer methodological basis for enhancing the understanding of how accounting works in practice. There have been many approaches in the development of accounting theory, such as the deductive, inductive, ethical, sociological and economic approaches, including the more modern, positive and normative accounting theories (Riahi-Belkaoui, 2004).

The two main, classical methods of theory construction are the deductive and inductive approaches. The deductive approach formulates a theory and then develops the principles and techniques used in implementing this theory. The theory is then verified by looking at reality. The inductive approach examines accounting in practice and forms a general theory to suit this practice by analysing recurring relationships. In terms of the modern approaches, the positive theory of accounting examines how things are currently practised, while normative theory develops a theory on what the principles ought to be. These theories follow the traditional guidance of the inductive and deductive approaches respectively (Hassan, 2010).

In terms of this study, the deductive approach is considered to be an appropriate approach suitable for the nature and objective of the research. The deductive approach begins with statements that are assumed to be true and then moves from general rules to specific solutions (Riahi-Belkaoui, 2004). In the deductive approach, there is a well-established role for existing theory because it informs the development of objectives, the choice of variables and the measures undertaken (Ali & Birley, 1999). The stages of the deductive approach are: (1) think of theory that is appropriate to the topic; (2) narrow this theory to the specific objectives; (3) collect observations; and (4) test the objectives (Bryman, 2008; Hassan, 2010). In line with these stages, the theoretical framework of this research has adopted dialectical materialism, alienation and political economy theories as appropriate theories. The use of these theories will aid/assist in explaining ways HCs are becoming more aware of the importance of non-economic issues and how companies are dealing with this new focus (Glac, 2010; Graham & Woods, 2006).

It is probable that there is no single motivation for undertaking SED. If there is no single motivation to disclose, then many theories could be considered adequate as explanations (Van der Laan, 2009). A diverse range of theoretical underpinnings have been used in critical accounting research in order to investigate how accounting is related to society, politics and organisational functioning (Lodh & Gaffikin, 1997).

3.2 An Integrated Theoretical Framework to study SED

Due to the overlap between a number of theories and since theories can provide slightly different and useful insights; there has been a move to use more than one theory to explain SED extent and content (Branco & Rodrigues, 2007; Cormier et al,

2005; Fielder & Deegan, 2002; Islam & Deegan, 2008; Ratanajongkol et al, 2006; Suttipun & Stanton, 2012). Thus, to understand why companies engage in SED, it is necessary to integrate different theoretical perspectives (Branco & Rodrigues, 2007). “Theories are abstractions of reality, thus a particular theory cannot be expected to provide a full account or description of particular behaviour” (Deegan, 2000). Since the role of theory is to better fathom managerial motivation to voluntarily disclose social and environmental information, (a phenomenon that is not observable) the competing (or complementary) theoretical explanations are likely to co-exist.

In addition, dialectical materialism theory will be used to explain the conditions of the exploited and oppressed, of arguments against capitalism. The importance of the theory from a holistic perspective is in its insistence on the importance of the forces and relations of production. A dialectical approach seeks to find the cause of change within the system. Since change is internally generated, it must be the result of contradiction, of instability and development as inherent properties of the system itself (Cooper et al, 2005).

According to Cooper et al (2005), dialectical materialism theory argues that SED should be produced independently of the management and should be theoretically driven in order to disrupt current ideological understandings. It proposes that the SED production aligned to contemporary social struggles would promote the potential to create a more equitable society. Dialectical materialism theory seeks to understand the forces that influence and shape social realities (Nmom, 2011). It is primarily the material environment that determines the formation of differences in terms of social groups and classes with competing interests. Moreover, it is the amount of material resources actually or potentially available to individuals and groups in a community that determines their relative importance, influence and power (Ojirika, 1999).

Moreover, dialectical materialism theory is informed by the speculation that the increasing spate of agitations as a result of the fall out of material deprivation and that the situation shall not subside so long as what creates this condition remain untouched and unchanged (Uranta, 2009). The theory exposes the interaction between indigenous social framework and foreign economic institutions which generate many changes within the structure of the society (George, 2008). Dialectical materialism theory places primacy on material or economic conditions of society. It is premised on the belief that people are dominantly motivated by material or economic needs, thus, economic activity is their primary concern (Ake, 1981).

Furthermore, alienation theory will be used, in part, to explain economic powerlessness through observed massive poverty and high unemployment rates; normlessness through reported incidences of kidnapping of innocent workers and their families; estrangement from the natural environment and its resources through pollution and lack of provision of basic services. Where alienation comes into play, it is in relation to the frustration or impediment of the HCs’ natural development (Chooback, 2010). Alienation entails a social-economic condition whereby “resource wealth” is separated from the real owners and is transferred from one class to another (Fisher, 2012).

Tinker (1985) states that accounting and society should be viewed from the perspective of alienation among societal groups. Accounting is seen as one of many belief forming institutions that are firmly structured in social and historical context. Contemporary accounting systems measure and disclose indices of wealth accumulation. Further, all accounting tribulations are really grievances of income appropriation and alienation. The theory of alienation is an intellectual constructs in which Marx displays the devastating effect of capitalist production on human beings, on their physical and moral states and on their social processes of which they are a part (Ollman, 2005). Cherns (1978) asserts that alienation is the product of social segmentation and stratification. Increasingly, organisations by invading all spheres of life, even the most private, are the engines of alienation.

According to Marx (1844), alienation is the inevitable result of private ownership. It occurs in societies in which people are dehumanised into owners and non-owners (Churchich, 1990). The interests of the owners are always antagonistic to the interests of the non-owners (Marx & Engels, 1823). It represents an attempt to explain the antisocial accumulation of wealth by one class and the persistent impoverishment of another in a system based on market economy and private exchange (Marx, 1844).

Hassan (2010) contends that the starting point for explaining SED is to understand how a community perceives it. According to PET, there are a number of factors involved in the formation of society's awareness of the importance of social and environmental issues, namely: the level of economic attainment; and the cultural dimensions of its society. A high level of economic attainment indicates that basic economic needs are satisfied, which consequently provides an opportunity for members of the community to give greater attention to non-economic issues. These two variables combine to create social pressure on companies regarding the impact of their activities on the environment and on society as a whole. Hassan (2010) suggests that in responding to this pressure, companies attempt to provide information about how socially responsible their activities are.

Since this study focuses on the reasons underpinning SED practice, PET will be used to generate emerging insights on how the social, political and economic context affects the decisions to initiate disclosures. The reality of unemployment and deprivation in the Niger Delta has induced social and political consciousness. The paradox of poverty in riches is widely seen as the objective condition that has generated the conflicts there (Akinbuwa, 2008; Ibaba 2007; Aaron, 2006). These different social, political and economic realities are strong and credible pressures on companies and in understanding how they report SED (Mahadeo et al, 2011). Analysing SED using PET would require greater emphasis on the interplay between the firm's social information content and external parties (for example stakeholders, lobby groups and government intervention) (Elijido-Ten, 2004).

Branco & Rodrigues (2007) asserts that SED is considered to be a function of social/political pressure on companies to provide disclosures. SED is seen as a response to competing pressures from various stakeholders such as governments, environmental groups, customers, the general public and other activist groups. Van der Laan (2009) used PET to explain motivations for SED and stated that it offers an explanation of accountability to stakeholders. PET may provide greater insights into

managerial motivation for disclosure if they were linked more explicitly to the nature of SED under examination. Oriji (2007) used PET to explain that because economic issues (financial, in case of companies) are not the only relevant issues in society, there was a need to integrate social and political issues into business and/or reporting about it.

3.3 Dialectical Materialism Theory

Dialectics posits that change involves contradiction and can only take place through it. Dialectics therefore, is the logic of contradiction (Wood & Grant, 2005). Dialectical materialism is the practice of interpreting the contradictions in the practices and concepts of modern society (Bernstein, 2005). It proposes that every economic order grows to a state of maximum efficiency, while simultaneously developing internal contradictions and weaknesses that contribute to its systemic progression or decay. Dialectical movement represents a struggle of opposites, a conflict of contradictions. Conflict provides the dynamic principle, the source of change (Heoma, 2012). Marx (1858) argued that the major dynamics for social change lies in the contradictions and conflicts within the economic system. Since all parts of society are interconnected and it is only through the process of interplay between these parts that change occurs (Heoma, 2012).

Dialectical materialism argues that the economic life of the society is the objective reality which is independent of human will and consciousness (Brewer, 1980; Nmomo, 2011). Ake (1981) identifies three major characteristics of the dialectical materialism theory as:

- (1) the primacy of material conditions;
- (2) the dynamic character of reality; and
- (3) the relatedness of different elements of society.

Dialectical materialism is more an extension of, than a denial of positivism. At any given point in time the external reality can be measured. However, this reality is constantly changing as thesis and anti-thesis struggle for supremacy and the struggle creates new syntheses. A new synthesis then creates its own anti-thesis (Kauffman, 1966). A core element of the Marxian dialectic is the 'law of the negation of the negation' which assumes that where there is a collision of two opposites, one opposite negates the other and is in turn negated by higher order historical or social processes which allow aspects of both negated positions to be preserved (Di Domenico et al, 2009).

This is sometimes represented as the three stages of thesis, antithesis and synthesis in which the dialectic is viewed as a sequence: 'the parties to ... conflict relate as thesis and antithesis and resolve into the form of synthesis, which not only constitute aspects of both thesis and antithesis but creates new patterns or structures' (Edgley, 2006; Lourenco & Glidewell, 1975). In other words, a Marxian view of dialectical analysis focuses upon 'the transformation through which one set of arrangements gives way to another' (Benson, 1977).

The major thrust of this theory hinges on "Thesis", "Antithesis" and "Synthesis". According to Nlete-Nna (2004), the underlying rationale of the human perception of the world is called "Thesis". However, in every passing phase in human history people will begin to see that things do not exactly fit into that original frame of

perception. They therefore, try to modify the way of thinking called "Anti-thesis". Thus, the Antithesis emerged when people began to realise that thesis was falling short in terms of explaining observed reality. Kreml (1985) states that "once people became increasingly aware of new things, that were happening or as things began to fall outside the pattern of the thesis, they began to turn to new explanations".

Thus, according to Kreml (1985), the synthesis served not only as the reunited combination of the two previously competing world views but as a way in which mankind could move to the next historic stage with an ability to understand and to some degree, even control what stage the world was passing through. The synthesis and the entire dialectical process would repeat itself throughout history with itself becoming a fresh thesis. Marx used the question of dialectics to study the contradictions of human societies (Badiou & Balmes, 1976; Ntelaja, 1987; Shaw, 1975; Hoffman, 1975; Amin, 1976).

Molisa (2006) argues that accounting has a direct dialectical impact on the understanding of society and hence performs a role in preparing people for either domestication or transformation. Accounting, in this sense, actively intervenes in social conflict, mediating in struggles over the social product and distributions of wealth (Tinker, 1985; Tinker & Neimark, 1986).

Lourenco & Glidewell (1975) adopted a Marxian dialectical analysis to examine the relationships between conflict and social control. They conclude that conflict resolution (that is, synthesis) requires the 'mutual balancing' of multiple bases of social power. Dialectical forces infuse exchanges, whereby actions create tensions that stimulate reactions and renewed collaborative measures. These may result in the creation of new organisational arrangements which incorporate reconciled ideological standpoints or partnership conflict resulting from the repeated collision of structural forces. According to Cherns (1980), 'demands that organisations should cease polluting their environment and that they should cease to receive, without payment, the benefits of a pool of labour provided by the community, which needs equity in remuneration are examples of a change in the basis of accommodation between industry and community'.

It has been demonstrated that SED is primarily about altering or reorienting public perceptions of the organisation (Deegan et al, 2002; Guthrie & Parker, 1990; Neu et al, 1998). Otherwise, there would be no need to make this information public via disclosure if perceptions of the organisation were homogenous and aligned with how the organisation wished to be perceived by the public. Whilst organisations have the ability to control the amount of information released, motivations for disclosure must include the achievement, maintenance or restoration of public perceptions of the organisation. This view is supported by the dialectical materialism theory's explanation of managerial motivation to disclose.

Cooper et al (2005) contend that the dialectic theory involves three principles: totality, change and contradiction. Each of these on its own would not constitute a dialectical approach; they become dialectical when they are taken together. Totality means that all of the elements in our world are related to one other. Accounting practice, regulation and information cannot be understood on their own but only as part of a totality. Cooper et al (2005) assert that there are contradictions and conflicts

in production and in society. It is these contradictions which generate change. A dialectical approach seeks to find the cause of change within the system. Since change is internally generated, it must be the result of contradiction, of instability and development which are inherent properties of the system itself.

Rees (1998) maintains that contradiction is the only form of explanation of social change. This is because the explanation itself depends on concrete and empirical conditions that occur in each society (Williams, 1980). According to Cooper et al (2005), a dialectical approach seeks to find the cause of change within the system. Only when we know the ideological, social and environmental conditions within which human beings operate, will we be able to estimate what change is possible and by what means it can be affected. To make sense of the human capacity to change the world, there is a need to understand the constraints under which human beings exercise this capacity.

Cooper et al (2005) suggest that one element of dialectical materialism which might be seen as informing SED is that of exposure, of laying bare the real conditions of the exploited and oppressed, of arguments against capitalism. Dialectical materialism theory views the production of SED as having the potential to create a fairer more just society. It believes that accounting (through SED), should be evaluated in terms of its contribution to a notion of social well-being (Gallhofer & Haslam, 2002). In order to operationalise dialectic materialism theory, it is crucial to establish measurements regarding the three key principles that are, totality, change and contradiction.

3.4 Alienation Theory

The core meaning of the concept of alienation is dissociative state or a sense of separation in relation to some other element in the environment (Kanungo, 1979; Schacht, 1970). According to Islam (2010), the concept of alienation has been used to convey many ideas. Marx (1844) advanced the idea that alienation was a reality which arises when an individual feels they have lost control of their lives. According to Marx (1844), the capitalist system results in people being alienated by a system of inequality and injustice. The system consists of two clearly identifiable classes: the owners (bourgeoisie) and the workers (proletariat). The fundamental inequity of the system is situated in the nature of the production relations; in relative terms the worker contributes more to the production process, while the owner derives a far greater benefit. The workers productive ability is reduced to an object that is, the labour is regarded as merely another market commodity. Alienation, therefore results when that which is intrinsic to the existence of man is reduced to a mere object or commodity.

Seeman (1959) proposed the conceptual clarification of alienation and maintains that objective alienation in mass society leads to five phenomena:

- (1) powerlessness;
- (2) normlessness;
- (3) meaninglessness;
- (4) isolation; and
- (5) self-estrangement

Powerlessness refers to the expectation on the part of individual that they do not have

complete control over their behaviour. Normlessness refers to the expectation that socially unacceptable behaviour is required in order to attain specific goals. Meaninglessness may be defined as a low expectation of being able to make meaningful predictions about future consequences of behaviour. Isolation is a tendency to attribute little value to convictions or ideals which are typically highly valued. The last category is estrangement, which is probably the most popular term used to describe alienation. Self-estrangement indicates a degree of dependence on specific forms of behaviour for expected future consequences.

Geyer (2001) defines alienation as “a subjectively undesirable separation from something outside oneself or even inside oneself”. Carrier (1992) contends that the core of ‘alienation’ is a sense of separation. A thing is alienated from a person when it is seen as separate from that person; a person is alienated when they are seen as being separate from surrounding people or things. Thus, alienation refers to how people perceive and understand themselves and their environment (Carrier, 1992). This study will adopt Crinson & Yuill (2008) definition of alienation: “Alienation simply stated, means separation from that which is desired or desirable” for two reasons: (1) SED will be examined from the viewpoint of HCs perceptions on the segmentation of the interconnected elements in society; and (2) SED will be examined given there is increasing evidence of societal, environmental degradation and alienation as a direct consequence of corporate success of which disclosures are intended to suppress. Biro (2005) suggests that “basic alienation” is the alienation from nature which is necessary for human life: some self-conscious transformation of nature is necessary. “Surplus alienation”, on the other hand, is alienation from nature necessitated only “by particular forms of social organisation”.

Islam (2010) contends that the summary of various meanings associated with alienation points to the lack of control on the part of the individual over his environment, which produces a sense of frustration and powerlessness. Whether it is a social, political or economic force, when one feels powerlessness against it, then an alienating situation arises. In such situations, an individual wishes to isolate themselves or revolt against the force. However in most cases, it results in a humble submission to over powering forces. As such, helplessness breeds contempt for those forces, of which by necessity they must submit. As a result their existence becomes meaninglessness.

According to Ollman (2005), perhaps the most significant form into which the theory of alienation is cast is the internal relation it underscores between the present and the future. Alienation can only be grasped as the absence of the unalienation, each state serving as a point of reference for the other. For example, individuals only know what it is to have a particular disease because they know what it is not to. This is because individuals ordinarily conceive of health and disease as internally related, the absence of one being a necessary element in the meaning of the other. Marx assumes an internal relation between the states of alienation and unalienation. “Alienation” is then used by Marx to refer to a state of human existence which is ‘away from’ or ‘less than’ unalienation. Marx refers to alienation as a ‘mistake, a defect which ought not to be’. The theory of alienation is the focal point from which to view human beings, one which stresses that fact of a practical breakdown of interconnected elements.

Tinker (1985) envisions accounting practise as providing the means for resolving social conflict and arbitrating, evaluating and adjudicating social choices. In order to accomplish this, the definition of an economic transaction is broadened to the “transfer of a capacity to affect human wellbeing”. Alienation under capitalism is the top level of the problem hierarchy. According to Marx (1844), capitalism generates alienation in two principal ways. The first is that it is an economic system that accentuates the division of labour, breaking production into a series of smaller and smaller, more specialised tasks, each performed by different kind of worker, because this will increase profitability. As a result, “the individual workers are appropriated by a one-sided function and annexed to it for life,” depriving them of the well-rounded variety of activities that they need to be full human beings. The second reason is that it is an economic system in which a small minority controls the means of production, and in which most people can survive only by selling their own labour power. Workers under capitalism have to work for someone else. As a consequence, Marx (1844) argued that work has little or no intrinsic worth for the worker that is “it is not the satisfaction of a need but a mere means to satisfy needs outside it.” Greater sensitivity to the increasing levels of alienation could be used to contest capitalism’s injustices (Khaola, 2010; Yuill, 2011).

According to Mouton & Marais (1996), to operationalise alienation theory would imply developing a measuring instrument by which reliable data about the phenomenon called ‘alienation’ can be collected. It would obviously be quite absurd, for example, to approach individuals and ask them if they are alienated. Similarly, taking up a position on a street corner and trying to observe whether people are alienated would be equally ridiculous (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

The obvious approach would be to collect data by means of indirect measurement (Mouton & Marais, 1996). This would, for example mean that a list of questions relating to the presumed elements of the phenomenon called ‘alienation’ is compiled and these are presented to people in an interview situation. If one were, for example, to administer say twenty questions which deal with aspects of alienation (without at any stage mentioning the term ‘alienation’), then it ought to be possible to gain an overall impression of the person’s position with regard to the phenomenon (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

One of the earliest attempts at measuring alienation was a seven item index developed by Seeman (1967) derived from the Blauner (1964) survey. Blauner (1964) used the Roper Fortune Survey questionnaire that asked a range of questions related to employment of the respondent. The five item scale of alienation developed by Miller (1967) assesses sense of pride and accomplishment in work. Seeman (1967) addressed the issue of self-estrangement at work by asking whether workers experience variety, creativity, responsibility and autonomy on the job. This operationalisation of alienation has a high degree of overlap with work satisfaction (Robinson et al, 1969; Seybolt & Gruenfeld, 1976).

Aiken & Hage (1966) measured alienation in their study on the basis of six questions that essentially appear to address work satisfaction. It is interesting that almost all the questions in these studies started with ‘How satisfied are you ...’, and then proceeded to assess various aspects of work. Seybolt & Gruenfeld (1976) call for a refinement of the operationalisation of alienation owing to measurement overlap with the

concept of satisfaction. Kohn (1976) used a Guttman scale to measure alienation with subscales for each of the dimensions of powerlessness, self-estrangement, normlessness and cultural estrangement. However, the specific questions appear to assess a broader sense of alienation that includes alienation from society or life in general, rather than specifically alienation from work. Similarly, the measures of Korman et al (1981) and Lang (1985) address both personal and social alienation. Mottaz (1981) measured alienation using seven items each for the dimensions of powerlessness, meaninglessness and self-estrangement. The conclusion was that powerlessness and meaninglessness are in fact determinants of self-estrangement. Kanungo (1982) although purporting to measure work alienation, confounds estrangement with involvement. Hirschfeld & Field (2000) employ a ten item measure of alienation that also contains items measuring meaninglessness. Thus, it appears that there is much variability in the literature on how alienation is measured, both in terms of the used scales, as well as to its usage in a narrow or broad sense.

3.5 Political Economy Theory (PET)

The term “political economy” refers to “social, political and economic framework within which human life takes place” (Gray et al, 1996). PET “suggests that SED is a proactive process of information provided from management's perspective, designed to set and shape the agenda of debate and to mediate, suppress, mystify and transform social conflict” (Spence & Carqués, 2006). Parker (2005) asserts that PET recognises that accounting performs a pivotal role in the way organisations construct themselves and their environment, economically, politically and socially. Social and political theories that focus on the role of information and disclosure in the relationships between organisations, the state, individuals and groups are considered most appropriate in explaining SED (Deegan, 2002; Gray et al, 1996). PET “emphasises the fundamental interrelationship between political and economic forces in society” (Miller, 1994). This perspective also “accepts that society, politics and economics are inseparable so that issues such as economic issues cannot be considered in isolation from social and environmental issues” (Blomquist & Deegan, 2000).

Two variants of PET, identified by Gray et al (1996), are “Classical” Marxist and “Bourgeois”. The classical Marxist PET emphasises the importance of structural conflict, inequality and the role of government. It is linked to the works of Marx and the existence of class interest, power and conflict within society. In essence, the classical PET views SED as part of an attempt to legitimise not only individual companies within the capitalist system but the system as a whole (Adams et al, 1995; Adams & Harte, 1998; Branco & Rodrigues, 2007; Uwalomwa, 2011). The classical PET tends to focus on the interaction of competing groups within society (Murray, 2010). It places class interests, conflict and structural inequity at the centre of its concerns (Parker, 2005). Deegan (2006) describes classical PET as: “tending to perceive accounting disclosures as a means of maintaining the favoured position of those who control scarce resources (capital), and as a means of undermining the position of those without scarce capital (labour)”. Tinker & Neimark (1987) used classical PET to examine the usage of AR. They argue that corporate reports are not passive describers of an “objective reality”, but play a part in forming the world-view or social ideology that fashions and legitimises the company's AR deployed as ideological weapons aimed at influencing the distribution of income and wealth, in

order to ensure the company's continued profitability and growth.

Bourgeois PET, on the other hand, perceives the interactions between groups in a pluralistic way, in which companies are formed by the stakeholders and the social and economic environment in which they operate in (Gray et al, 1996). There are two sub-theories within the bourgeois PET framework: stakeholder and legitimacy theories (Djajadikerta & Trireksani, 2012). Stakeholder theory is an organisation-centred theory that represents a concept in which companies integrate social and environmental concerns within their business operations and their relationships with stakeholders (Roberts, 1992; Wilson, 2001). Legitimacy theory affirms that companies' focus on the societal recognition of the adequacy of their social behavior (Deegan, 2002; Nasi et al, 1997). Gray et al (1995a) argue that these two theories are overlapping hence may "enrich, rather than compete, for our understanding".

Bourgeois PET tends to take things as given and is thus largely ignored where the world is broadly perceived as pluralistic (Gray et al, 1996). Bourgeois PET adopts a wider set of features incorporating ideas from the radical dimension such as notions of social justice and community harmony (Uwalomwa, 2011). The pluralistic view adopted by bourgeois PET overlooks the existence of particularly powerful groups in society but tends to focus on the group interactions within society as a whole (Gray et al, 1996). Proponents of bourgeois PET argue that disclosure can only be explained in relation to the socio-political environment within which companies operate. In general, SED is considered to be a function of social and/or political pressure and companies facing these pressures are believed to provide more extensive disclosures. SED is seen as a response to competing pressures from various stakeholders such as governments, customers, creditor's, suppliers, the general public and other social activist groups (Branco & Rodrigues, 2007; Uwalomwa, 2011).

Bourgeois PET is being increasingly utilised in SED research and has been used to explain SED practice in a developing countries context (Haider, 2010). Ramanathan (1976) adopts the bourgeois PET perspective in deriving the concept of a 'social contract,' suggesting that the existence of an organisation relies on the support of society in general. Guthrie & Parker (1990) argued that bourgeois PET offers a number of valuable insights to explain SED practices. Williams (1999) asserts that firms provide SED information in response to the pressures of the social, political and economic systems that surrounds them. It is, therefore, suggested that cross-national differences in the quantity of SED information released may be due to variations in country-level characteristics that shape the socio-political and economic systems of respective countries.

These two approaches to PET are therefore vastly different, although they share a common recognition that SED serve the disclosing organisation's private interests (Parker, 2005). They can be employed to transmit the disclosing organisation's social, political and economic interpretations to a pluralistic audience (Guthrie & Parker, 1990). PET explanations of SED are concerned with the socio-political economic structure and associated power inequalities with emphasis on the existence of conflict of interests (Adams et al, 1995; Tilt, 1994). Under this perspective, management declares their own conceptions and reiterate the surrounding social situation through their control over the reporting process (Adams et al, 1995; Guthrie & Parker, 1990). Accordingly, a company discloses social and environmental aspects

that reflect its own beliefs, norms, values and perceptions, which in turn benefits its self-interest while ignoring other aspects that are of interest to the society (Adams et al, 1995; Guthrie & Parker, 1990).

3.6 Application of the Adopted Theoretical Framework to this study

Dialectical materialism theory is applicable to the crisis in the Niger Delta region, especially with the discovery of oil considering the lack of regulations guiding exploitation, exploration and the growing awareness of the HCs. On the other hand, the current approaches of the state, the signing of memorandum of understandings with various HCs, the concern on population and other environmental issues are some of the compromising influences that cannot be ignored in this dispensation (Nmom, 2011).

A list of questions will be compiled and administered to respondents concerning totality; those relating to the holistic nature of elements in the Niger Delta such as oil spills, loss of livelihood, poverty, social and environmental neglect and social and environmental performance of the oil companies. Regarding change, questions will centre on civil unrest and HCs pressure for SED by the oil companies and lastly for contradictions, the focus will be on oil wealth and abject poverty in the Niger Delta.

Dialectical materialism will be employed to enable an understanding of the contradictions between the oil companies and HCs by providing a perspective on the extent of SED. Dialectical materialism theory will inform the study as it suggests that the world is a totality and that change comes from within that totality. It will further inform the study by assisting in identifying reasons that have led to voluntary SED by the oil companies. Key motivating reasons uncovered by previous studies include: compliance factors (Deegan, 2000); a sense of accountability to report (Donaldson & Preston, 1995); fulfilling community expectations (Deegan, 2002); legitimacy pressures (Patten, 1992; Deegan, 2002); and managing stakeholders needs (Neu et al, 1998). Wilmshurst & Frost (2000) indicate that shareholders or investors rights to information, “due diligence” requirements and community concerns are perceived to be of most important for oil companies decisions in providing SED.

It is within the context of alienation theory that the study will examine the HCs perceptions of the oil companies. Nyfeler (2012) states that the theory of alienation is crucial to the understanding of ongoing discourse in the global economy, especially in the oil industry, which is one of the most environmentally sensitive but publicly scrutinised businesses. Alienation is considered to be a condition that leaves no one unaffected, but impacts people in different ways and extremities in relation to their status in society. The high incidence of poverty, which is in sharp contrast to the wealth created in the Niger Delta has resulted in the development of a sense of relative deprivation and a perception of alienation within the HCs, culminating in violent conflicts between communities and oil companies since the 1990s (Idemudia & Ite, 2006). It is not in doubt that alienation is the root cause of militancy in the Niger Delta (Joab-Peterside, 2005). Oil based environmental degradation and ethnic based political domination has combined to alienate the people from the use of their natural resources for their own development (Ibaba, 2009).

The adoption of PET is necessitated by its interdisciplinary character which offers a penetrating insight into the phenomenon under study. It proceeds from a holistic examination of the country's experience and its implications for the present political economy. The advantage of the political economy approach therefore, is that it goes beyond the present conditions by examining the phenomena comprehensively and their interrelatedness to other factors. In other words, no societal problem is static and contradictions are the driving forces leading to change. The basic thrust of PET is that the nature of the economic base (substructure) of any given society to a large extent determines every other relation in the society.

According to Nmom (2011), the contradictions and changes in the economic structure of society are inevitably contravened into the political, legal, social and cultural aspects of the society. PET stresses the significance of understanding the production, exchange relations and reproduction in society. However, the predominance of the economic factors is paramount and to a large extent determines the character of the others.

Xiao et al (2005) suggest that different national concerns and priorities are reflected in public and institutional pressures for social and environmental accountability. Organisations such as Greenpeace and Friends of the Earth have emerged and been actively watching social and environmental activities in developed countries whereas similar organisations, if any, are likely to be imported from developed countries and are less active in developing countries. Moreover, social and environmental issues attract much more press coverage in developed than in developing countries.

The Niger Delta has passed through the primitive stage of fishing, hunting and farming for domestic consumption to cash-crop agriculture before the stage of industrialisation accentuated by the discovery of oil. PET is equally informed by the speculation that the increasing spate of agitations in the Niger Delta is a fall out of material deprivation and that the situation shall not improve so long as the situation creating this condition remain untouched and unchanged (Uranta, 2009). PET exposes the interaction between the indigenous social framework and foreign political and economic institutions which generate many changes within the structure of the society (George, 2008). PET argues that rises in economic inequality are accompanied by the political relations of domination and subordination which are often achieved by the development of institutionalised repression necessary to control the demand of the economically disadvantaged for redistribution (Ladipo, 1981).

PET unavoidably focuses attention not only on the production and management of society's material wealth but also its distribution among the various segments or classes and conflicts which arises from these processes (Uranta, 2009). Pre-oil in the Niger Delta and beyond, there have been intra and inter-community conflicts which aggravated after the discovery of oil. The exploration and exploitation of oil in the Niger Delta automatically changed the socio-political and economic environment (Uranta, 2009). Thus, oil became the symbol of wealth and the control of it became the bone of contention ever since. PET therefore, considers social and economic inequality induced by it as divisive, rather than integrative mechanism (Uranta, 2009). It argues that the power of the ruling class is derived from its stronghold on the forces of production which invariably leads to the exploitation of many by the

few, thereby creating a situation of "haves" and "the haves not" (Uranta, 2009).

The choice of bourgeois PET in this research will be appropriate to explore if SED by oil companies are a reaction to HCs perceptions and explain why oil companies appear to respond to community pressures. PET will be useful in comprehending the civil unrest against oil companies with SED being used to enforce a political agenda. It will assist in understanding the conflict by examining the linkages and interactions between local, national and multinational factors. Lastly, PET will support the assessment of whether oil companies use SED as a tool to transmit their social, political and economic interpretations of their operations.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter presents different theoretical frameworks that have been used to explain and analyse SED practices. The distinction between these theories is in the perspective from which they are viewed and examined. Seeking explanations for the motivation for SED is a study of human behaviour and no single theory can ever completely explain definitively decision making processes as theories are abstractions of reality and particular theories cannot completely account for or describe particular behaviour (Deegan, 2000).

All the three socio-political theories of SED discussed in this chapter are linked to the notion of the existence of a social and environment obligation between the organisation and society, whereby a firm is being held responsible and accountable to its entire stakeholders (Gray et al, 1996). They suggest that the extent of SED is dependent on exposure to public pressure in the social and/or political environment in form of social or regulatory changes (Patten, 2002). Therefore, it has been argued that these theories are overlapping and complementary rather than competing as such (Gray et al, 1995a). Accordingly, there has been a tendency to rely on more than one theory to provide an explanation for managerial behaviour (Fiedler & Deegan, 2002). The multi-theory approach used in this study has been explained and justified with reference to the literature in this chapter.

Chapter 4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research methods and procedures that were utilised in addressing the research questions. It outlines the details of the research design, the study population, sample sizes, data collection procedures, research instruments, validity and reliability of the instruments and methods of data analysis. Outlining the proposed theoretical framework, as was done in the previous chapter, assists in making the necessary methodological choices and constructing the appropriate research design.

This chapter is organised as follows: Section 2 contains the research design with a description of the study area, population and the sample; Section 3 explains the data collection procedures; Section 4 elaborates the research methodology for the collection of interview data; Section 5 clarifies the measurement of SED quantity and quality in AR while Section 6 describes the research methodology for differential reporting which were undertaken in two ways: (1) by comparing SED quantity of local and foreign companies in terms of proportions of negative, neutral or positive disclosures; and (2) differences in SED quality were examined through a SEDI. Section 7 discusses the archival research process used. Sections 8 and 9 explain research ethics and conclusion of the chapter, respectively.

4.2 Research design

Research design involved specifying a master plan outlining the methods and procedures that were used in collecting and analysing the required data (Burns & Bush, 2002; Malhotra et al, 2006). Outlining the proposed theoretical framework for the study helped in making the necessary methodological choices and constructing the appropriate research design (Aburaya, 2012).

To examine SED among oil companies, the study adopted the use of a multi-method qualitative research design which consisted of data from both primary and secondary sources. Multi-method qualitative research refers to using more than one data collection techniques and applying multiple methods to analyse data using non-numerical (qualitative) procedures to answer the research questions (Wahyuni, 2012). The research design was adopted as the study aimed at describing reality by gathering data through interviews and analysing the meaning of documents.

Primary data was collected through semi-structured questionnaire. Semi-structured interviews were adopted in this study to gain an understanding of the underlying reasons for SED practices. A vital determinant for the adoption of interviews was that the researcher recognised that the interviewees perceptions were valuable and useful (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). Alienation theory provided some possible explanations that perceptions of social realities like poverty within HCs were indicators of attempts to alienate them from the resources of their land. The theory was useful in explaining the existence of poverty, social-injustice, economic inequality and why people have adjusted and reduced their expectations in life (Akaninyene, 2010).

Secondary data was sourced from company's AR because they are the most credible and accessible source of information for SED. In adopting a PET perspective, SED in AR were viewed merely as proactive documents, constructing and projecting a particular image aimed at targeted audiences (Stanton & Stanton, 2002). The theory was supported by the fact that most SED undertaken were in the form of positive or neutral news and had a declarative nature (Hanafi, 2006). PET appeared to be supported by the nondisclosure rather than the disclosure or limited disclosure of social and environmental issues. The absence of SED was interpreted by PET as a state where managers discretionally refrained from disclosure that was not in harmony with the interests of the organisation (Gray et al, 1996; Adams et al, 1995a).

Secondary data used included newspapers articles which contained accounts of SED press releases from the oil companies addressing social and environmental issues. Oil companies choose the media to respond quickly to current social and environmental issues as they emerged. It was considered that the various types of data were complementary and made for fuller evaluation of true state of disclosure practices. However, one major limitation that is associated with quantitative secondary data is that it cannot provide a rich explanation as to why some companies provide disclosures while others do not (Elijido-Ten, 2006). Dialectical materialism theory provided some explanations of how the pressure brought to bear by HCs on the oil companies had impacted on the differences of SED. This explained that despite similarities in operations between companies operating in the oil sector, disclosure practices maybe be different as a result of the location of operations and the surrounding systems (Eljayash et al, 2013).

The content analysis method was adopted in this research because it systematically classified and compared SED; which was useful for determining trends and extent of disclosures. This method was one of the most systematic and objective methods of data analysis technique employed in other prior research studies involving SED practices (see for example Belkaoui & Karpik, 1989; Deegan & Gordon, 1996; Dutta & Bose, 2008; Hackston & Milne, 1996; Krippendorf, 2004; Lang & Lundholm, 1993; Wiseman, 1982). It was one of the most common or dominant research technique used to study, measure and analyse SED in AR (Uwalomwa, 2011). Furthermore, it assisted in or provided an understanding of the meanings, motivations and the intentions for the disclosure of social and environmental information (see for instance Cormier et al, 2004; Gray et al, 1995a; Roberts, 1992; Zeghal & Ahmed, 1990).

4.2.1 Area of study

The Federal Republic of Nigeria is located between the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn on the Gulf of Guinea on the western coast of Africa. It has a total area of 923,768 km² (356,669 sq. miles), making it the world's 32nd-largest country. It shares a 4,047 kilometres (2,515 miles) border with Benin, Niger (1497 km), Chad (87 km), Cameroon (1690 km) and has a coastline of 853 km. Nigeria lies between latitudes 4° and 14°N and longitudes 2° and 15°E (Williams, 2012) (see Figure 4.1 below).



Figure 4.1 Map of Nigeria
Source: www.worldatlas.com

4.2.2 Study population and sample

This study sought to understand HCs perceptions of the oil companies in order to assist in explaining SED practices (Zhao, 2011). The main feature of the interview was to facilitate the participants to share their perceptions and experiences regarding social and environmental performance and accountability practices (Boeije, 2010). Nine participants were purposively selected from Community Leaders, Church Leaders, Youth Leaders and community residents. Elijido-Ten (2006) suggested that given the interviews asked for the participants' opinions, behaviour and reactions regarding the chosen social and environmental issues/events, it was considered important not to select the participants randomly.

The study population for the secondary data consisted of all oil companies' registered in Nigeria as at 1st January, 1992. This year was chosen since it was when conflict in the Niger Delta started due to tensions between the foreign oil companies and a number of HCs who felt they were being exploited (Anyanwu, 2012). Records obtained from the Department of Petroleum Resources in Lagos indicated that there were 279 oil companies registered (see Appendix 1). Fifteen oil companies listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange as well as an additional three non-listed major foreign companies (Shell, Chevron and Agip) were selected as sample, because of the scale of their operations in the Niger Delta (Aaron, 2008).

The study examined AR over a 20 year period from 1st January, 1992 to 31st December, 2011. It has been noted that SED data are not comparable either within a report, between reports of different years, or between reports from different companies even within the same sector (Jenkins & Yakovleva, 2006). By examining SED over time, the study aimed to illustrate how the nature, content and style of reports have developed, whether any development were consistent across all companies and the implications for future reporting. The AR were sourced through direct request from the companies, by visiting the Nigeria Stock Exchange (NSE) and through the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) located in Lagos during the period January – February, 2013.

4.3 Data collection procedures and sources of data

Consistent with alienation theory's explanations of the causes of poverty as the product of social segmentation resulting in problems of income appropriation, data was collected on indicators such as: (1) poverty incidence rates; and (2) unemployment rates. Face-to-face interviews were conducted to probe the perceptions of the oil companies by host community members. Semi-structured interviews were utilised because this type of interviewing allowed for a degree of standardisation but provided room for flexibility and for the development of unpredicted themes (Kasperen, 2013; Mason, 2002; Ryan et al, 2002; Scapens, 2004). According to Bryman & Bell (2003), the flexibility provided by semi-structured interviews allowed interviewers to examine how an "interviewee frames and understands issues and events – that is, what the interviewee viewed as important in explaining and understanding events, patterns and forms of behaviour." Semi-structured interviews permitted the interviewer to use probes with a view to clearing up vague responses, or to ask for elaboration of incomplete answers (Welman & Kruger, 2000).

Conforming to dialectical materialism theory which explained that as a result of contradictions in the society, HCs pressures brought about changes in the oil companies approach to reporting SED (Islam, 2010). Data on indicators of HCs pressures were collected for the number of disruptions of oil operations, hostage taking, social unrests and protest demonstrations. In addition, data on SED quantity and quality for foreign and local oil companies was collected. Archival research was conducted on published news articles from one daily newspaper in Lagos (the Champion) regarding social and environmental information relating to the oil companies. Media articles initiated by oil companies were considered since these companies were likely to choose the media to respond quickly to current social and environmental issues. The newspaper was selected due to employee contacts who granted unrestricted access to their archives. Researchers have argued that disclosure differences in the same industry are not very distinctive but foreign companies tend to report more SED quantity and quality (Jones, 2010; Joshi & Gao, 2009; Miroshnik, 2002).

In line with PET assumptions, AR were used as source documents for this study. It was normal for social and environmental information to be included in the AR rather than in separate sustainability reports. This research limited its analysis to the use of companies' AR for the following reasons: (1) information from companies AR were the main document sources that represents a company and were widely used as a communication medium for conveying corporate activities to stakeholders

(Uwalomwa, 2011); and (2) most other prior studies have used AR for studying SED practices which provides greater potential for comparability of results (see Adams, 2004; Azim et al, 2009; Freedman & Jaggi, 1988; Guthrie & Parker, 1989; Hughes et al, 2001; Neu et al, 1998; Raman, 2006). In addition, to determine the indicators of whether disclosures were proactive documents, data on SED quantity were collected through categories of themes such as environment, employee, community development, health and safety. Data on specific actions that quantifies social and environmental impacts was collected to determine SED quality so as to better understand the disclosure quantity.

4.4 Primary research

4.4.1 Interviews

Interviews have been recognised as one of the most effective methods for collecting qualitative data (Easterby-Smith et al, 2002). Interviews are the principal sources of qualitative information and are becoming an important method in SED (Eugenio, 2009). Deegan & Blomquist (2006) contended that the best way to gather information was to ask the relevant people directly, rather than to use other forms of secondary data. Semi-structured interviews were selected as the means of data collection to test alienation theory since they were well suited for the exploration of perceptions and opinions of respondents (Barriball & While, 1994). Furthermore, semi-structured interviews were beneficial because they provided a balance of perspectives by allowing the corroborating of certain facts that were already established through more detailed, explicit feedback from respondents (Gilchrist, 1992; McCracken, 1988).

The researcher used recommendations from community contacts to facilitate the selection of participants from the selected HCs. The selected participants were then contacted by the researcher to arrange the interviews. There were no refusals of the request for an interview. The study was conducted in three HCs: Ogbunabali community in Port Harcourt (Rivers State); Biogbolo community in Yenagoa (Bayelsa State); and Ogonu community in Warri (Delta State). The choice of these HCs was due to observed social and environmental effects of oil production (Olankunle, 2010; Uwalomwa, 2011).

Leader; in Port Harcourt, one Community Leader, one community resident; and in Warri, one Church Leader, one Community Leader, one Youth Leader and one community resident. Participants were asked to answer questions regarding their perceptions of the SED of oil companies in the Niger Delta. Respondents at the community leadership level were chosen for interview while community residents were interviewed to cross check the perceptions of their leaders. Community Leaders were expected to have a general knowledge of their communities' challenges and aspirations and were considered able to address the general interview questions.

4.4.3 Data collection

The interviews were conducted during December, 2012. An interview guide containing a list of questions was used for the interviews (Appendix 2). Since the early questions influenced the interviewee's responses to later ones and the nature of the influence was not always the same, the researcher was led to explore and probe some of the responses further and to ask additional questions which resulted in clearer explanations. For example, when an interviewee raised an interesting point on a particular issue; the interviewer could probe deeper. As qualitative data intended to represent part of the data sourced, the interview questions had to help investigate and promote a deeper understanding of SED related issues (Zhao, 2011). Therefore, in this study, the interview questions were designed to be open-ended, as this would allow perceptions to be identified. The interviews covered general questions relating to social and environmental issues and more detailed questions on the interviewees' perceptions of SED.

Key issues were noted down during the interviews, which helped the interviewer to reflect on the responses given. At the end of each interview, the researcher noted the reflections of the interview in a diary; including the relationship between the interviewer and the interviewees' general reactions.

4.4.4 Unit of analysis for interview data

Semi-structured interviews provide a means to address questions in a standard manner enabling the researcher to elicit data appropriate for analysis and for comparisons (De Langen, 2009). But there are no clear guidelines in the literature as to what the appropriate unit of analysis should be for coding interview transcripts (Hruschka et al, 2004; Kurasaki, 2000). The unit of analysis refers to the basic unit of text to be classified during content analysis. Messages have to be unitised before they can be coded and differences in the unit definition can affect coding decisions as well as the comparability of outcomes with other similar studies (Cook & Ralston, 2003; De Wever et al, 2006). Qualitative content analysis usually uses individual themes as the unit for analysis, rather than the physical linguistic units (for example, word, sentence or paragraph) most often used in quantitative content analysis. An instance of a theme might be expressed in a single word, a phrase, a sentence, a paragraph or an entire document (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).

It appears that there is much variability in the literature on how alienation is measured (see Hirschfeld & Field, 2000; Kanungo, 1982; Kohn, 1976; Korman et al, 1981; Lang, 1985; Mottaz, 1981). For the purpose of this study, the units of analysis for the interview data were taken as those themes that implied the concept of alienation such as powerlessness, meaninglessness and isolation. Adopting themes as

the coding units was appropriate since the study primarily looked for the expressions of ideas within the interview data (Minichiello et al, 1990).

4.4.5 Quality of primary SED data

The quality of the collected data from semi-structured interviews depended on both the interview design and on the skill of the interviewer (Mathers et al, 2002). It was therefore important that sufficient information about the interviews were reported. The following information was the minimum described in reporting the interviews: (1) the interviewees were described in terms of number of interviewees, how they were selected (for example, their roles in the community) and how they were recruited; (2) the interviews were described in terms of duration and location of the interviews; (3) the number of interviewers; and (4) the interview guide that was used during the interviews (Hove & Anda, 2005).

According to Robson et al (2001), the key to ensuring good quality interview data were concerns about reliability and validity applying to qualitative data, just as they do to quantitative data. Thus, anyone reading a report of a qualitative investigation wants to know that the stated methods were used consistently throughout the study (reliability concerns). They also want to know that there were no hidden biases in the data collection, the data analysis nor the conclusions drawn (validity concerns).

Robson et al (2001) asserted that the following considerations ensured quality data was collected: (1) minimising evaluator bias – by (a) outlining explicit methods for data collection and data analyses; (b) adhering to these methods; and (c) letting the data speak for themselves and not forcing them into a framework designed by the researcher; (2) appropriate sampling – the rationale and method of sampling was explicit and justified with respect to the study's aims; (3) validation by subjects – by; (a) confirming the accuracy of the data collected, the reasonableness of the method used to summarise it; (b) confirming the important data through “triangulation”, that is, finding agreement when using a different data source or methodology (as explained later in the chapter); and (c) exploring alternative explanations for patterns observed in the data.

4.4.6 Analysis of interview data

The study used McCracken's (1988) five step process of analysing semi-structured interviews. The first step began with reading each interview transcript twice; the first time, for content understanding; the second time, for identification of useful comments. This step focussed on sorting out important from unimportant material in the transcripts. In the second stage, descriptive and interpretive categories were developed based on evidence presented in the transcripts, literature review and theoretical framework. Each interview transcript was manually imported into NVivo 10 software program for qualitative data analysis. The coding process commenced with “Free coding,” which consisted of creating broad labels and coding interview text to these new codes for further review. NVivo 10 software program allowed the development and coding of material through the use of a coding tree and free codes. In the early stages of analysis, creating free codes, which were moved later into the tree-shaped coding scheme, was useful for the development of key concepts.

The third step consisted of thorough examination of the preliminary codes to identify connections and develop pattern codes. The fourth step involved a determination of basic themes by examining clusters of comments made by participants. Ely et al (1991) defined a theme as “a statement of meaning that runs through all or most of the data, or one in the minority that carries heavy emotional or factual impact”. At this point, a preliminary coding scheme was created in the NVivo 10 software program to code specific passages from each interview into one or more codes. The final step examined themes from all interviews to describe predominant themes. These predominant themes then served as answers to the relevant research questions and formed the basis for discussion.

4.4.7 Validity and reliability of interviews

The success and validity of an interview rested on the extent to which the respondents’ opinions were truly reflected (Newton, 2010). Validity refers to the extent to which the researcher gained full access to the knowledge and meanings of participants (Easterby Smith et al, 1991). Participants were provided with a transcribed version of their interviews on completion of the interview (the following day) to cross check and edit. This allowed the participants to affirm or reject what the researcher had recorded as reflecting their views and opinions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Another method used to ascertain validity was through the use of triangulation. Hussey & Hussey (1997) define triangulation as “the use of different research approaches, methods and techniques in the same study to overcome potential bias and sterility of a single-method approach”. Guion et al (2011) identified five methods of triangulations namely: data, investigator, theoretical, methodological and environmental.

Data triangulation describes the process of the collection of data from different sources, or in different time frames (Easterby-Smith et al, 1991). It involves using different sources of information to increase the validity of a study (Guion et al, 2011). Investigator triangulation is achieved when different investigators are used to collect the same data (Easterby-Smith et al, 1991). Theoretical triangulation refers to the use of more than one theoretical position in interpreting data (Denzin, 1970). Methodological triangulation involves using more than one method to gather data, such as interviews, observations, questionnaires and documents (Denzin, 1970). Environmental triangulation involves the use of different locations related to the environment in which the study took place (Guion et al, 2011). In this study, triangulation at the level of data collection, theoretical, methodological and environmental were employed.

Reliability refers to how consistently a technique measured the concepts it is supposed to measure, enabling other interviewers to repeat the study and attain similar findings (Sekaran, 2000; Rao, 2002). The lack of standardisation in semi-structured interviews may lead to concerns about reliability (Robson, 1993). The concern about reliability in these types of interview was related to issues of bias. Overcoming these biases needed the following to be considered: the researcher’s preparation and readiness for the interview; the nature of the opening comments made when the interview commenced; the approach to questioning; the impact of the researcher’s behaviour during the interview; the ability to demonstrate attentive listening skills (see Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005; Healey & Rawlinson, 1993; Keaveney, 1995; Robson, 2002; Torrington, 1991).

While it is impossible for researchers to always control or plan the circumstances under which a research project takes place, interviewer friendliness, approach and manner towards respondents helped enormously with securing validity and reliability of the data (Barriball & While, 1994). Informal contact with the participants improved the rapport between respondents and the researcher as well as within the personal interview situation itself. In addition, classificatory data about each respondent (that is age, gender) and field notes made by the interviewer about each interview gave the researcher detailed information regarding the data collection phase which enhanced the validity and reliability of the research findings (Barriball & While, 1994).

4.5 Quantity and quality of SED

4.5.1 AR

PET regards AR as statements of propaganda used to develop and maintain particular corporate image and to mention information as favourably as possible (Amran & Devi, 2007). AR were chosen as the media for measuring SED since they are formal public documents produced by companies in response to the mandatory corporate reporting requirements (Stanton & Stanton, 2002). They are commonly divided into two sections; one for statutory required financial statements and the other for non-statutory matters (Hassan, 2010). Tsang (2001) argued that there was growing realisation that AR have a disclosure function which can serve as a crucial public relations function. White & Hanson (2002) presented a justification for extensive use of AR by researchers “for no other medium offers the same blend of consistency, accessibility and wide applicability”.

AR are characterised by their high degree of credibility (Neu et al, 1998; Tilt, 1994); availability, accessibility and wide distribution (Campbell, 2000; Wilmshurst & Frost, 2000; Unerman, 2000); formality and statutory nature (Buhr, 1998; Hackston & Milne, 1996); consistency (Tilt, 1994) as well as usefulness to various stakeholders (Buhr, 1998; Deegan & Rankin, 1996; Neu et al, 1998). It represents the most important document which companies use in construction of their social imagery (Hines, 1988). AR are the most accessible source of information for listed companies (Yusoff & Lehman, 2005). The social and environmental factors frequently produce conflict with the company aims, so the presentation of financial and social/environmental information within the same report becomes an important element in demonstrating how the company reconciles these matters (Gray et al, 1995b).

Furthermore, it was virtually impossible to monitor all available communication media of SED over a number of years (Gray et al, 1995b). Complete and consistent identification of all corporate communication of SED over a long period was likely to be problematic (Hammond & Miles, 2004; Unerman, 2000). With a variety of means which could be used to disclose SED, any study must limit the range of documents included for two main reasons: (1) large companies might publish a large number of documents each year; it risks a researcher being overwhelmed by the number of documents (Unerman, 2000); and (2) many documents might not have been placed in a corporate archive, making it difficult to ensure completeness of data (Unerman, 2000). Therefore, it appears that, on the one hand, relying only on AR

provided an incomplete picture and on the other hand, examining all documents was illogical. Investigation and analysis of all possible SED media might prove to be pragmatically, financially and technically infeasible (Hanafi, 2006).

4.5.2 The quantity of SED

The measurement of SED, in particular in AR, is controversial. Criticism has focussed on the SED quantity because companies emphasise only news that are favourable to their image even in cases where the company has been prosecuted for infringements (Deegan & Gordon, 1996).

4.5.2.1 SED categories

The measurement of SED in AR requires a clear definition for SED categories. Literature identifies four major themes for CSR; natural environment, employees, community and customers (Gray et al, 1995b). Hackston & Milne (1996) proposed one of the most comprehensive indices in literature to explain SED determinants. They suggested the following themes; environment, energy, employee, product, community development and customers. Based on various studies, the SED categories are outlined in Table 4.1 (see Deegan et al, 2002; Gray et al, 1995b; Hall, 2002; Hassan, 2010; Newson & Deegan, 2002; Williams, 1999; Williams & Pei, 1999). Five SED categories comprising: community, health & safety, employee, corporate governance and environment are identified as a consistent measurement method (Ernst & Ernst, 1978; Hackston & Milne, 1996).

Table 4.1 SED categories

SED Categories
1- Environment
1-1 Environmental pollution
1. Pollution control
2. Compliance with pollution laws and regulations
3. Prevention or repair of environmental damage
4. Conservation of natural resources
5. Using recycled materials
6. Efficiently using materials resources in the manufacturing process
7. Supporting anti-litter campaigns
8. Receiving awards
9. Preventing waste
1-2 Aesthetics
10. Designing facilities harmonious with the environment
11. Contributions to beautify the environment
12. Restoring historical buildings/structures
1-3 Other
13. Undertaking environmental studies
14. Wildlife conservation
2- Energy
15. Conservation of energy

SED Categories
16. Utilising waste materials for energy production
17. Disclosing increased energy efficiency of products
18. Research aimed at improving energy efficiency of products
19. Receiving awards
20. Voicing the company's concern about energy shortage
21. Energy policies
3- Employee
3-1 Employee health and safety
22. Reducing hazards in the work environment
23. Accident statistics
24. Complying with health and safety standards and regulations
25. Receiving a safety award
26. Establishing a safety department/committee/policy
27. Conducting research to improve work safety
28. Provide low cost health care for employees
3-2 Employment of minorities or women
29. Recruiting or employing racial minorities and/or women
30. Establishing goals for minority representation in the workforce
31. Programme for the advancement of minorities in the workplace
32. Employment of other special interest groups
33. Disclosures about internal advancement statistics
3-3 Employee training
34. Training employees through in-house programmes
35. Financial assistance
36. Establishment of trainee centres
3-4 Employee assistance/benefits
37. Providing assistance or guidance to employees
38. Providing staff accommodation
39. Providing recreational activities/facilities
3-5 Employee remuneration
40. Providing amount and/or percentage figures for salaries, wages and pay taxes superannuation
41. Remuneration policies
3-6 Employee profiles
42. Number of employees
43. Providing the disposition of staff
44. Providing statistics on the number of staff
45. Providing per employee statistics
46. Providing information on the qualifications of employees recruited
3-7 Employee share purchase schemes
47. A share purchase scheme or pension programme
48. Providing any other profit sharing schemes
3-8 Employee morale

SED Categories
49. Improve job satisfaction and employee motivation
50. Stability of the workers' jobs
51. Awards for effective communication with employees
52. Communication with employees
3-9 Industrial relations
53. Company's relationship with trade unions
54. Industrial action
3-10 Other
55. Improving working conditions
56. Re-organisation of the company
57. Statistics on employee turnover
4- Products
4-1 Product development
58. Developments in company's products
59. Development expenditure
60. Information on any research projects set up by the company to improve its product in any way
4-2 Product safety
61. Products safety standards
62. Safety research
63. Improve procedures of processing and preparation of products
4-3 Product quality
64. Quality of the company's products
65. Verifiable information
5- Community development
66. Donations of cash, products or employee services to support communities
67. Summer or part-time employment of students
68. Sponsoring public health projects
69. Aiding medical research
70. Sponsoring educational conferences
71. Funding scholarship programmes or activities
72. Supporting national pride/government sponsored campaigns
73. Other special community related activities
6- Customers
74. Value added statement
8- Others
75. Corporate objectives/policies
76. Other

Source: Adopted from Hackston & Milne (1996)

4.5.2.2 Unit of analysis for SED quantity

Most of the content analysis studies refer to a single unit of analysis, that being most frequently the recording unit for the volumetric studies and the context unit for the

index ones. This was not surprising given that in the index studies where most frequently the recording unit was the presence or absence of specific information, the unit that usually needed attention was the context one (Patten & Crampton, 2004). Context units are defined as “the largest body of content that may be examined in characterising a recording unit” (Berelson, 1952).

The measurement in terms of sentences was justified in that: (1) sentences were counted with more accuracy than words; (2) sentences were used to convey meaning whereas discerning the meaning of individual words in isolation was problematic; (3) sentences overcame the problem of allocation of portions of pages and removed the need to account for the number of words; and (4) sentences were a more natural unit of written English to count than words (Hackston & Milne, 1996). The number of sentences was chosen as it was easily identified and allowed for a more refined examination of disclosure (see Bouten et al, 2011; Mbekomize & Wally-Dima, 2013). Milne & Adler (1999) argued that measurement in terms of sentences gave similar results to measurement of volume in terms of proportion of a page. The criticism of using pages for measurement was that print sizes, column sizes and pages sizes may differ from AR to another (Ng, 1985). Milne & Adler (1999) suggested that using areas of pages as a basis for measuring SED added unnecessary reliability. Unerman (2000) measured disclosures using the portion of pages through a grid with 25 rows of equal height and four columns of equal width laid across each SED.

For the purpose of this research, SED quantity in AR was measured by alternative two units: number of sentences and the number of pages. The objectives of using two different units were to examine if the results from the two different units provided similar results or not.

4.5.3 The quality of SED

Measuring the quantity was not adequate for understanding the phenomenon of SED. To better understand SED, disclosure quality was taken into account. Although the measurement of quality is difficult and methods often lack objectivity, SED quantity should be paralleled by the quality so that it is understood more clearly (Hassan, 2010).

The concept of SED quality is a controversial issue in the accounting academic literature. The business definition of quality is that the quality of product or service indicates the perception of the degree to which the product or service meets users' expectations. In this context, it can be argued that SED quality reflects whether the disclosure meets stakeholder's needs (Hassan, 2010). It can be argued that obtaining specific information represents the stakeholder's main requirements from disclosure. Consequently, SED quality was determined according to whether disclosures provided clear and specific information (Hassan, 2010).

4.5.3.1 SED quality in AR

Brammer & Pavelin (2006) argued that SED quality referred to whether the disclosure reports on specific actions, quantifies social and environmental impacts, sets formal targets and was subject to external audit. Quantified SED are more likely to represent actual activities (Toms, 2002).

The common method for measuring SED quality is rank disclosure information, according to its type or according to predetermined factors (Hassan, 2010). Various ranking systems have been used in the literature to measure SED quality. These ranking systems present different point scales for assessing quality. Robertson & Nicholson (1996) and Cormier et al (2005) suggested a 3-point scale system and Van Staden & Hooks (2007) developed a 5-point scale while Gamble et al (1995) and Raar (2002) used a 7-point scale to assess quality. Generally, these different ranking systems depend on the distinction between general information and SED that reports specific activities. It can be argued that using a ranking system consisting of many points could reduce reliability in the measurement, as an increasing number of points leads to a greater opportunity for the existence of subjective judgements. It would seem therefore, that developing a ranking system that depends on the lowest possible number of points, could achieve reliable results.

Qualitative SED measures which denote weights for different items, based on the perceived importance of each item to various user categories were proposed as follows: weight 3 to quantitative SED, weight 2 to non-quantitative SED that reports specific activities and weight 1 to common qualitative SED (Al-Tuwaijri et al, 2004; Cormier et al, 2005). Therefore, this study adopted Hassan (2010) measurement which is based on a 2-point scale system to assess SED quality in AR as follows:

- 1:** if SED is quantitative and reports specific activities of a company concerning its social and environmental responsibility.
- 0:** otherwise

This measurement metric was chosen because it captured: (1) quantified SED in AR; (2) publication of social and environmental policies; (3) externally monitored SED; (4) volume of information available in the reports; and (5) non-quantified information.

Table 4.2 Examples for the quality rating score

Rating Scale	Example
1	<p>“Adopt-A-School initiative started in April 2007, in partnership with the Ministry of Education, aims at supporting the development of selected schools over a 5 year period through renovation of facilities, teacher capacity building, provision of learning aids and supporting libraries. Since inception, 28 government owned primary schools have been adopted in our host communities. In 2010, 4 more primary schools were adopted in Lagos: Ogo-oluwa, Temidire, Idi-odo primary schools and Archbishop Taylor primary school in Victoria Island.”¹</p> <p>“During the year, the company donated 1.3 million Naira to Lagos Island East Local Council Development Area in respect of “Island Development Initiative.”²</p> <p>“Total Nigeria Plc. pioneered in partnership with the Nigerian Business Coalition Against Aids (NIBUCAA) a free HIV/AIDS voluntary consultation and testing scheme for our host communities using our network of stations throughout the country. 2 sets of high-tech screening machines were donated to 2 hospitals in Kaduna and Akwa Ibom States.”³</p> <p>“In the past year, the company made donations in support to various health causes affecting lives of children in Port Harcourt, Ibadan and Abuja.”⁶</p>
0	<p>“We will continue to foster a work environment that guarantees every employee an opportunity to develop their skills and talents to the full in a way consistent with the company’s values.”⁴</p> <p>“Employment opportunities are open to all suitably qualified Nigerians irrespective of place of origin, religion or gender. The same opportunities are open to qualified physically challenged persons.”⁵</p>

1. Oando Plc. AR, 2010

Source: Table format adopted from Hassan (2010)

2. MRS Plc. AR, 2009

3. Total Nigeria Plc. AR, 2011

4. Conoil Plc. AR, 2004

5. Mobil Oil Nigeria Plc. AR, 2011

6. Forte Oil Plc. AR, 2010

The quality score was calculated by evaluating each sentence in each SED according to the proposed rating and then the average score was calculated (total score/number of sentences). SED quality varies widely across companies since content is not strictly regulated (Aerts et al, 2004). The following attributes in relation to SED quality were considered: third party verification; the adoption of reporting guidelines and standards; the ability to accurately assess performance from SED; clear statements of vision from the chief executive; good coverage of significant issues; wide access; reporting of normalised data and awards/accolades (Hammond & Miles, 2004).

4.5.4 Analysis of SED quantity and quality

4.5.4.1 Content analysis

Content analysis has been extensively used in examining disclosure practices (see for example Campbell, 2004; Cormier et al, 2005; Kamal & Deegan, 2013; Magness, 2006; Novelini & Fregonesi, 2013; Pesci & Costa, 2014; Rahma & Anis, 2013; Rupley et al, 2011; Talebnia et al, 2013; Van de Burgwal & Vieira, 2014). Content

analysis can be defined as “a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data according to their context” (Krippendorff, 1980). Content analysis refers to the process of making inferences based on objective coding of information. It is a set of procedures for collecting and organising information. Content analysis can be used in an inductive or deductive way. Deductive content analysis was used when the structure of analysis was operationalised on the basis of previous knowledge and the purpose of the study which was theory testing (Kyngas & Vanhanen, 1999). A deductive approach based on an earlier theory or model moves from general to specific (Burns & Grove, 2005). An approach based on inductive data moves from specific to general, so that particular instances are observed and then combined into a general statement (Chinn & Kramer, 1999). This study used inductive content analysis since there are no previous studies which have investigated SED of oil companies.

The main advantages of the content analysis method relate to reliability, objectivity, external validity and volume of data. One of the major strengths of this type of analysis is its generalisability given that it uses voluminous numerical data to establish significant relationships. A distinguishing characteristic of content analysis was that data were coded and measured in a reliable and systematic manner (Krippendorff, 1980). SED content analysis involved the construction of a classification scheme and establishing a set of decision rules for coding, measuring and recording the data being examined (Milne & Adler, 1999). Specifically, content analysis method required answering questions of where? (Determining the documents used in analysis, that is AR); what? (Defining SED categories); and how? (Codifying the data and calculating scores, that is disclosure index).

4.5.4.2 Analysis

To better understand SED, correlation analysis was performed among the different disclosure categories to identify the relationships among them. The reliability (internal consistency) was measured using Cronbach’s Alpha (α). To examine whether the results of the SED in AR followed a normal distribution for data, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests for normality were utilised. Robustness of SED scores was determined by multicollinearity while multiple regression analysis was used to test for relationships with the following company characteristics that is; size, age and profitability. All analyses were performed using SPSS for Windows Version 22 software.

4.5.4.3 Validity and reliability of content analysis

Validity in content analysis refers to the extent to which the categories represent the concepts on which they are based. This is done by explaining where they came from and how they measure a single concept (Wood & Ross-Kerr, 2010). Establishing validity in content analysis was undertaken by developing a coding scheme in the analysis of content (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999). The important characteristics in the content were determined and inferences of patterns of specific sets of elements were made. If the scheme was faithful to the concepts, it was regarded as a valid coding scheme (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999). However, Bryman (2004) indicated that problems related to validity could be alleviated through using multiple methods of data collection and sources. In this study, the question of validity was addressed by the multi-method research design employed, which

enabled triangulation as discussed earlier in the chapter.

Reliability is ‘the degree to which measures are free from error therefore yield consistent results’ (Zikmund, 1997). Krippendorff (1980) described three types of reliability issues to be considered in content analysis – stability, reproducibility and accuracy. Stability is ‘the degree to which a process is consistent or unchanging over time’ (Krippendorff, 1980). Reproducibility referred to the ability of different coders to reproduce the same results on the same data set (Krippendorff, 1980). Accuracy was the extent to which the classification of text corresponded to a standard (Weber, 1990).

This study used the experiences of previous studies by following Deegan et al (2002) and Yafian (2011) procedures. To check the reliability of data, the focus was on both the stability and reproducibility tests. The first round was coding the disclosure by the researcher. To facilitate the recording, a coding sheet for each AR was created. The AR were reviewed and the identified items were counted and recorded. Once the analyses of all sampled AR were completed, the last step for the first round was the preparation of an Excel worksheet and transferring all results from coding sheets to this sheet. The Excel worksheet included the list of companies and all the details of data transferred from the coding sheet. The second round was conducted with the same procedure by the researcher at least twenty days after completion of the first round. The third round was a comparison of the two Excel spreadsheets’ results and resolution of any discrepancies by reviewing the relevant AR.

To conduct a reproducibility test, a sample of AR was coded by a second coder with similar structures used for the stability test. Finally, the second coder’s analyses along with the final results of the researcher analyses were assessed using Krippendorff’s Alpha Statistics Technique. While there is no acceptable standard of the level of inter-coder agreement for SED, 80% or above is suggested and applied as in past studies such as Tilt (2001), Milne & Adler (1999), and Hackston & Milne (1996).

4.6 Differential reporting of SED between local and foreign oil companies

4.6.1 Comparative analysis of differential reporting

The study sought to identify SED levels by comparing local and foreign companies operating in the oil sector. It aimed at identifying the differences between local and foreign companies SED practices. More specifically, the main concern was to examine the concept that disclosures by foreign companies require reporting SED to the host country's society (Petkoski & Twose, 2003; Koerber, 2009).

An examination of the AR identified large differences in sentence length both within and between companies. Cunningham & Gadenne (2003) selected words as the unit of measurement in order to avoid difficulties in accounting for these differences. The use of words or proportions of a page has been criticised as decreasing reliability and providing meaningless results or measures (Milne & Adler, 1999). However, to maintain meaningfulness of comparisons, this study adopted the use of sentences as the unit of analysis.

Comparative analysis was conducted between local and foreign companies in terms of SED quantity contained in the AR. This was done by classifying SED into three subcategories according to whether they were negative, neutral or positive disclosures and then comparing their proportions through descriptive analysis (Cowan & Gadenne, 2005).

4.6.2 SEDI Index

In addition, differences in SED quality were analysed using a combination of SDI adopted from Sutantoputra (2009) and EDI adopted from Clarkson et al (2008) both based on the GRI guidelines (2002). The use of GRI Guidelines as a coding framework to analyse SED has been found in previous studies (see Frost et al, 2005; Clarkson et al, 2008; Adnan et al, 2010). The index, known as the SEDI consisted of 62 equally weighted items, 46 relate to “hard” disclosure measures (verifiable), compared to only 16 for “soft” disclosure items (unverifiable) (see Table 4.3). Firms were awarded a score of 1 if they mentioned information which specified in the rating whereas a score of 0 was given for not mentioning, with an overall maximum rating score of 62. The SEDI consisted of seven broad categories: A1–A4 and A5–A7 to represent “hard” and “soft” respectively (Clarkson et al, 2008).

‘Hard’ disclosures provided objective measures of social and environmental performance, for example firms that obtained independent verification of their SED and firms with their social and environmental programs certified by independent agencies and third parties received higher scores in this category. ‘Hard’ disclosure categories make it relatively difficult for poor social and environmental performers to mimic SED of good social and environmental performers (Clarkson et al, 2008). ‘Soft’ disclosures were mainly unverifiable claims about corporate vision, strategy, policies and initiatives of social and environmental nature (Clarkson et al, 2008). Due to the unsubstantiated nature of soft disclosure items, poor social and environmental performers could easily imitate good social and environmental performers through their SED without necessarily having a deep commitment to the protection of the society and/or environment (Clarkson et al, 2008). A dichotomous variable was used with the value of ‘1’ if the company reported the corresponding SED and ‘0’ for non-disclosure. The only consideration was whether or not a company discloses an item of SED in its AR (Hossain et al, 2006). SED were identified by the ‘meaning’ implied in the text according to the definition of each disclosure item (Lu & Abeysekera, 2014).

Table 4.3 GRI-based SED scoring index

Hard disclosure items (maximum score is 46)	Map to GRI
A 1 Governance structure and management systems (maximum score is 6)	
1. Existence of a department or management positions for addressing firm's social and/or environmental impacts (0-1)	3.1
2. Existence of a social and/or environmental and/or a public issues committee in the board (0-1)	3.1; 3.6
3. Existence of terms and conditions applicable to employees, suppliers and customers regarding firms social and/or environmental practices (0-1)	3.16
4. Stakeholder involvement in setting corporate social and/or environmental policies (0-1)	1.1; 3.10
5. Implementation of ILO/ISO standards at the plant and/or firm level (0-1)	3.14; 3.20
6. Executive compensation is linked to social and/or environmental performance (0-1)	3.5
A 2 Credibility (maximum score is 10)	
1. Adoption/acknowledgement of the use of GRI sustainability reporting guidelines (0-1)	3.14
2. Independent verification/assurance about social and/or environmental information disclosed in the sustainability report (0-1)	2.20; 2.21
3. Periodic independent verifications/audits on social and/or environmental performance and/or systems (0-1)	3.19
4. Certification of social and/or environmental programs by independent agencies (0-1)	3.20
5. Product certification with respect to safety and impact (0-1)	3.16
6. External labour and/or environmental performance awards (0-1)	
7. Stakeholder involvement in the social and/or environmental disclosure process (0-1)	1.10; 3.10
8. Participation in voluntary social and/or environmental initiatives endorsed by ILO/Departments of industrial relations/energy in respective country (0-1)	3.15
9. Participation in industry specific associations/initiatives to improve social and/or environmental practices (0-1)	3.15
10. Participation in other labour organisations/ associations to improve social and/or environmental practices (0-1)	3.15
A 3 Social and environmental performance indicators (maximum score is 26)	
SPI	
Labour practices and decent work	
1. SPI on employment information (type, numbers of employees by region/country, employment creation and average turnover) (0-1)	LA1,2
2. SPI on labour/management relations (the presence of independent trade unions and companies' policies and procedures) (0-1)	LA3,4
3. SPI on health and safety (policies on occupational accidents and diseases, standard injury, lost day and absentee rates and number of work-related fatalities) (0-1)	LA5,6,7,8
4. SPI on training and education (average hours per year per employee by category of employee) (0-1)	LA9
5. SPI on diversity and opportunity (description of equal opportunity policies, monitoring systems) (0-1)	LA10,11
Human rights	
6. SPI on strategy and management (description of firms policies related to the universal declaration and the fundamental human rights conventions of ILO) (0-1)	HR1,2,3
7. SPI on non-discrimination (policies/programmes/procedures preventing all forms of discrimination in firms' operations) (0-1)	HR4

8. SPI on freedom of association and collective bargaining (firms' policies on acknowledging freedom of association and collective bargaining) (0-1)	HR5
9. SPI on child labour (policies to exclude the use of child labour directly from firms' internal operations and indirectly from firms' suppliers) (0-1)	HR6
10. SPI on forced and compulsory labour (policies addressing forced and compulsory labour) (0-1)	HR7
Society	
11. SPI on community (policies to manage impacts on community in areas affected by firms' operations) (0-1)	SO1
12. SPI on bribery and corruption (policies and mechanism for organisation and employees in addressing bribery and corruption) (0-1)	SO2
13. SPI on political contributions (policies, management system and compliance mechanism for managing political lobbying and contributions) (0-1)	SO3
Product responsibility	
14. SPI on customer health and safety (policy protecting customer health and safety during the use of firms' products and services) (0-1)	PR1
15. SPI on products and services (policy, management systems and compliance mechanism for product information and labelling) (0-1)	PR2
16. SPI on respect for privacy (firms' policies, management systems and compliance mechanism for consumer privacy) (0-1)	PR3
EPI	
17. EPI on energy use and/or energy efficiency (0-1)	EN3,4,17
18. EPI on water use and/or water use efficiency (0-1)	EN5,17
19. EPI on greenhouse gas emissions (0-1)	EN8
20. EPI on other air emissions (0-1)	EN9,10
21. EPI on Toxic Release Inventory (TRI) (land, water, air) (0-1)	EN11
22. EPI on other discharges, releases and/or spills (not TRI) (0-1)	EN12,13
23. EPI on waste generation and/or management (recycling, re-use, reducing, treatment and disposal) (0-1)	EN11
24. EPI on land and resources use, biodiversity and conservation (0-1)	EN6,7
25. EPI on environmental impacts of products and services (0-1)	EN14
26. EPI on compliance performance (for example exceedances, reportable incidents) (0-1)	EN16
A 4 Social spending (maximum score is 4)	
1. Summary of dollar savings arising from social/environmental initiatives to the company (0-1)	
2. Expenditure incurred on community, political contributions, technologies, R&D and/or innovations to enhance social performance (0-1)	SO1,3
3. Expenditure incurred on technologies, R&D and/or innovations to enhance environment performance and/or efficiency (0-1)	EN35
4. Expenditure incurred on fines related to social/environmental performance litigation/issues (0-1)	SO2; PR1; HR4,5,6,7; EN16
Soft disclosure items (maximum score is 16)	
A 5 Vision and strategy claims (maximum score is 6)	
1. CEO statement on social and/or environmental performance in letter to shareholders and/or stakeholders (0-1)	1.1; 1.2
2. A statement of corporate social and/or environmental policy, values and principles, codes of conduct (0-1)	1.1; 1.2; 3.7

3. A statement about formal management systems regarding social and/or environmental risk and performance (0-1)	3.19
4. A statement that the firm undertakes periodic reviews and evaluations of its social and/or environmental performance (0-1)	3.19
5. A statement of measurable goals in terms of future social and/or environmental performance (0-1)	1.1
6. A statement about specific social and/or environmental innovations and improvements (0-1)	1.1
A 6 Social/environmental profile (maximum score is 4)	
1. A statement about a firm's compliance (or lack thereof) with specific social and/or environmental standards (0-1)	1.2; GN8
2. An overview of social and/or environmental impact of the industry (0-1)	1.2; GN8
3. An overview of how the business operations and/or products and services impact the society and/or environment, employees and customers (0-1)	1.2; 3.17; GN8
4. An overview of corporate social and/or environmental performance relative to industry peers (0-1)	1.2; GN8
A 7 Social/environmental initiatives (maximum score is 6)	
1. A substantive description of employee training in social and/or environmental management and operations (0-1)	3.19
2. Existence of response plans in case of social and/or environmental incidents (0-1)	
3. Internal social and/or environmental awards (0-1)	
4. Internal social and/or environmental audits (0-1)	3.19;3.20
5. Internal certification of social and/or environmental programs (0-1)	3.19
6. Community involvement and/or donations related to society and/or environment (0-1)	3.19; SO1; EC10

Source: Adopted from a combination of Sutantoputra (2009) SDI and Clarkson et al (2008) EDI both based on GRI Guidelines (2002).

There are various approaches available to develop a scoring scheme to determine the total disclosure level of AR (Hossain et al, 2006). An equally weighted index is the ratio of the value of the number of items a company discloses divided by the total value that it could disclose (Hossain et al, 2006). Under an equally weighted index, all items of information in the index were considered equally important to the average user. Here, the only consideration was whether or not a company disclosed an item of social and/or environmental information in its AR (Hossain et al, 2006). The disclosure model for the equally weighted SEDI thus measured the total disclosure (TD) score for a company as additive as follows:

$$TD = \sum_{i=1}^n d_i$$

Where,

$d = 1$ if the item d_i is disclosed

0 if the item d_i is not disclosed

$n =$ number of items

4.6.3 Analysis

To better understand SED differences between local and foreign companies, disclosures were classified according to whether they were negative, neutral or positive and then their proportions were compared through descriptive analysis.

Furthermore, additional analysis was conducted using statements within AR highlighted in regard to three SED categories identified as policy description (if a company made general mention of a SED but gave no indication of a desired level of performance), policy activity (if SED activities were indicated but in a non-measurable manner) and policy outcome (if measurable SED outcomes were provided). The student t-tests, Kruskal Wallis tests, Mann Whitney-Wilcoxon tests, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were also utilised. All analyses were performed using SPSS for Windows Version 22 software.

4.7 Archival research

Archival research into newspapers articles was conducted at Champion Newspapers in Iyana Isolo, Lagos during November, 2012. This involved examining 7300 daily editions of newspapers from 1st January, 1992 to 31st December, 2011. Relevant newspaper articles were used to cross-validate the responses of interviewees on their perceptions regarding the SED of oil companies. For instance, personal observation and interviewee perceptions of SED of oil companies closely echoed the archival records. The newspapers articles contained accounts of SED press releases from the oil companies addressing social and environmental issues.

The manner in which the media covered issues affected the likelihood of whether it impacted public attitudes (Deegan et al, 2002). According to Ader (1993), “the public needed the media to tell them how important an issue is”. Dearing & Rogers (1996) found that an issue presented in a negative light was more likely to be regarded by the community as an important concern. That is, negative media attention was likely to have an adverse effect on the public’s perceptions of a particular issue relative to positive or favourable attention (Deegan et al, 2002).

Prior to widespread use of the Internet as a source of information, research supports the view that newspapers tended to have a greater ability to set the public agenda (McCombs, 1981). A survey undertaken by Bogart (1984) to establish the relative impact of daily newspapers on public perceptions documented that:

- half the public was exposed daily to newspapers;
- newspapers touched two out of three people on a typical day; and
- nearly four out of five readers reported looking at any given page.

Media attention directed towards particular issues can shape and change community concern for many issues (Deegan et al, 2002). For corporate managers to react (through SED), they must realise how media publicity impact on how the community perceives issues (Deegan et al, 2002).

Archival newspaper sources were limited by at least two factors: (1) the allegiance of the owners of the newspapers might determine what was reported in particular newspapers; and (2) since newspapers articles were prone to manipulation by reporters who may want to sensationalise issues; such materials were not treated as “absolute truths”. Newspaper sources were accounts of individuals and organisations, some of whom have vested interests in the recorded events.

4.7.1 Archival data analysis

Qualitative data analysis involved "working with data, organising it, breaking it into manageable units, synthesising it, searching for patterns, discovering what was important and what was to be learned and deciding what to tell others" (Bogdan & Biklen (1982). Qualitative researchers tend to use inductive analysis of data, meaning that the critical themes emerge out of the data (Patton, 1990). Qualitative analysis required some creativity, for the challenge was to place the raw data into logical, meaningful categories; to examine them in a holistic fashion and to find a way to communicate this interpretation to others.

The mechanics of handling large quantities of the archival data was done through the NVivo 10 software program. Archival data analysis began with identification of the themes emerging from the raw data, referred to as "open coding" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Coding in content analysis involved classifying events from archival records into clearly defined categories and recording the amount of time or words devoted to events. One way to begin structuring written material so that it could be analysed was to summarise and list the major issues that were contained in it. Then the frequency with which these issues occur was counted. During open coding, conceptual categories were identified and tentatively named into grouped archival data. The goal was to create descriptive, multi-dimensional categories which formed a preliminary framework for analysis. Words, phrases or events that appeared to be similar were grouped into the same category. These categories were gradually modified or replaced during the subsequent stages of analysis that followed.

The next stage of analysis involved re-examination of the categories identified to determine how they were linked, a process known as "axial coding" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The purpose of coding was to not only describe but to acquire new understanding of a phenomenon of interest. Therefore, descriptive details of the archival data were identified and explored. Although the stages of analysis are described here in a linear fashion, in practice they occurred simultaneously and repeatedly. During axial coding, initial categories were revised leading to re-examination of the raw data.

4.8 Ethical considerations

Of particular importance in obtaining ethics approval for data collection was the 'plain language statement' – a letter that accompanied the questionnaire. Approval from the HREC at the University of Southern Queensland was obtained before the interviews were administered. Participants were explained the purpose of the study and confirmed their willingness or otherwise to participate. Informed consent was sought from participants by ensuring that they had access to the participant information sheet (see Appendix 3) prior to their participation in the research. In addition, participants were asked to sign a consent form (see Appendix 4) which emphasised the voluntary nature of the study. Each interviewee signed the consent form before the interviews took place. Participants were made aware that they had the opportunity to ask questions, at any time, during the interview process. The researcher reassured the interviewees that they had the right to withdraw their participation at any time during the process. All concerned were made aware that the research was for an academic study. Each participant was provided a copy of the letter of introduction from the researcher's supervisor (see Appendix 10).

Before commencement of the interviews, participants were informed that their responses would be treated with confidentiality. Respondents were assured that their anonymity would be maintained throughout the conduct of the study and their names would not be used in any way. Anonymity (information, identity and data) in the written report was guaranteed. Participants' were allocated identification codes indicating their residence followed by their designation in their communities' to protect confidentiality of identity. For example, Port Harcourt Community Leader was coded as PHCOL (see Table 4.4). No information of personal or compromising nature was reported.

Table 4.4 Details of interviewees' category

Codes	Date	Category	Duration
PHCOL	5/12/2012	Port Harcourt Community Leader	38 min
PHCR	7/12/2012	Port Harcourt Community resident	34 min
YCHL	10/12/2012	Yenagoa Church Leader	40 min
YCOL	11/12/2012	Yenagoa Community Leader	39 min
YYL	12/12/2012	Yenagoa Youth Leader	34 min
WCHL	17/12/2012	Warri Church Leader	43 min
WCOL	18/12/2012	Warri Community Leader	37 min
WYL	19/12/2012	Warri Youth Leader	30 min
WCR	20/12/2012	Warri Community resident	31 min

Since the study was considered by the HREC to be of a high risk to the researcher, the application for ethical approval was denied three times over a six month period before the researcher convinced HREC that adequate measures had been put in place (see Appendices 5, 6, 7, 8 & 9).

After the completion of each interview, great care of the written notes were taken and the researcher ensured that they were not left in any public place. The raw data was stored in a password protected memory data storage device. Following acceptance of the completed dissertation and after five years; the files will be erased from the memory data storage device. The transcripts including consent forms will be kept in a sealed envelope and stored in a locked cabinet and after five years have elapsed, these hard copies will be shredded to protect the participants' identity information.

4.9 Conclusion

There are three major ingredients in research: the construction of theory, the collection of data and the design of the methods for gathering data. The methodology chapter served as a link between the theoretical perspective and the analysis of the research. This chapter explained the research design and data collection procedures while incorporating the theoretical framework. The chapter examined the process of primary data collection through semi-structured interviews and analysis while observing all necessary ethical considerations. The process of analysing SED quantity and quality in AR through content analysis was discussed. A SEDI was developed to analyse the differential reporting. The archival research process of collecting newspaper articles relating to SED was explained.

Chapter 5 RESULTS: HOST COMMUNITIES' PERCEPTIONS OF OIL COMPANIES

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter was to answer research question number one which was “what are the HCs perceptions of the SED of Nigerian oil companies?” Most scholars have generally defined ‘community’ in relation to three factors: geography, interaction and identity (Waritimi, 2012). Communities mainly characterised by geography refer to groups of people residing within the same geographic region that may or may not have any interaction between them. Communities identified primarily by regular interaction represent a set of social relationships, which may or not be place-based. Communities characterised by identity represent a group who share a sense of belonging, based on a set of shared beliefs, values or experiences (Dunham et al, 2006).

Agim (1997) divided HCs in the Niger Delta into three principal groups: (1) producing communities – communities in which onshore oil exploration take place; (2) terminal communities – coastal communities on whose territory port or terminal facilities are sometimes located; and (3) transit communities – communities whose territory oil pipelines pass through. The terms oil bearing communities, oil communities, oil producing communities and local communities have been used interchangeably to mean those communities which host oil companies in the Niger Delta. All these terms are referred to in this study as HCs.

This remainder of the chapter is organised as follows. Section 2 provides a brief overview of previous literature. Section 3 presents the results while Section 4 discusses these results and Section 5 concludes the chapter.

5.2 Previous literature

Community perceptions often form the basis for community actions to either support or disrupt corporate activities (Idemudia, 2007). Hence, identifying community perceptions, and the various factors influencing and shaping these perceptions, present fertile ground for a better understanding of community actions. Perceptions are largely informed by the contradictions of wealth generation amidst poverty resulting in anger, frustration and hostility by the HCs towards the oil companies (Ikelegbe, 2001). The result has become a terrain of violent protests, seizures of oil platforms, kidnapping of oil companies staff and their families, confrontations with state security forces and militarisation of the region (see Bisina, 2003; Joab-Peterside, 2007; Kemedi, 2003; Okpawo, 2003; Olawale, 2003; Oduniyi, 2003; Ukiwo, 2007). Ikelegbe (2001) suggested that the conflict was a major contestation at two levels; (1) it was a challenge by HCs over the control of oil and the distribution of its benefits among the constituent units of the nation; and (2) the oil companies’ policies and practices that disadvantage the region, destroy its environment and impoverish its people.

Nigeria presents a perfect example of a curse that natural resource can bring (Mähler,

2010; Collier & Hoeffler, 2001). An economic explanation for the negative correlation between resource wealth and economic growth is known as “Dutch Disease” which owes its origin to the experience of the Netherlands with the discovery of natural gas in the 1960s. “Dutch Disease” has two elements in its technical form: the first being the spending effect whereby natural resources boom tends to lead to an appreciation in the real foreign exchange rate, increasing spending in sectors like construction, which results in inflation. The second effect is the migration of labour and capital to the booming sectors. Both these elements combine to render the non-tradeable sector (for example, subsistence agriculture) less and less competitive and effectively crowd out previously productive sectors. The tribulations in the Nigerian economy is linked to the Dutch Disease principally on data indicating that in the years that oil revenue dwindled (1987–1990), manufacturing boomed. The oil windfall of 1991 reversed this progress and with consistent oil revenues since 1999; the non-oil economy has been in doldrums (Duruigbo, 2004; Utomi, 2003).

Up to the late 1980s, HCs were rarely aware of proposed oil exploration projects in their areas; they only became aware of them when oil companies started moving in to begin work. The trend then was that the elders and youth groups would be visited by representatives of the oil companies to inform them they were around and pay their respects (Adomokai & Sheate, 2004; Amunwa, 2011; Asuni, 2009; Okonta, 2006; Zandvliet & Pedro, 2002). When the environment started becoming polluted and the sources of livelihood were reduced and sometimes cut off, community unrest began peacefully and then gradually became more violent (Adomokai & Sheate, 2004). Initial concerns of the HCs were issues of lack of employment, unfulfilled promises by the oil companies regarding infrastructure, and environmental problems like oil spills and gas flare lights (Afinotan & Ojakorotu, 2009; Adalikwu, 2007; Mähler, 2010; Olankunle, 2010). The HCs staged demonstrations in protest and oil company management and chosen community members would meet to discuss the problems and possible solutions. Solutions agreed on were sometimes not adhered to by the oil companies which led to distrust and dissatisfaction within the HCs towards the oil companies (Adomokai, 2002; Ibeanu, 2000; Osaghae et al, 2007).

Wheeler et al (2002) asserted that while the companies often focus on scientific evidence and other conventional environmental impact assessment studies which they consider useful, this focus has had the distracting effect of sidestepping the issue of perceptions and focus on constructed ‘reality’ as perceived by the community. The outcome is often a clash of divergent views and perceptions of reality.

The increasing attention oil companies are giving to HCs suggests that they are acknowledging the significance of such constituencies and are taking necessary steps to understanding them and their issues (Waritimi, 2012). Hamilton (2011) contends that oil companies see only the manifest symptoms of a much deeper problem and responds by increasing patronage or assistance to some of the HCs. To the HCs, the devastation created by oil production has gone too far to be amended by such a relationship as the more the oil companies’ dishes out compensation, particularly in direct cash, the more the HCs become indignant (Akpan, 2005).

Compensation simply tends to increase the economic dependence of the HCs on the oil companies and the people of the Niger Delta resent this (Oyefusi, 2007). The HCs accuse the oil companies of bad faith and a catalogue of offences including: (i)

unfulfilled promises, (ii) spillage problems, (iii) inadequate compensation, (iv) exploitation and neglect, (v) inability to provide employment, (vi) slow response to community complaints, (vii) oil company staff corruption, (viii) desecration of community sacred sites (ix) expatriate insult, and (x) non-recognition of traditional rulers (Hamilton, 2011). In most cases the cultural divide between oil companies' and the HCs is widened even more by the negative impacts of oil exploration because HCs see their valuables (such as land) that hold cultural, emotional and spiritual value being destroyed (Aghalino, 2006; Omofonmwan & Odia, 2009).

This section presents a brief review of previous literature focusing on the causes and possible explanations of HCs perceptions. Following discussions on how the interviews were conducted, the data analysis process, a description of the sample and theme identification process, the next sections are devoted to the results of the semi-structured interviews conducted with the HCs.

5.3 Results

5.3.1 Conducting the interviews

The nine interviews took place during December, 2012 and were personally administered by the researcher. This enabled the researcher to explain the questions in detail to the participants. The interviews were conducted at different venues. The interviews with the Yenagoa Youth Leader took place at the researcher's hotel foyer. The Warri Community Leader was interviewed at his business premises in Ubeji Town while the interview with the Warri Church Leader took place in the participant's vehicle in the parking lot of Sacred Heart Cathedral, Warri/Sappele Road on Sunday after the midday mass. The rest of the participants were interviewed in their homes after the traditional offerings of the kola nut, which is a welcome gesture to visitors. Handwritten notes were taken during all the interviews because the participants expressed reservations about being tape recorded. The visits to these communities were quite enlightening, as the visits provided the researcher with an opportunity to observe and assess the mood of the community people. The visits also afforded the researcher the opportunity to see the development projects the companies had put in place at first hand.

5.3.2 Data coding and analysis

Transcribed data was saved in a Microsoft Word document that maintained confidentiality and preserved anonymity of interviewees while allowing easy identification (Iatridis, 2011). To facilitate the management of the data, the study employed the NVivo 10 software program because it allowed the researcher to code text and easily retrieve the coded text (Bryman & Bell, 2007). These features enabled the researcher to better organise the transcribed text and get a clearer view on interviewees' responses (Iatridis, 2011).

The analysis of the data began with a careful reading and re-reading of the transcripts and field notes to attain overall familiarity with the data. During the reading of the interview texts it became immediately evident that certain words were repeated more frequently than others. This repetition drew the attention of the researcher to words that occurred frequently and could therefore be seen as being important in the minds

of participants (Ryan & Bernard, 2003). During this phase, relevant quotes in the interview texts were marked and marginal notes on the transcribed text were taken by the researcher. The research question and interview questions were used as a basis from which to sort, label and categorise the interview data for analysis. This technique is considered appropriate for studies employing multiple participants and for semi-structured data gathering protocols (Saldana, 2009).

The researcher followed the steps formed by Krippendorff (2004) who provided vital elements in completing a method of content analysis. Krippendorff (2004) explained the steps as the following: (a) data making, which involves the "unitisation, sampling and recording" of interview data; (b) data reduction, which involved the reduction and minimising of data which are not significant to the study being conducted; (c) making inferences, which involves the formation and development of themes and groups from the interviews; and lastly (d) data analysis, which involves the researcher's in careful examination and interpretation of the data while in search for other meaningful perceptions and experiences that may emerge as well.

As the reading progressed, these notes were refined into codes. Coding is the process of organising data into 'chunks' and it involves segmenting sentences into categories and labelling those categories with a term (Creswell, 2003). To assist the coding procedure, free nodes were used; this enabled the researcher to include all quotes on a certain topic from all interviews combined. Nodes are containers for everything that is known about one particular concept or category and can be used to organise qualitative data (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013). The coding of themes using the main ideas from the interview questions was then conducted. Categorisation of the codes was then undertaken to identify the similarities and differences in themes related across the interviews which consisted of creating broad labels for further review.

5.3.3 Description of the sample

In the first stage; the study sought to establish the demographic information of the participants in order to test their appropriateness in providing insights. Data such as gender, marital status, age, duration lived in the community and educational levels were examined. Eight were male while one female was interviewed. Five were married while four were single. Three were between 40–49 years while two were between 20–29 years, two were between 30–39 years and one between the ages of 50–59 years and 60–69 years respectively. Four respondents had lived in their community all their lives while two indicated that they had lived for durations of 20–29 years and 10–19 years respectively. One stated that he/she had lived in the community for 30–39 years. Four indicated that they had secondary education, one a university Undergraduate and one a Master's student whilst one had only a primary education.

5.3.4 Identification of themes

Participants were able to display great knowledge with regard to the topic discussed. The researcher established the main sources of the meanings from the responses of the participants which are considered to be the main themes interpreted in this study.

The following major themes were identified from the pattern and coding analysis:

- (1) Perceptions on the relationship between the HCs and oil companies
- (2) Perceptions of the negative aspects of the oil companies' behaviour
- (3) Perceptions of the positive aspects of the oil companies' behaviour

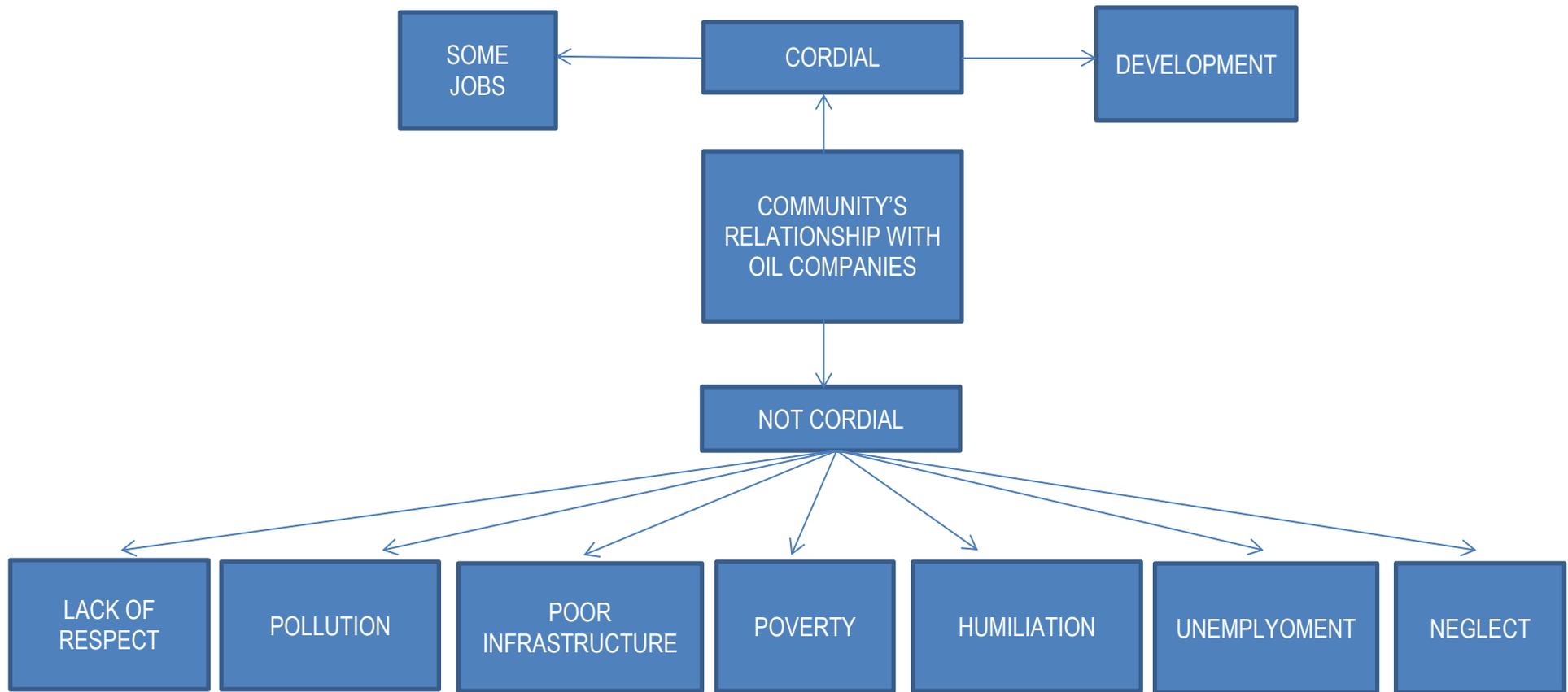


Figure 5.1 An illustration of the HCs perceptions of their relationship with the oil companies
Source: Adopted from Amodu (2012)

5.3.4.1 Relationship between the oil companies and HCs

Figure 5.1 illustrates how the participants perceive the relationship between the oil companies and their communities. There were two main categories of responses; some were of the opinion that the relationship was cordial, while others stated that it was not cordial. Participants, who responded that the relationship was cordial, were of the opinion that the oil companies had done a lot for the communities. One community resident from Port Harcourt remarked that:

There is no problem between the community and the oil companies. We are very satisfied with the performance of the oil companies and we support them in our community. The oil companies and the community should sit together and ask what they want from us. Then they resolve it together. If the oil companies don't agree with community, they would not find it easy to move or to go about their business. The oil companies and the communities should come together, sit and talk since the oil belongs to the community; if the community does not allow the oil companies to drill, the government will not find it easy (PHCR).

One Community Leader in Port Harcourt stated that:

The relationship between the oil companies and the community is very cordial in the sense that there is no discrimination between the indigenes and non-indigenes people (PHCOL).

Participants who stated that the relationship was not cordial were of the view that the oil companies did not regard the environment and the interests of communities as important.

5.3.4.1.1 Perceptions of cordial relationship between the oil companies and HCs

The first reason provided by the participants for the good relationship between the HCs and the oil companies was that the companies undertook developments in the communities. According to the Church Leader from Warri:

We have SPDC at Ogonu. The relationship between the oil companies and the Ogonu community is a very cordial one. They have done a lot in terms of development for the community (WCHL).

The Yenagoa Youth Leader supported these perceptions by stating that:

The oil companies are a welcome development since they help the community. Overall it is encouraging since they are giving us a steady power supply, maintenance of roads in the located areas and when they compensate, it enriches

the community (YYL).

The second reason given was that the companies provided jobs. The Church Leader in Yenagoa commented that:

In some areas there are a lot of jobs for the indigenes where the oil companies are doing exploration but in our community (Biogbolo) there are no slots. For example, when there is a common spillage in other communities, the crude oil flows back through the creeks. But they only concentrate in the areas where they are exploring (YCHL).

However in Warri, the Church Leader revealed that cases of job selling were prevalent in most of the communities:

They are given jobs slots but when they get the jobs, they sell it and then collect the money. They just shout, shout they want jobs, if they are given jobs they then sell them (WCHL).

One community resident in Warri verified this claim by stating that:

Sometimes the youth fight over jobs. The oil companies favour some people over others. The Community Leader will share the job portion among them and sell the rest of the jobs (WCR).

The Community Leader in Port Harcourt made similar assertions that the locals (indigenes) were selling the jobs off to the non-indigenes:

The locals (indigenes) also sell the jobs they are offered to non-indigenes (PHCOL).

The Church Leader in Yenagoa further reinforced this by expressing that:

The person closest to the oil companies, uses the closeness to secure job slots and then bring their friends to sell the jobs to non-indigenes (YCHL).

This finding suggests that there is a prevalent culture of actively seeking employment slots from the oil companies among members of HCs. When oil companies need to hire, the HCs are given job slots through their Community Leaders. These job slots are then allocated to the youths within the HCs. Once they have secured employment slots, the youths will sell their job slots to other people (usually to non-indigenes) who will eventually be employed by the oil companies. This finding can further explain why there are widespread levels of unemployment among members of the HCs.

5.3.4.1.2 Perceptions of non-cordial relationship between the oil companies and HCs

Participants explained that the oil companies had been operating in their communities for close to 50 years. However, they felt that the oil companies have ignored them and had no respect for them as remarked by the Community Leader from Yenagoa:

We need dialogue with the oil companies. But we have written letters and they have ignored us because there is no big man in the Government from our community. In other communities during Christmas the oil companies give bonus to the communities. But not to our Biogbolo Epie community. Very poor relationship (extremely), the oil companies have no respect for us, no courtesy for this community. There is nothing to write home about them and their benefits to our community. We require having a forum with them and the community so that they can know our feelings and our mind. They should take our advice. The community will support the oil companies, we love them to work with us and we love visitors (YCOL).

The Youth Leader in Yenagoa added his opinion that:

The oil companies should listen to the community and during dialogue they will know what the community wants. Because most companies have people in charge of their operations therefore the oil companies feel that they don't need the opinions of the community who are not trained in oil. By listening to the plight of the community and ensuring that they have a robust public relations with the community, so that their operations can be hitch free (YYL).

Another participant, the Youth Leader from Warri stated that the oil companies did not care for them:

The oil companies do not care, they like doing things their own way. Let them come directly to the community to confirm whether they are sending something. They should not use go between like the chairmen because most times they don't deliver (WYL).

Pollution was mentioned as a major problem throughout the HCs. According to the Community Leader in Warri, they did not have clean drinking water since the water was polluted:

There is no clean water to drink, if you dig 2 feet into the ground you will see that the water is polluted. There is no clean-up of the pollution yet everybody knows that there is pollution, for example, the river in Ogonu is much polluted. The odour from the polluted river is strong

(WCOL).

Some of the participants were of the view that the operations of the oil companies during extraction were responsible for the environmental degradation through persistent oil spills. According to one participant:

The oil companies cannot rob the environment of its resources. Oil spills on our land are killing cassava and affecting the productivity of our land (YYL).

Air pollution was also mentioned as one of the pollutions experienced in the HCs. Gas was constantly flared in the communities and the air was almost always polluted. The Youth Leader from Yenagoa indicated that gas flares was affecting their harvest.

The oil companies are not doing much for the community and also for the environment. There is a lot of pollution and gas flaring affecting farm produce (YYL).

The Youth Leader in Warri described the effects of air pollution on their health:

Sometimes we cannot open our shops, black soot is everywhere and everything will go black, it spreads without notification. It causes harmful breathing effects to the health of the people (WYL).

Poor infrastructure was the third reason mentioned. The researcher received firsthand experience of the state of infrastructure in the communities during data collection. Within the Biogbolo community in Yenagoa, the Community Leader took the researcher on a tour around the community to experience first-hand the infrastructural problems they were experiencing. The researcher was taken to a borehole used by the community since they did not have access to tap water; and at the only primary school available, the researcher observed that desks and chairs for pupils to sit on during lessons were not adequate. The Community Leader from Yenagoa later took the researcher to a walkway road built by SPDC and expressed that:

The small walkway road through the community was constructed by SPDC about five years ago; one part was completed while for the longer part we are still waiting (YCOL).

Poverty is widespread. The Church Leader in Warri remarked that there was not much evidence of benefits in the HCs from oil companies.

But you come to the area, they are living in slums. From time to time, there is violence among the community over the sharing of the money. The people are very poor but SPDC cannot interfere since they have no power over community affairs (WCHL).

All participants lamented the level of unemployment in their communities. One of

the Youth Leaders in Warri indicated that even though unemployment was everywhere, when the locals were given employment slots they ended up selling these slots to non-indigenes.

Unemployment is everywhere. The graduates have no jobs, but when some are given jobs but they sell it out so that every month the person gives out something (WYL).

Humiliation of the HCs by oil companies' staff was another reason that informed the perception that the relationship was not cordial. The Community Leader in Warri was insistent that the oil companies did not have good public relations and preferred them to leave their community.

There have no public relations with the community. If you go to the gates of the oil companies, they will humiliate you. We prefer if they left our community, they should quit our land and leave us alone. We are better off without them in Ogunu (WCOL).

The Community Leader in Yenagoa shared similar sentiments when he stated that if he had the power, he would not want the companies in his community.

Neglect was the another reason given for the non-cordial relationship between the oil companies and the HCs. The participants complained that the oil companies had not done anything for the communities. In Warri, the Community Leader mentioned that there was no provision of basic service like clinics and water from the oil companies to the communities:

The oil companies are not doing anything for us. There are no good hospitals in Ogunu (hence no treatment). There is no clean water to drink as the water is polluted (WCOL).

This observation was confirmed by the Community Leader in Yenagoa:

There has been social neglect and marginalisation by SPDC (YCOL).

Table 5.1 Matrix Coding Query of participant's characteristics on perceptions of negative aspects of the oil companies

	Negative	Environmental concerns	Lack of compensation	Frustrations with companies	Health effects	Lack of social development	Extortion	Neglecting the community
Gender = Male	63	20	6	10	5	6	6	8
Female	6	1	0	3	0	1	0	1
Marital Status = Married	43	13	6	6	3	5	5	5
Single	26	8	0	7	2	2	1	4
Age = 20-29 years old	20	7	0	6	2	1	0	4
30-39 years old	6	1	0	1	0	1	1	0
40-49 years old	25	8	6	3	3	2	2	3
50-59 years old	9	2	0	0	0	3	3	0
60-69 years old	9	3	0	3	0	0	0	2
Duration lived in community=10-19 Years	9	2	0	0	0	3	3	0
20-29 Years	20	8	0	3	5	0	0	4
30-39 Years	3	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
40-49 Years	9	3	0	3	0	0	0	2
All my life	28	7	6	7	0	3	3	3
Educational Level=Primary School	3	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Secondary School	33	10	6	9	0	3	0	5
University	18	7	0	3	2	1	2	3
Masters	15	4	0	0	3	3	3	1

5.3.4.2 Participants characteristics on perceptions of negative news of the oil companies

A matrix coding query is made of nodes that code data. The references that formed the nodes were gathered by 'coding' sources from the interviews. Matrix coding query enabled the comparison of items as it generated patterns in the data and facilitated the gaining of access to the content that showed those patterns. It was also used to compare what different demographic groups had stated as their perceptions. As shown in Table 5.1, qualitative variables such as gender and marital status were used to examine the perceptions of participants regarding the oil companies. The male and married participants had the most references (depicted by the number of codings indicated) at 63 and 43 on perceptions of negative aspects of the oil companies within the gender and marital status categories respectively. Age was used to determine whether or not it had an impact on negative perceptions and the 40–49 years old category had the highest coding at 25. The duration that participants had lived within their communities and their educational levels were also used to examine perceptions. Participants who had spent all their lives in their communities and those with secondary school education had the most coding at 28 and 33, respectively.

5.3.4.3 Perceptions of negative aspects of the oil companies

5.3.4.3.1 Environmental concerns

While there might be a number of possible explanations for the negative perceptions of HCs towards the oil companies, the following reasons emerged from the interviews conducted. The first was that the operations of the oil companies are responsible for environmental degradation in their communities. Oil operations pose a threat to the environment at each stage of the supply chain exploration, production, transportation and refining (Frynas, 2005). There has been gradual environmental degradation with pollution of waters, destruction of aquaculture, vegetation and agricultural land during oil operations with no concerned and effective effort by the oil companies to control environmental problems associated with the industry (Anyanwu, 2012). The Community Leader in Yenagoa indicated that:

The oil spill in 2003 damaged our soil, to date grass cannot grow, no crops, no fish in the lake. Agriculture has died out; there has been damage to our ecosystem because of their careless exploitation and exploration (YCOL).

This assertion was confirmed by the Church Leader in Warri:

In Escravos, the major problem was an oil spill caused by puncturing of the oil pipeline (one side is SPDC while the other is Chevron). The smell of oil was very pronounced on the SPDC side, on the Chevron side big boats could be seen siphoning off crude oil. Ordinarily, we depended on fishing, but now there is no fish since the water surface is polluted (WCHL).

The implication of this finding is that many participants seem to view the oil more as a burden than a blessing. This is consistent with the findings of Obi (2010) and Idemudia (2007). The inhabitants of the region have been subjected to untold hardship through oil pollution, environmental degradation, destruction of aquatic lives and other negative activities that are unfavourable to the existence and survival of the people of the region (Oviasuyi & Uwadiae, 2010). Oil creates the illusion of a completely changed life, life without work, life for free. The concept of oil expresses perfectly the external human dream of wealth achieved through lucky accident. In this sense, oil is a fairy tale and like every fairy tale, a bit of a lie (Watts, 2006).

5.3.4.3.2 Lack of compensation

The second reason involved the perceived lack of willingness by the oil companies to compensate HCs affected by oil spills. A major argument against the operations of oil companies has been the issue of inadequate compensation for environmental damage (Hamilton, 2011). Decades of oil exploitation and exploration has damaged much of the ecosystem and have caused deterioration of the economic and social structure. Social tension tends to result from damage claims on the environment in the communities (Kareem et al, 2013). The Community Leader in Yenagoa explained that:

There has been a lot of oil spills over our land caused by equipment failure. The biggest oil spill in the whole of West Africa which destroyed our land, water, crops and our aquatic occurred in 2003 and to date there has been no compensation paid. The oil spill occurred in the Biogbolo land in the Kolo Creek by Telebu delivery line (YCOL).

The Community Leader from Yenagoa further remarked that:

They cleared the Biogbolo oil spill yet there has been no remediation. We are not able to farm in the land anymore, the lake has no fish. SPDC was told of the oil spill yet compensation has not paid to the community (YCOL).

5.3.4.3.3 Frustrations with the oil companies

The third explanation for the negative perceptions was that community members were frustrated in their dealings with oil companies. Frustration in the communities arises as a result of perceived challenges and obstacles against the achievement of desired goals (Hamilton, 2011). The gap between what the HCs feel they want or deserve and what they actually get from the oil companies results in frustration (Ibaba, 2011). The Community Leader in Yenagoa emphasised his expressed perceptions by stating that:

The way we have seen SPDC, in my community, they have made no attempt to develop this community either in human or material form. No benefit to the community (YCOL).

This was supported by the views of the Yenagoa Youth Leader:

Because most companies have people in charge of their operations therefore the oil companies feel that they don't need the opinions of the community who are not trained in oil (YYL).

5.3.4.3.4 Health effects

The fourth reason for the negative perceptions of the oil companies were the detrimental health effects of oil companies operations in the HCs. Akoroda (2000) indicated that an emergent trend of toxin diseases was traceable to the exposure of radioactive elements from gas flaring. The people suffer respiratory diseases, which are a consequence of long exposure to gas flaring (Jike, 2004). Skin rashes are also very widespread in this area. The host Community Leaders of the Warri Women Protest of 2001 traced the prevalence of bronchial diseases and eye abnormalities to unrestrained gas flaring by oil companies (Jike, 2010). The Church Leader from Yenagoa stated that:

Air pollution has led to some outbreak of disease and aquatic life is affected. Like when the pipeline gas is broken, it moves into the air which we breathe. There is a sight (eye) problem as a result of the air pollution. Over half of people visiting the hospitals are there because of eye problems. Nasal infection in the children is common as a result of gas flaring. The oil companies should make a provision for professionals (consultants) to give medical advice (YCHL).

This view was confirmed by the Church Leader in Warri:

On the SPDC side gas flaring can be seen at Abraka causing serious problems. The people do not know that the air they are breathing is not good (WCHL).

5.3.4.3.5 Lack of social development

The fifth reason for the negative perceptions of the oil companies was the lack of adequate provision of social amenities to the communities. Members of the HCs felt that the oil companies were not doing enough to assist with the provision of these amenities. The HCs have been severely deprived of basic social amenities (Ojo, 2011). Lack of social development has largely been understood in the context of lack of amenities such as piped water, good roads, hospitals, schools and employment opportunities (Ebegbulem et al, 2013). The Church Leader from Warri noted that:

When you go there (to the Ogunu community) you will not see much of what they have benefitted from the oil company (WCHL).

The Youth Leader in Warri agreed by commenting that:

Some people are benefiting while others are not. If the benefits could be visible and relating to the youths it would be better (WYL).

5.3.4.3.6 Extortion

Members of the HCs interviewed felt that the presence of oil companies in their communities has given rise to socially unacceptable and criminal behaviours such as extortion by some young people. Manifestations of extortion by illegal levies from oil company workers and protection money from the companies have been reported in the Niger Delta (Eberlein, 2006; Ubulom & Enyoghasim, 2012). For example, the Church Leader in Warri disclosed that some community members were demanding money from the employees of the oil companies to be allowed to access the company premises:

SPDC has no option but to give them money. Right now SPDC are building a Town Hall for them and yet some community members are collecting money by blocking the entrance of SPDC yard and demanding money to settle them (WCHL).

This view was confirmed by the Community Leader from Port Harcourt:

At Ogbunabali, the state government awarded a contract to build a road. The state government insisted that the road was for the good of the community. The youths wanted to be settled first. To date the construction of the road has not begun (PHCOL).

5.3.4.3.7 Neglecting the community

According to Alamiyesegeha (2000), the HCs have suffered long periods of neglect and deprivation in spite of their huge contributions to the nation's economy. As Ukoha (2003) observed, the HCs have complained excessively about the pains of exploitation and neglect in their struggle with hazardous ecological problems. The Youth Leader from Yenagoa mentioned that:

The oil companies are not doing much for the community and also for the environment. There are so many things they are supposed to do but they have neglected the community so far. Nobody would be happy when the necessary things which should be done are not being done (YYL).

The Yenagoa Community Leader expressed similar sentiments:

Since 1970 to date, there is no positive achievement to the host community. They have ignored this place completely (YCOL).

Table 5.2 Matrix Coding Query of participant's characteristics on perceptions of positive aspects of the oil companies

	Positive	Community support	Creating infrastructure	Development contracts	Education support	Creating employment
Gender = Male	52	11	9	3	7	13
Female	7	2	1	2	0	2
Marital Status = Married	32	8	6	2	4	9
Single	27	5	4	3	3	6
Age = 20-29 years old	17	3	3	3	3	3
30-39 years old	10	2	1	0	0	3
40-49 years old	21	5	2	2	3	6
50-59 years old	6	3	2	0	0	2
60-69 years old	5	0	2	0	1	1
Duration lived in community=10-19 Years	6	3	2	0	0	2
20-29 Years	15	4	2	2	5	3
30-39 Years	6	1	0	0	0	0
40-49 Years	5	0	2	0	1	1
All my life	27	5	4	3	1	9
Educational Level=Primary School	4	1	1	0	0	3
Secondary School	29	4	4	3	2	5
University	15	2	3	1	3	3
Masters	11	6	2	1	2	4

5.3.4.4 Participants characteristics on perceptions of positive aspects of the oil companies

Table 5.2 depicts the matrix coding query on perceptions of positive aspects of the oil companies by the HCs. Male and married participants had the most coding at 52 and 32 on perceptions of positive aspects of the oil companies within the gender and marital status categories respectively. Age was used to determine whether it had an impact on positive perceptions and the 40–49 years old category had the highest coding at 21. The duration that participants had lived within their communities and their educational levels were used to examine the perceptions of positive aspects of oil companies. Participants who had lived all their lives in their communities and those with secondary school education had the most coding at 27 and 29 respectively.

5.3.4.5 Perceptions of positive aspects of the oil companies

5.3.4.5.1 Community support

The participants acknowledged the efforts of oil companies and their positive contributions through various programs and initiatives to support the HCs. As the Church Leader from Warri highlighted:

SPDC have put things in place, for example piped water, health centre, and tarred the road that enters the community. There is our parish (an outstation at Escravos), in this small community SPDC gives them portable water, light every evening and sterilised water to the community. Where the community have allowed SPDC to assist them, the company has assisted (WCHL).

The Church Leader in Yenagoa elaborated:

The oil companies have supported the HCs by providing some medical facilities, building health centres. They build structures like community town halls; make block of classrooms (YCHL).

5.3.4.5.2 Creating infrastructure

Oil companies have been involved in community development projects such as construction of roads, jetties, health centres, electrification, provision of employment and scholarship schemes for members of HCs (Okoh, 2005). This is why the Youth Leader from Yenagoa remarked that:

The oil companies are a welcome development since they help the community. Overall it is encouraging because they give us steady power supply; maintain our roads in the located areas (YYL).

The Community Leader from Port Harcourt agreed with the earlier participant by stating that:

The oil companies are trying their level best in assisting government in development and infrastructure provision (PHCOL).

However, participants revealed that the some HCs were not keen on provision of infrastructure by the oil companies and instead preferred to be given the money intended for these developments for their own personal consumption. As the Community Leader from Port Harcourt said:

The oil companies are trying their personal best in assisting government in development and infrastructure. But the community in question doesn't like such infrastructure. They prefer money gratification (PHCOL).

This view was confirmed by the community resident in Warri who said:

It is true that the Ogonu community prefer money over infrastructure development and this is a major problem (WCR).

This finding indicates that the HCs have a preference of money over development of infrastructure and would rather receive cash to projects that will benefit them in the long term. This finding helps explain the limited availability of basic infrastructural amenities such as electricity, communication, potable and drinkable water in most HCs (Anasi, 2010). It will also provide reasons for lack of provision of infrastructure such as roads, health facilities, education, industrial and commercial facilities for the HCs (Inokoba & Imbua, 2010). The oil companies might be willing and ready to initiate infrastructural development projects but that the communities desire and demand the money allocated to these projects. The effect would explain why the oil companies no longer attempt to provide infrastructure to these communities.

5.3.4.5.3 Development contracts

The efforts of the oil companies in initiating development projects was viewed as a positive aspect especially when they awarded contracts to members of the communities. This is why the Community Leader from Yenagoa remarked that:

They award contracts to the indigenes to clean up the pipelines. It is expected that the oil companies must not centre development into the oil exploration areas (YCHL).

The Youth Leader from in Yenagoa agreed with the earlier participant by indicating that:

They are partnering with the government to make the power supply steady, help fishermen by providing fishing equipment. At times they will award contracts to the community when building a primary school (YYL).

5.3.4.5.4 Education support

Amadi & Abdullah (2012) established that the oil companies' initiatives entail assisting HCs to provide education that ultimately reaches all the people. Most companies run scholarship programmes to support undergraduate and secondary schools students in payment of tuition fees. Eweje (2007) noted that educational programmes comprise not only the provision of teachers paid directly by the company and the building of classrooms, but also the payment of special rates to teachers to encourage them to go and teach in remote rural areas where the government is inactive. This was confirmed by Church Leader from Yenagoa who explained that:

They build structures like community town halls; make block of classrooms. They should spread the development around, for example provision for clean water, school equipment (YCHL).

The Youth Leader in Yenagoa added that:

The most important things to the community include building schools, roads, giving scholarships (YYL).

5.3.4.5.5 Creating employment

Some of the participants stated that a positive aspect of the oil companies was that they were creating and giving employment opportunities to members of their communities. The community resident in Warri expressed that:

They give us jobs, they seek our opinions and generally they give us what we need (WCR).

However, the Community Leader in Port Harcourt revealed that sometimes when a community is offered a chance to provide a qualified person for a job, they would provide someone who cannot perform in the job awarded.

Oil companies are affecting the communities in the sense that if a company gives an offer for a host community to bring an accountant to work in their accounts section; the first job given to write a voucher for 40 people, the person cannot do it. They cannot perform even though they have papers of an accountant (PHCOL).

5.4 Discussion

This section provides a discussion of qualitative results and findings in light of the previous literature discussed earlier. Data was collected from members of three HCs including Community Leaders, Church Leaders, Youth Leaders and community residents. Importantly, the study also investigated the oil companies' reactions to HCs concerns about their operations. Perceptions regarding the relationships, negative and positive aspects of oil companies were identified: comprising of environmental concerns; lack of compensation; frustration with oil companies; health effects; lack of social development; neglecting the communities; creating employment opportunities and infrastructure; providing community and educational

support.

Participants interviewed in the study expressed different views regarding the perception of the relationship with oil companies. While others considered the relationship as cordial, some participants declared that it was not cordial due to various reasons. Firstly, they were of the opinion that the oil companies had no respect for them and largely ignored them. They stated that they had written letters to the oil companies but no response was forthcoming. According to Ogula (2012), the apparent lack of respect for the customs of the indigenes evoked emotions such as dissatisfaction, frustration, anger and despair among HCs.

Futhermore, participants felt that the oil companies' staff humiliated members of the HCs wherever they visited the companies' premises. They complained that the oil companies had not done anything for the HCs in regard to providing basic services like water, clinics etc. This could be interpreted as a deliberate policy towards the marginalisation and exclusion of HCs from oil proceeds derived from their land (Ojatorotu & Lysias, 2010). Participants disclosed that the oil companies had bad public relations and preferred that they leave their communities. According to Olorode (2000), oil companies now try to pacify the restive HCs by embarking on a series of CSR ventures such as building classroom blocks, boreholes and roads; offering some employment opportunities to the indigenes and giving scholarships to selected students from the affected communities.

Water pollution was cited as one of the causes of the negative perceptions towards oil companies since it resulted in the HCs having difficulty in accessing clean drinking water. Life in the Niger Delta is a contradiction on a confounding paradox. Many HCs are surrounded by water and yet people have none to drink. They travel long distances to fetch the so-called good water, which is darkish and smelly (Wali, 2008). According to the participants, there is a lot of pollution through oil spills on their land which affects its productivity. The participants claimed that the spills were often caused by equipment failure.

According to Davis et al (2006), HCs were plagued by low-income, poor health and their means of livelihood; fishing and farming had been heavily disturbed by the increasing rates of pollution due to increased oil exploration activities. The exploration activity of the oil companies has resulted in oil spillage and other forms of pollution and degradation of the ecosystem, which invariably is the livelihood support system of the HCs (Ebegbulem et al, 2013; Wosu, 2013). In the early 1990s, the Ogoni people of the Niger Delta region began a series of protests against SPDC. The environmental impact of SPDC's operations coupled with the minimal socio-economic benefits to the HCs, prompted large-scale protests at SPDC's facilities, which temporarily halted oil extraction in the Ogoni land in 1993.

The existence of poverty in the three HCs was mentioned as one of the major reason for the non-cordial relationships with oil companies. Agbo (2008) noted that oil wells in the backyard of HCs are awarded to people who are predominantly from non-oil-producing states, who exploit the land without regard for its owners. Meanwhile, the owners of the oil wallow in poverty and neglect in a polluted environment. Poverty has various manifestations which can be linked to the lack of income to attain basic necessities of life, such as, food, shelter, clothing and access to acceptable levels of

health care and education (Ijaiya & Umar, 2004). Such manifestations include the sense of voicelessness and powerlessness in the institutions of the state and society. These manifestations subject the 'poor', to rudeness, humiliation, shame, inhuman treatment and exploitation in the hand of those in position of authority (Ijaiya & Umar, 2004).

The participants cited the perceived lack of willingness by the oil companies to compensate HCs affected by oil spills. SPDC, for instance had declined paying for damaged fishing nets which were collected after an oil spill had been contained. Again, expert evidence is seldom genuinely independent. Monetary compensation for spillages is rare and paltry. Oil companies prefer to engage in lengthy litigations, sometimes spanning a period of more than 20 years, rather than compensating HCs for their losses (Kemedi, 2005). This is more outrageous in cases where sabotage has been alleged so as to completely avoid or limit the amount of compensation.

To illustrate, on 31st December, 1996, an oil spill which occurred from Elf's Obagi oilfield in the Niger Delta destroyed a vast area of farmland and fishponds (Dundas, 2009). When an adjacent landowner's lawyer wrote to demand compensation, Elf's reply was to the effect that its investigations revealed sabotage by "unknown" persons and the company was therefore not liable to pay compensation. No opportunity was offered to the affected landowner to independently assess the sabotage and Elf's letter was cursory in its description (Dundas, 2009). Without doubt, compensation is important in understanding what is happening in HCs, but it conceals more than it reveals (Ibeanu, 2000). For instance, it disguises the fact that in some cases it is the type of compensation that is contested and in others it is the procedure for arriving at the compensation that is at issue. Still in other cases, what creates discord is the skewed distribution of compensation. Monetary compensation is not always the issue. The HCs are asking to have their farmlands back in order to repossess control of their lives and environment (Ibeanu, 2000).

The research identified other participants who perceived the relationship with oil companies as being cordial arguing that they had done a lot for the HCs. The participants felt that by bringing development projects – such as assisting in the provision of steady power supply, maintenance of the roads and compensating the communities whenever possible, supported in uplifting the wellbeing of HCs. Yet, the community development projects were largely motivated by the interest of capitalist expansionism, not the immediate needs of the HCs (Omotola, 2006). For example, roads are constructed and/or rehabilitated only where and when it is directly related to these companies' activities. Even at that, some of the development projects in the HCs have been known to be sub-standard and hardly yield additional benefits to the local people (Roberts, 2006).

The high rates of unemployment in the HCs were blamed on the oil companies not providing enough employment opportunities to indigenes. Moreover, oil companies hired work forces from outside the HCs to fill their employment roster and did not try to decrease the level of unemployment in the region (Obi, 2001). However, participants revealed that cases of job selling were prevalent in most of the HCs. This finding is consistent with a similar observation made by Akinwale (2009), who stated that in some cases the oil companies give employment slots to indigenes. Despite this, the major problem is that many of the youths prefer to sell the opportunity to

non-indigenes by collecting ransom depending on the type of job and the salary. In some cases, they give their jobs to other people and reach agreement with their beneficiary so that they get their own share of the salary every month. This was confirmed by Akpabio et al (2007), who indicated that oil companies may also allocate employment slots to community elders, to be utilised by qualified community youths. Restive situations occur if the youth perceive these elders as “selling” these employment quotas to the highest bidders – mainly non-indigenes.

From the findings, the oil companies are willing to support the HCs by initiating infrastructural development projects but the HCs demand they be given the money allocated to these projects for their personal consumption. Still despite the instability and violence of the HCs, the oil companies nevertheless try to put things in place for example piped water, health centres and sealed roads that enter these communities. SPDC at the time of the study was building a Town Hall for Ogonu community who sometimes resorted to extortion by collecting money randomly by blocking the entrance to the SPDC yard.

Participants stated that oil companies need to improve the provision of lights and purified water to the HCs. They emphasised that the oil companies should build hospitals for the HCs and create more job opportunities for the youths. Participants added that the companies should make good roads and drainage systems. They should listen to the HCs during dialogue so that they become aware of their needs. According to participants, they require a forum between the oil companies and HCs so that they can discuss the problems which affect them especially on the deteriorating condition of agriculture due to the careless exploitation and exploration. Furthermore, they indicated that oil companies and the HCs should dialogue on the issues affecting the communities for non-interference in their operations.

Alienation theory posits that people perceive they are separated from that which is desired or desirable (Crimson & Yuill, 2008). Alienation is manifested in feelings of powerlessness, normlessness and meaninglessness. Participants repeatedly mentioned indicators of alienation such as poverty, neglect, lack of respect and humiliation of the HCs by the oil companies. The sense of social inequity and alienation felt by the HCs has been highlighted by Akoroda (2000) and Jike (2001). Youths feel a sense of alienation and powerlessness to effect a change and they devise a violent attack to force their collective admittance into the system (Jike, 2004). General feelings of despair, disillusionment and a profound sense of alienation became pervasive among the HCs (Jike, 2004).

As opposed to improving the quality of life in the Niger Delta, oil production has led to worse living standards and lost income as the employment lost from the dwindling agriculture sector was not replaced with employment in another industry. The young and poorly educated inhabitants were confronted with the reality of poverty and lost livelihoods; thus threatening the very survival of the HCs and consequently generated feelings of socio-cultural alienation, frustration and deprivation (Giroux, 2008). The alienation combined with the divide and rule strategy of the oil companies becomes a major developmental challenge. The dispossession or alienation of the HCs from their means of production has given rise to untold hardship and poverty (Wosu, 2013). Alienation theory is evident as the products of outrageous capitalism and undisguised selfishness is manifested in the alienation of

HCs at both the micro and macro-levels of society (Ering et al, 2013).

Ikelegbe (2001) asserted that the central grievance against oil companies is the lack of employment of indigenes after four decades of oil exploitation. The oil companies are accused of neglect, marginalisation in their employment, contracting and social irresponsibility towards the problems and needs of the HCs (Chukwuemeka & Aghara, 2010; Effiong, 2010). Further, Ikelegbe (2001) notes that environmental based agitation is at three levels; (1) protests against oil spillages and compensation practices of the oil companies; (2) the more general protest against environmental damage by the oil companies and the quest for cleaning and post-impact assessments; and (3) the poor level of monitoring of environmental degradation and actions on behalf of the affected HCs (Dadiowei, 2009; Ikporukpo, 2006; Okpara, 2004). The Niger Delta conflict has become the greatest challenge to the manner of exploitation of resources, the rights and access of indigenous people to resources generated in their territory (see Aghalino, 2006; Akwen & Gever, 2012; Bassey & Akpan, 2012; Gboyega et al, 2011; Obi, 2009; Ojatorotu, 2009; Onigbinde, 2008).

HCs were for years perpetually marginalised and excluded, while they continued to bear the brunt of the negative effects of oil production (Orubu et al, 2004). As a consequence, their perceptions of the oil companies took a form in which these institutions are seen as antagonists to be confronted. Okafor (2003) noted that an inquiry into the factors responsible for the antagonistic nature of HCs perceptions is a key element to potentially resolving the conflict.

According to Idemudia (2007), a number of possible explanations exist to describe the general negative perception of oil companies by HCs; (1) developmental expectations have largely been unmet. This is partly because of government failure and partly because of the initial refusal of oil companies to contribute to community development on the grounds that it was not their responsibility to do so, as they paid taxes to government; (2) the widespread feeling of exclusion from decision making, which is often reinforced by the poor state of corporate-community relations; (3) the issue of delays and broken promises that often shadow oil companies CSR initiatives; and (4) communication flow between HCs and oil companies is often limited and in most cases restricted to a few elites which sometimes creates huge latitude for misinterpretation and misinformation.

If oil companies wish to secure harmonious relationship with their HCs, they must begin by seeking to understand community perceptions (Agim, 1997). HCs perceive development projects as the property of the oil companies that provided them, rather than as community property. For example, it is common to hear community members refer to development projects undertaken by oil companies as 'Shell's borehole', or 'Mobil's hospitals' (Idemudia & Ite, 2006).

5.5 Conclusion

It is clear from this study and previous literature that identifying HCs perceptions and the factors influencing these perceptions form the basis for a better understanding of community actions. HCs perceptions are largely informed by the contradictions of wealth generation amidst poverty resulting in anger, frustration and hostility towards the oil companies. HCs were for years perpetually marginalised and excluded, while they continued to bear the brunt of the negative, mostly environmental, impacts of oil

production. Oil companies have been perceived as being responsible for the negative impacts of oil exploration because HCs see their valuables (such as land) that hold cultural, emotional and spiritual value being destroyed. Consequently, their perceptions of the oil companies took a form in which these institutions are seen as antagonists to be confronted.

Participants expressed different views regarding the relationship with the oil companies. While others consider the relationship as cordial, some participants stated that it was not cordial due to various reasons. Negative aspects of the oil companies operations were identified as informing the HCs perceptions especially in regards to pollution, lack of willingness to compensate them in the event of an oil spill and lack of provision of basic amenities. Positive aspects mentioned included that the oil companies had attempted to bring development in their HCs. Finally, HCs felt alienated as a result of the poverty, neglect, lack of respect and humiliation by the oil companies.

Chapter 6 RESULTS: SED REPORTING QUANTITY AND QUALITY

6.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to analyse the SED quantity and quality of oil companies in their AR. The most distinguishing feature of SED by companies is its voluntary nature. Consequently, the disclosures are characterised by diversity in terms of both quantity and quality (Aburaya, 2012). It is assumed that SED quantity is related to the importance placed on a particular subject or issue by a particular company. That is, the greater the SED quantity, the greater the perceived importance (Elmogla, 2009). This study uses content analysis to examine the quantity and quality of SED by Nigerian oil companies. One of the major strengths of this type of analysis is its generalizability given that it uses voluminous numerical data to establish significant relationships. However, there is also a major limitation in that quantitative secondary data cannot provide a rich explanation as to why some companies provide disclosures while others do not (Elijido-Ten, 2006).

The remainder of the chapter is organised as follows: Section 2 discusses the sample profile; Section 3 presents an overall view of SED categories identified in the study; Section 4 provides the descriptive statistics of SED quantity in terms of sentences and pages; Section 5 contains descriptive statistics of SED quality; Section 6 discusses the findings while Section 7 is the conclusion.

6.2 Sample profile

Table 6.1 illustrates a summary of company profiles of the sample. This is accompanied by a brief discussion to elaborate the characteristics of the sample.

Table 6.1 Summary of company profiles of the sample

Company Name	Status	Legal Form	Operational Status	Incorporation Date/ No. of Employees as at 2011	Headquarters/ Contact
Total Nigeria Plc.	Listed	Other non-liability limited	Operational	June 1, 1956/ 495	Total House, 4 Afribank Street, Victoria Island, Lagos. PMB 2143 Tel: +234-01-2621780-9
Mobil Oil Nigeria Plc.	Listed	Other non-liability limited	Operational	December 31, 1951/ 300	Mobil House, Lekki Expressway, Victoria Island, Lagos. Tel: +234-01-2621640/9
Conoil Plc.	Listed	Other non-liability limited	Operational	January 1, 1989/ 500	Bull Plaza 38/39, Marina PMB 2052, Lagos. Tel: +234-01-2665880
Anino International Plc.	Listed	Other non-liability limited	Operational	February 1, 1990	21B, Kofo Abayomi Street, Victoria Island, Lagos. Tel: +234-7061559576
Afroil Plc.	Listed	Public Limited Company	Operational	January 1, 1990	Royal Building (4th floor), Plot 11/11, Amuwo Odofin Industrial Layout, Mile 2, Lagos. Tel: +234-01-4975177
Eterna Oil & Gas Plc.	Listed	Other non-liability limited	Operational	August 3, 1998/ 50	5a Second Avenue Ikoyi, Lagos, P. O. Box 5647, Marina, Lagos. Tel: +234-01-8981842
Navitus Energy Plc.	Listed	Other non-liability limited	Operational	November 18, 1976	5, 7 Emmanuel Kolawole Street, Off Bajulaiye, Shomolu, Lagos. Tel: +234-01-821795
Capital Oil & Gas Ltd	Listed	Public Limited Company	Operational	May 1, 1990	1 Capital Close, Westminster, Ibru Jetty Complex, Apapa, Lagos. Tel: +234-01-2777710
Rak Unity Petroleum Company Plc.	Listed	Other non-liability limited	Operational	40	16, Olofa Way, P. O. Box 581, Offa Kwara State. Tel: +234-031801181
Tropical Petroleum Products Plc.	Delisted	Other non-liability limited	Operational	March 6, 1980	15th Floor, 47/57, Martins Street, P. O. Box 9055, Lagos. Tel: +234-01-2668892
Japaul Oil & Maritime Services Plc.	Listed	Other non-liability limited	Operational	August 10, 2005/ 105	Plot 39, Eastern-By-Pass, Marine Base, Port Harcourt, Rivers State. Tel: +234-084-238030

Company Name	Status	Legal Form	Operational Status	Incorporation Date/ No. of Employees as at 2011	Headquarters/ Contact
Oando Plc.	Listed	Public Limited Company	Operational	February 27, 1992/ 477	Stallion House 2, Ajose Adeogun Street, Victoria Island, Lagos. Tel: +234-01-2702400
SPDC	Non-Listed	Other non-liability limited	Operational	1937/4,500	Freeman House 21/22, Marina PMB 2418, Lagos. Tel: +234-01-2769999
Beco Petroleum Products Plc.	Listed	Other non-liability limited	Operational	January 30, 1986	No. 4, Gabaro Close, Off Ahmodu Ojikutu Street, Victoria Island, Lagos. Tel: +234-01-7374284
MRS Oil Nigeria Plc.	Listed	Other non-liability limited	Operational	August, 1969/ 203	8, Macarthy Street, Onikan, Lagos. Tel: +234-01-4614500
Forte Oil Plc.	Listed	Joint Stock Company	Operational	December 11, 1964/ 257	13, Walter Carrington Crescent, Victoria Island, Lagos. Tel: +234-01-2776100
NAOC	Non-Listed	Joint Stock Company	Operational	May 17, 1989/ 500	Plot 23, Engineering Close, Victoria Island, Lagos. Tel: +234-01-2600100
Chevron Nigeria Ltd	Non-Listed	Other non-liability limited	Operational	1969/1,800	2 Chevron Drive, Lekki Peninsula, Lagos. Tel: +234-01-2600600

Sources: www.securities.com/.../company-profile and www.moneyhub.net/scripts/cgiip.wsc/globalone/.../quote_and_news.r [Accessed 12th December, 2013]

Fourteen companies in the sample are primarily engaged in production, manufacturing and marketing of petrochemicals (gasoline, motor oils, lubricants, marine and jet fuels). These are: Total Nigeria Plc., Mobil Oil Nigeria Plc., Conoil Plc., Anino International Plc., Afroil Plc., Eterna Oil & Gas Plc., Navitus Energy Plc., Capital Oil & Gas Ltd, MRS Oil Nigeria Plc., Rak Unity Petroleum Company Plc., Tropical Petroleum Products Plc., Oando Plc., Beco Petroleum Products Plc. and Forte Oil Plc.

Other notable individual characteristics include: Conoil Plc. which is engaged in downstream petroleum industry; Afroil Plc. provides petroleum to bulk stations and terminals; MRS Oil Nigeria Plc. is an African conglomerate and one of the largest downstream players in the country and also in Cameroon, Benin, Togo and Cote D'Ivoire; Rak Unity Petroleum Company Plc. owns dealer-assisted and dealer-developed retail outlets spread across the country; Oando Plc. has over 500 retail outlets in the country and operations in Ghana, Togo, Liberia and Benin and Beco Petroleum Products Plc. which is involved in the provision of diverse services to the downstream and upstream segments of the petroleum sector.

Three companies in the sample SPDC, NAOC and Chevron Nigeria Ltd, are involved in oil and gas exploration, production and supply to a wide range of customers. SPDC is the country's oldest energy company while NAOC is a Joint Venture between Agip and the NNPC. Chevron is a subsidiary of Chevron Corporation and operates mostly in the onshore and near-offshore areas of the Niger Delta region. Only one company in the sample, Japaul Oil & Maritime Services Plc. is engaged in maritime operations, road flow lines and pipelines as well as transportation and logistics.

6.3 SED categories

Figure 6.1 below depicts SED categories disclosed in the AR of the sampled companies. Five SED categories comprising: community, health & safety, employee, corporate governance and environment are identified as a consistent measurement method (Ernst & Ernst, 1978; Hackston & Milne, 1996). Within each of these five broad categories, sub-classifications of disclosures were identified. Within the community category, disclosures included: (1) education initiatives such as building of schools, provision of teachers to remote areas and awarding of scholarships to primary, secondary school and undergraduate students; and (2) social welfare projects had prominent disclosures especially on donations to charitable organisations, provision of medical facilities like clinics, electrification, potable drinking water and basic physical infrastructures such as construction of roads, walkways, markets etc.

There was emphasis on the employee category especially on: (1) equal employment opportunities; (2) the employment of physically challenged persons and women; (3) staff development and training programmes through in-house courses and education programmes for self-improvement in the country and abroad; (4) welfare of employees through assistance and benefits, accessibility of grants and loans etc.

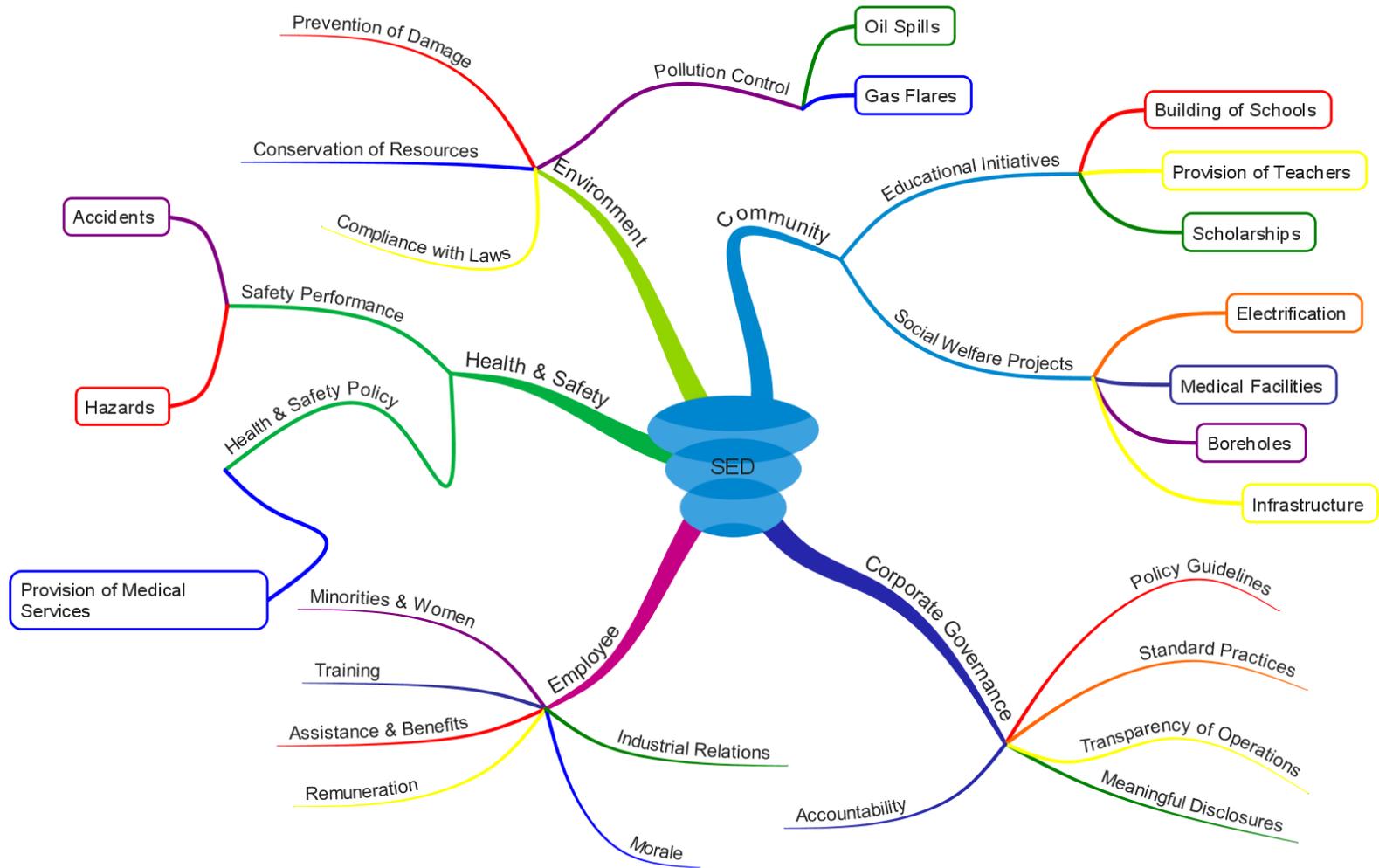


Figure 6.1 SED categories

The health & safety category comprised of reports focused on the protection of human lives and the avoidance of accidents. Most of the AR mentioned the health & safety policy outlining the availability of medical services to their employees such as company operated clinics. The corporate governance category comprised of statements on CSR policy guidelines and practices. Also, mentioned were the companies' role in society, relationships with stakeholders and compliance with existing regulations. The final SED category was environment where companies reported their efforts to strive and reduce the adverse effects of their operations on the environment. Guthrie (1982) and Gray et al (1995b) however, embraced six categories of disclosure, namely: environment, energy, employees, product, safety and community involvement.

6.4 Quantity

The findings from AR are shown in Table 6.2 below.

Table 6.2 SED by sample companies

Sector	Number of sample companies	Companies providing SED	
	Number of companies	Number of companies	%
Oil companies	18	13	72.2%

Source: Table format adopted from Azim et al (2011)

Table 6.2 indicates that 72.2% of the sample companies provided some form of SED in their AR. The measure of quantity involves determining the amount of space allocated to SED in AR. SED quantity was measured by alternative two units: number of sentences and pages. The study examined the AR from 1st January, 1992 to 31st December, 2011.

Table 6.3 Summary of SED disclosures in AR
Years =20 (N=13)

CHARACTERISTICS	SENTENCES		PAGES	
	Number ^a	Percentage ^b	Number	Percentage
CATEGORIES				
Employee	2236	41.7	71.50	36.8
Environment	89	1.7	4	2.1
Community	1314	24.5	44	22.7
Health & Safety	912	16.9	36	18.6
Corporate Governance	815	15.2	38.50	19.8
Total	5366	100	194	100

^a Number of sentences incorporating disclosure that is, amount of disclosure.

^b Number of sentences incorporating the given type of disclosure as a percentage of all sentences incorporating disclosure (5366 sentences).

Table 6.3 summarise the results of the content analysis. The total number of

sentences by categories was 5366. The most disclosures were on employee related information at 2236 (41.7%) sentences, followed by community involvement and development with 1314 (24.5%) sentences, health & safety 912 (16.9%) sentences, corporate governance 815 (15.2%) sentences and lastly on environment with 89 (1.7%) sentences.

There are a total of 194 measured pages incorporating SED and the results are consistent with that of sentences except corporate governance disclosures have a slightly higher percentage of pages (19.8%) than health & safety (18.6%). This could be the result of corporate governance disclosures being disclosed in bigger fonts accompanying the pictures of board members.

The results reveal that prominence given to employee disclosures was consistent with previous studies found in other countries. Hassan (2010) revealed that the most important and more readily available social information in AR of UK companies is employee-related. Rizk et al (2008) indicated that employee-related information is the most important in Egyptian companies. Sobhani et al (2009) found that employee information is the most disclosed in Bangladesh companies. Saleh (2009) established a similar pattern in Malaysian company reports. Abu-Baker & Nasser (2000) ascertained that the majority of Jordanian companies disclose social responsibility information concerning the employees. Belal & Lubinin (2009) determined that employee related SED is the dominant category with 90% of Russian companies making these disclosures. Bhattacharyya (2008) observed that Indian companies make disclosures mainly about employees. Deloitte & Van Staden (2011) found that for New Zealand companies, most SED sentences were reported in the employee category.

Perhaps the most striking finding was the overwhelmingly low levels of environmental disclosures, which is consistent with Uwalomwa & Jimoh (2012) who observed that environmental disclosures among the selected listed companies in Nigeria was relatively low. Nurhayati et al (2006) found low levels of environmental disclosure practices in listed Indonesian companies. Hossain et al (2006) revealed that the disclosure of environmental information made in AR by Bangladesh listed companies was fairly low. Mahadeo (2009) found little interest by companies in disclosing environmental information in Mauritius, particularly in relation to the impact of their productive or supply activities on the environment. Eljayash et al (2012) concluded that environmental related SED in Arab oil countries is still low. In Libya, Ahmad (2004) indicated that there was no evidence of environmental disclosure in AR from the 18 major industrial companies studied. The data presented here indicates that environmental issues are not regarded as a key disclosure.

6.4.1 Number of sentences

The number of sentences is chosen as it is easily identified and allows for a more refined examination of disclosure. Sentences are natural units of narratives which are clearly separated by punctuation marks (Elijido-Ten, 2004). De Villiers & Alexander (2010) counted sentences because these volumes and characteristics were indications of the importance managers attach to certain aspects of SED. The number of sentences was counted across categories looking at the theme of disclosure; the type of news and the type of evidence (Deloitte & Van Staden, 2011). Number of sentences requires less judgement to count and its determination has been associated

with fewer errors (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008; Mbekomize & Wally-Dima, 2013). Sentences are considered far more reliable because meanings and contextualisation of SED can easily be conveyed (Bouten et al, 2011; Raar, 2002).

Table 6.4 Descriptive statistics of the number of SED sentences
Years =20 (N=490)

	Employee	Environment	Community	Health & Safety	Corporate Governance
Mean	24.04	12.71	26.82	17.88	16.63
Standard Error	2.23	6.47	2.98	2.57	1.32
Median	16	24	24	18	19
Mode	9	11	21	13	22
Standard Deviation	21.56	17.13	20.86	18.35	9.25
Sample Variance	464.86	293.57	435.23	336.98	85.61
Kurtosis	2.79	4.25	5.64	8.58	0.77
Skewness	1.79	2.00	2.15	2.81	0.82
Range	103	49	112	91	42
Minimum	0	0	0	0	0
Maximum	103	49	112	91	42
Sum	2236	89	1314	912	815

Table 6.4 illustrates the descriptive statistics of the number of sentences used in examining SED quantity. The employee disclosure category has a mean (median) of 24.04 (16) and standard deviation of 21.56. The number of sentences of employee disclosures range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 103. The results indicate that companies are more concerned with employee issues compared to the other SED dimensions. Dominguez (2011) suggested the existence of a positive association between disclosure on employees and company image. The mean (median) of the community disclosure category is 26.82 (24) with a standard deviation of 20.86. The number of sentences of community disclosures range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 112. This might be because companies want to show the users of the AR that they were accountable to the public (Ebimobowei, 2011). Health & safety disclosures have a mean (median) of 17.88 (18) and standard deviation of 18.35.

The number of sentences related to health & safety disclosures range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 91. The mean (median) of corporate governance disclosures is 16.63 (19) with a standard deviation of 9.25. The number of sentences of corporate governance disclosures range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 42. Corporate governance has shifted from its traditional focus on agency conflicts to address issues of ethics, accountability, transparency and disclosure (Gill, 2008). CSR has increasingly focused on corporate governance as a vehicle for incorporating social and environmental responsibilities into the business decision-making process, benefiting not only financial investors, but also employees, consumers and communities (Gill, 2008). Environment disclosures have a mean (median) of 12.71 (24) and standard deviation of 17.13. The number of sentences of environmental disclosures range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 49.

Skewness is the tendency of the deviations from the mean to be larger in one direction than the other (Saleh, 2009). Kurtosis is the measure of relative peakedness or flatness of the curve defined by the frequency distribution (Malhotra, 2004). It is observed that the skewness of environment, community and health & safety categories exceed the range of ± 1.96 evidencing the normality of the data (Haniffa & Hudaib, 2006). This result is confirmed by the kurtosis statistics, where the kurtosis for the above named categories exceed the normality range of ± 3 (Haniffa & Hudaib, 2006), indicating that such data are not normally distributed. As a consequence, a robust analysis is necessary for the entire data.

Yaftian (2011) indicated that employee information makes up 67.2% of the total SED in the AR of companies in Iran. According to Yaftian (2011), the employee theme as a subsystem of social disclosures represents the human resources constituency within the company. Such perceptions of employee disclosures can also be explained from a PET (legitimacy theory) point of view, considering that employees are perceived as being the most important resources in a community. PET suggests that for an organisation to maintain its “licence to operate” it must comply with the expectations of the community in which it operates (Islam, 2009).

6.4.2 Number of pages

It seems now widely accepted that the number of pages is the preferred method for computing SED (Lungu et al, 2011). Pages are preferred since they can easily be counted. Azim et al (2011), Raman (2006) and Yang & Yaacob (2012) used the number of pages as the unit of measurement. The advantage of considering pages is that this measure incorporates pictorial as well as written SED (Chan & Kent, 2003).

Table 6.5 Descriptive statistics of the number of SED pages
Years =20 (N=466)

	Employee	Environment	Community	Health & Safety	Corporate Governance
Mean	0.90	0.66	0.97	0.69	0.77
Standard Error	0.07	0.10	0.07	0.05	0.05
Median	0.50	0.50	1	0.50	0.50
Mode	0.50	0.50	1	0.50	0.50
Standard Deviation	0.63	0.25	0.47	0.42	0.39
Sample Variance	0.40	0.06	0.22	0.17	0.15
Kurtosis	6.51	-1.87	0.53	5.04	3.57
Skewness	2.24	0.96	1.08	2.41	1.81
Range	3.50	0.50	1.50	1.50	1.50
Minimum	0	0	0	0	0
Maximum	4	1	2	2	2
Sum	71.50	4	44	36	38.50

Table 6.5 presents the descriptive statistics of the number of pages used to determine SED quantity. Employee is the highest disclosed category in terms of number of pages at 71.50 pages with a mean (median) of 0.90 (0.50) and standard deviation of 0.63. The number of pages of employee disclosures range from a minimum of 0 to a

maximum of 4. Community disclosure is the second most reported category with 44 pages having a mean (median) of 0.97 (1) and a standard deviation of 0.47. The number of pages of community disclosures range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 2.

This is followed by corporate governance disclosures which has 38.50 pages with a mean (median) of 0.77 (0.50) and standard deviation of 0.39. The number of pages of corporate governance disclosures range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 2. Health & safety disclosures are the fourth most disclosed category with 36 pages having a mean (median) of 0.69 (0.50) and standard deviation of 0.42. The number of pages of health & safety disclosures range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 2. Lastly, environment disclosures have only 4 pages with a mean (median) of 0.66 (0.50) and standard deviation of 0.25. The number of pages of environmental disclosures range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 1.

It is observed that the skewness of employee and health & safety categories exceed the range of ± 1.96 evidencing the normality of the data (Haniffa & Hudaib, 2006). This result is confirmed by the kurtosis statistics, where the kurtosis for the above named categories exceed the normality range of ± 3 (Haniffa & Hudaib, 2006), indicating that such data are not normally distributed.

6.4.3 Aggregated SED measures

The results of descriptive analysis of aggregated SED measures are presented in Table 6.6. The incidence figures that is, the numbers of disclosing companies as a percentage of the total sample of companies are shown in the second column.

Table 6.6 Descriptive statistics for aggregated SED measures

SED categories	Disclosing companies (making at least one disclosure)	Disclosing companies as a percentage of total sample (incidence)
Employee	11	61.1
Environment	4	22.2
Community	10	55.6
Health & Safety	9	50
Corporate Governance	9	50

Source: Table format adopted from Hackston & Milne (1996) & Yaftian (2011)

The results indicate that employee category is reported by 61.1% of the sample companies in their AR. The significance of the share of the employee category among all categories of reported disclosures is consistent with the results elsewhere (see for example, Belal, 2001; Ratanajongkol et al, 2006; Yaftian, 2011). Table 6.6 shows that the community, health & safety, corporate governance and environment categories are reported by 55.6%, 50%, 50% and 22.2% respectively of the sample companies.

6.4.4 Correlation results between SED quantity categories

Correlation coefficient between SED categories is calculated after the removal of outliers. Outliers are identified using the Z score rule which states that Z is the standard deviation above or below the mean. A data value with a Z score of less than or greater than 3 is considered an outlier.

Table 6.7 Correlation matrix between SED quantity categories

	Employee	Environment	Community	HSE	Corp Gov
Employee	1	0.18	0.09	-0.07	-0.05
Environment	0.22	1	0.28	0.63**	-0.95**
Community	0.06	0.47*	1	0.13	-0.12
HSE	0.03	0.18	0.31*	1	-0.07
Corp Gov	-0.09	-0.75*	0.04	0.00	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). Spearman correlations are presented above the diagonal. Pearson correlations are presented below the diagonal.

NB: HSE is the health & safety category and Corp Gov is the corporate governance category.

To better understand SED, correlation analysis was performed among the different disclosure categories to identify the relationships among them. Table 6.7 presents the correlation matrix for the SED quantity categories. The results in Table 6.7 indicate that consistent Pearson and Spearman correlation shows the community category is positively correlated to the employee, environment and health & safety categories. Pearson correlation indicates a positive correlation coefficient of 0.06, 0.47 and 0.31 between community disclosures with employee, environment and health & safety disclosures respectively at the significance level of 0.05. Spearman correlation indicates a positive correlation coefficient of 0.09, 0.28 and 0.13 between community disclosures with employee, environment and health & safety disclosures respectively at the significance level of 0.01. This result suggests that as the quantity of community disclosures increases, the environment, employee and health & safety disclosure categories also increase.

In addition, both correlation results display strong negative correlations between corporate governance and the environment categories with Pearson recording -0.75 and Spearman at -0.95. This result suggests that as quantity of corporate governance disclosures increases, the environment disclosures decrease. With regard to employee and corporate governance categories, results show a consistent weak negative linear relationship for both Pearson (-0.09) and Spearman (-0.05). The negative correlation means that as employee disclosures increase, corporate governance disclosures decrease.

6.4.5 Further Analysis

6.4.5.1 The reliability of measurement of SED quantity

The internal consistency of a set of measurement items refers to the degree to which items in the set are homogeneous. Cronbach's alpha is computed in terms of the

average intercorrelations among the items measuring the concept (Cronbach, 1951). The reliability (internal consistency) of SED quantity was measured using Cronbach's Alpha (α). Cronbach's coefficient alpha takes on a minimum value of zero and a maximum value of one and in general a score of 0.70 is acceptable (Nunnally, 1978). According to Sekaran (2003), alpha coefficients less than 0.60 suggest poor internal consistency, those in the 0.70 range as acceptable and those over 0.80 are good. The Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the five SED quantity categories is 0.85 suggesting that variables for SED quantity have relatively high internal consistency. This result is considered acceptable, compared with values of 0.64 in the Botosan (1997) and 0.51 in Gul & Leung (2004) studies.

6.4.5.2 Tests of Normality for SED quantity categories

Data normality is one of the major assumptions for most statistical analyses. Normality can be measured in a number of ways both graphically and non-graphically (Steven, 1992). Steven (1992) stated that non-graphical measures are more convincing in terms of interpreting data normality, such as the combination of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests that are often treated as the most powerful in detecting data normality.

Table 6.8 Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test for SED quantity categories

SED categories	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic(W)	df	Sig.
Employee	0.32	7	0.02	0.87	7	0.03
Environment	0.26	7	0.14	0.94	7	0.01
Community	0.24	7	0.20*	0.85	7	0.12
HSE	0.37	7	0.00	0.97	7	0.00
Corp Gov	0.15	7	0.20*	0.95	7	0.75

* This is a lower bound of the true significance

To examine whether the SED quantity data follows a normal distribution, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk W tests for normality were performed. According to Oyewo (2013), a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test with $p > 0.05$ suggest that distribution of the sample is not significantly different from a normal distribution, but if however, the result is opposite that is $p < 0.05$, it means the distribution is non-normal. Table 6.8 results indicate that the p values are all >0.05 except that of Employee ($p=0.02$) and HSE ($p=0.00$).

For the Shapiro-Wilk W test, when $W=1$ then the sample variable data are considered perfectly normal and when W is significantly smaller than 1 then the data is non-normal (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965). Table 6.8 indicates that the W values for SED quantity categories are all significantly closer to 1. Consequently, both the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests together with a visual inspection of the Normal QQ plots (see Figure 6.2) illustrate that the results of SED quantity categories in AR follow an approximately normal distribution. An analysis of the normality tests in Table 6.8 indicates mixed results showing that the observed significance levels were greater than 0.05 ($p>0.05$) expect those from Employee and HSE categories. When residuals analysis was applied to the results, it was found that the problems of heteroscedasticity were non-existent in the data.

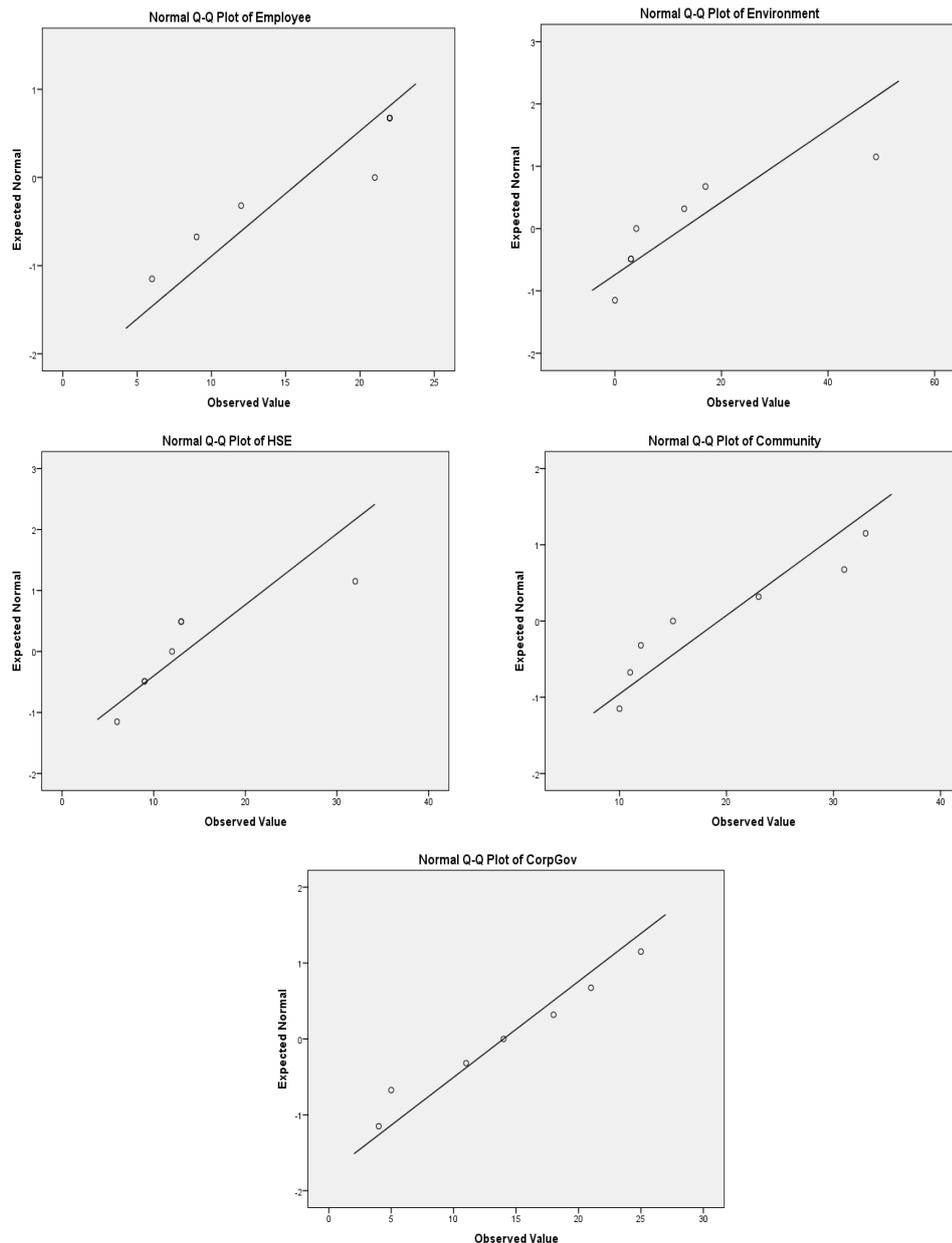


Figure 6.2 Five Normal Q-Q plots for SED quantity categories

6.4.5.3 Robustness Tests for SED quantity categories

Robustness of SED quantity scores was determined by testing for multicollinearity. Multicollinearity implies the existence of a linear relationship between two or more explanatory variables. Multicollinearity makes it difficult to differentiate the individual effects of the explanatory variables and regression estimators may be biased in that they tend to have large variances (Murray, 2006). There is no problem if the VIF (variance inflation factor) is less than 10 and the tolerance coefficient is greater than 0.10 (Field, 2000, Gujarati, 2003). The correlation matrix (Table 6.7) shows that the correlations between the continuous independent variables are low, which means that there is no serious multicollinearity (Bayoud et al, 2012). Non-existence of multicollinearity was confirmed by computing the VIFs for each of the SED category as depicted in Table 6.9 which are all lower than 10, indicating that the VIF values are acceptable.

Table 6.9 Multicollinearity Tests for SED quantity

Dependent Variable and VIF values					
	Employee	Environment	Community	HSE	Corp Gov
Employee		1.34	1.41	1.06	1.46
Environment	3.34		2.48	3.37	1.78
Community	1.67	1.18		1.43	1.63
HSE	1.29	1.64	1.47		1.75
Corp Gov	2.66	1.30	2.51	2.63	

6.4.5.4 Wilks' Lambda or U Statistic for SED quantity

Table 6.10 Wilks' Lambda Tests for SED quantity

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Wilks' Lambda	0.02	17.76b	5.00	2.00	0.05

Wilks' Lambda tests which variables contributes significance in a discriminant function. That is, the overall relationship between variables that are not directly observable from those that are, for example between corporate governance and employees. Wilks' Lambda is utilised to check for statistically significant differences. If the significant level is less than 0.05, then it can be concluded that there is a difference among SED categories (Pallant, 2004). The closer the value is to 0, the more the variable contributes to the discriminant function. Based on the understanding that the SED data was sourced from similar companies, repeated measures of Wilks' Lambda was conducted to obtain robust results (Gunawan et al, 2009). The value of Wilks' Lambda tests in Table 6.10 indicates low levels of 0.02 for SED quantity.

6.4.5.5 Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis is used when independent variables are correlated with one another and with the dependent variable(s) (Coakes et al, 2010). According to Hair et al (1995), multiple regression analysis evaluates the predictive power of explanatory variable(s) objectively while improving the prediction of dependent variable(s). Multiple regression analysis is used here to test for relationships with the following company characteristics: size, age and profitability.

Larger companies usually have more shareholders who might be interested in SED (Murcia & de Souza, 2009). In addition, Cho et al (2010) suggest that larger companies (presumably due to higher visibility) tend to disclose more SED information. A number of studies agree that there is a positive correlation between SED and the size of the company and that disclosures increases considerably in large companies (see Abreu et al, 2012; Cormier & Magnan, 2003; Debreceeny et al, 2002; Gray et al, 2001).

In contrast, other researchers found no positive relationship between SED and the

size of company (Akhtaruddin, 2005; Archambault & Archambault, 2003). A number of studies used company age as one of the most important factors that can affect SED (Liu & Anbumozhi, 2009; Rettab et al, 2009). Alam & Deb (2010) revealed a positive association between the level of disclosure and company age. However, Akhtaruddin (2005) argues that age of a company does not have a significant influence on SED. According to Akerlof (1970) profitable firms are more likely to disclose more SED in order to screen themselves from less profitable firms. A well-run company has incentives to distinguish themselves through SED from a less profitable one in order to raise capital on the best available terms (Ahmad et al, 2003). This study adopted the variables Rahman et al (2011) used to measure company characteristics: for size is total assets; for age is the number of annual general meeting notices; and for profitability is net profit after tax. The dependent variable is the total SED.

6.4.5.5.1 Relationship between total SED quantity, company size, age and profitability

Table 6.11 Regression output for total SED quantity, company size, age and profitability

Model summary					
	R	R Squared	Adjusted R Squared	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
	0.35	0.12	0.12	22.95	1.77
ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	692.36	3	230.78	0.43	0.73
Residual	4742.55	9	526.95		
Total	5434.92	12			
Coefficients					
	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
Constant	7.83	5.71		4.50	0.00
Size	-4.77	0.00	-0.22	-0.66	0.52
Age	-0.03	0.35	-0.03	-0.10	0.91
Profitability	4.56	0.00	-0.34	1.06	0.31

Notes: a. Predictors: (Constant), Size, Age, Profitability b. Dependent Variable: TotalSEDQt
NB. TotalSEDQt is the Total SED quantity

The adjusted R^2 (coefficient of determination) measures how far the model's ability explains variations in the dependent variable. The closer the value of adjusted R^2 to 1, then the independent variable gives almost all the information needed to predict variation in the dependent variable. Results from Table 6.11 indicate that the adjusted R^2 is 0.12 which shows that only 12% of the variations in the total SED quantity are explained by company size, age and profitability.

F-statistic (test of significance) assists in determining the overall joint significance of

the independent variables on the dependent variable (Makori & Jagongo, 2013). If the F-statistic is less than 1 and p-value is greater than 0.05, then statistical significance is impossible (Mackenzie, 2013). The F-statistic value of 0.43 and the related p-value of 0.73 imply that company size, age and profitability are statistically insignificant when measuring the association with total SED quantity.

The Durbin-Watson statistic is a test statistic used to detect the presence or absence of autocorrelation in the residuals (prediction errors) in regression analysis (Alikhani & Maranjory, 2013). Mirza et al (2012) demonstrate that if the value of Durbin-Watson is less than 2, then there is an indication of the absence of serial correlation in the model. Durbin-Watson statistic value is 1.77 indicating that there is no residual autocorrelation.

The t-test is used to determine whether there is statistical significance between two sets of scores (Coakes & Ong, 2011). If the p-value for the associated t-test is less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$), then there is statistical significance. Results reveal that company size, age and profitability have a statistically non-significant effect on the total SED quantity as the p-values of 0.52, 0.91 and 0.31 respectively, are all greater than 0.05.

These statistical analyses reveal that company size, age and profitability have a statistically non-significant effect on the observed total SED quantity. For company size, the findings in this study are consistent with Hossain et al (2006), Ponnu & Okoth (2009), Smith et al (2007) and Yulita (2010) who found that size does not affect SED. However, they contradict the studies of Aksu & Kosedag (2006), Alsaeed (2006), Barako et al (2006) and Hossain & Reaz (2007) who found that there is a positive relationship between total SED and company size.

For age, these findings are consistent with Lucyanda & Siagian (2012), Prihandono (2010), Rahman et al (2011) and Sukcharoensin (2012) who found that company age has no significant relationship with SED. The findings, however, contradicts the studies by Hamid (2004), Bayoud et al (2012) and Hossain & Hammami (2009) who found that SED was significantly affected by age of the company.

For profitability, the findings are consistent with the studies of Monteiro & Aibar-Guzman (2009) and Yulita (2010) who claimed that profit is not related to SED. These findings, however, contradict the studies that have found a positive association between the company profitability and SED see for example: Aguilera et al (2007); Brammer & Pavelin (2008); Haddock-Fraser & Fraser (2008); Untari (2010).

6.5 Quality

The measure of quality involves evaluating each SED sentence according to a proposed rating and then the average score is calculated. Consistent with Hooks & Van Staden (2011) and Shayuti (2012), this study also computed SED quality per sentence scores. SED quality in AR is measured using a 2-point scale system as follows:

- 1:** if SED is quantitative and reports specific activities of a company concerning its social and environmental responsibility;
- 0:** non-disclosure.

The following attributes in relation to SED quality are also considered: third party verification; the adoption of reporting guidelines and standards; the ability to accurately assess performance from SED; clear statements of vision from the chief executive; good coverage of significant issues; wide access; reporting of normalised data and awards/accolades (Hammond & Miles, 2004).

Table 6.12 Descriptive statistics of the number of quality SED sentences

Years =20 (N=356)

	Employee	Environment	Community	Health & Safety	Corporate Governance
Mean	6.30	7.60	15.67	5.65	6.77
Standard Error	0.76	2.61	1.59	0.80	0.93
Median	4	8	13	3	5
Mode	2	1	1	3	2
Standard Deviation	6.63	5.85	11.13	5.59	5.55
Sample Variance	43.97	34.30	124.01	31.25	30.88
Kurtosis	11.40	4.88	-0.50	5.84	2.49
Skewness	3.06	2.28	0.41	2.29	1.51
Range	39	16	42	27	24
Minimum	0	0	0	0	0
Maximum	39	16	42	27	24
Sum	479	38	768	271	237

Of the 5366 total number of SED sentences, only 1793 (33.4%) were considered to be of quality. This finding is consistent with those of Buniamin (2010); Deloitte & Van Staden, (2011); Elijido-Ten (2004) who found that even though the number of companies providing SED may be high, the majority of the disclosures were of poor quality confined to the provision of general or vague descriptions. Beck et al (2010) reported that, over a period of five years, there was a dominance of narrative over numerical content of disclosure, with little disclosure of either comparative or contextualised information in the AR of companies in the UK and Germany. According to Hassan (2010), the average score of quality reflects that the majority of SED in AR of UK companies usually consist of general statements and do not report specific activities.

Table 6.12 illustrates the descriptive statistics of SED quality of sentences by disclosure categories. The highest SED quality disclosed is in the community category with 768 sentences having a mean (median) of 15.67 (13) and a standard deviation of 11.13. The number of quality sentences of community disclosures range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 42. The employee disclosures category has the second highest quality of SED sentences at 479 with a mean (median) of 6.30 (4) and standard deviation of 6.63. The number of sentences of employee disclosures ranges from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 39.

The health & safety disclosures category was ranked third in quality and has 271 sentences with a mean (median) of 5.65 (3) and standard deviation of 5.59. The quality of health & safety disclosures sentences ranges from a minimum of 0 to a

maximum of 27. The corporate governance disclosures category is fourth in terms of quality with 237 sentences having a mean (median) of 6.77 (5) and a standard deviation of 5.55. The number of sentences for corporate governance disclosures range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 24. Environment disclosures category had the lowest quality sentences of 38 with a mean (median) of 7.60 (8) and standard deviation of 5.85. The quality of environmental disclosures sentences range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 16.

It is observed that the skewness of employee, environment and health & safety categories exceed the range of ± 1.96 evidencing the normality of the data (Haniffa & Hudaib, 2006). This result is confirmed by the kurtosis statistics, where the kurtosis for the above named categories exceed the normality range of ± 3 (Haniffa & Hudaib, 2006), indicating that such data are not normally distributed.

6.5.1 Alternative measure of SED quality

Previous studies have recognised that some disclosure items have greater importance than others (Guthrie & Abeysekera, 2006). Van der Laan Smith et al (2005) measured SED quality by using a multiple method approach. Quality was scored based on a scale of five ('0' for non-disclosure; '1' for minimum coverage, having little detail, or briefly mentioned; '2' for disclosure with some description, but with the company policies clearly outlined; '3' for SED quantitative statements; and '4' for truly extraordinary disclosure, benchmarked against best practice). Shayuti (2012) used a multiple SED quality score based on a scale of five, ranging from 0 to 4, with '0' for non-disclosure; '1' for brief, general statement or policy stated; '2' for specific endeavour, descriptive information of implementation and monitoring; '3' for SED quantitative statement and '4' for the use of targets in addition to publications of quantified results.

To further enhance the richness of the results, this study utilised an adaptation of Shayuti (2012) multiple SED quality score as an alternative method. The scores of '0' for non-disclosure; '2' for specific endeavour, descriptive information of implementation and monitoring; and '3' for SED quantitative statements were adopted. The remaining two scores, '1' for brief, general statement or policy stated and '4' for the use of targets in addition to publications of quantified results were captured in the scores of '2' and '3' respectively. Consequently, this study measured SED quality using an alternative 3-point scale method as follows:

- 2:** if SED reported is quantitative;
- 1:** if SED reports specific activities of a company concerning its social and environmental responsibility;
- 0:** non-disclosure.

The results using this typology are consistent with those of Table 6.12 and suggest that the descriptive statistics using the 2-point scale and multiple quality score is similar, but their magnitudes are different.

Table 6.13 Alternative measure of the number of quality SED sentences
Years =20 (N=398)

	Employee	Environment	Community	Health & Safety	Corporate Governance
Mean	6.84	3.45	23.11	6.52	5.98
Standard Error	0.37	0.63	1.82	0.86	0.49
Median	6	3	20	5	6
Mode	4	6	2	5	7
Standard Deviation	4.05	2.11	18.80	6.52	3.64
Sample Variance	16.40	4.47	353.64	42.53	13.31
Kurtosis	1.30	-1.23	-0.31	4.55	0.81
Skewness	1.06	-0.11	0.71	2.22	0.96
Range	22	6	76	28	16
Minimum	0	0	0	0	0
Maximum	22	6	76	28	16
Sum	814	38	2450	372	329

Table 6.13 illustrates the descriptive statistics for the alternative measure of SED quality sentences by category. The highest SED quality disclosed is in the community disclosures category with 2450 sentences having a mean (median) of 23.11 (20) and a standard deviation of 18.80. The number of quality sentences for community disclosures ranges from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 76. Employee disclosures category had the second highest quality of SED sentences at 814 with a mean (median) of 6.84 (6) and standard deviation of 4.05. The number of sentences of employee disclosures range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 22.

Health & safety disclosures category are third with 372 quality sentences having a mean (median) of 6.52 (5) and standard deviation of 6.52. The quality of health & safety disclosures sentences range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 28. Corporate governance disclosures category is fourth in terms of quality at 329 sentences with a mean (median) of 5.98 (6) and standard deviation of 3.64. The number of sentences of corporate governance disclosures range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 16. Environment disclosures category had the least quality sentences of 38 with a mean (median) of 3.45 (3) and standard deviation of 2.11. The quality of environmental disclosures sentences range from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 6.

It is observed that the skewness of health & safety category exceeds the range of ± 1.96 evidencing the normality of the data (Haniffa & Hudaib, 2006). This result is confirmed by the kurtosis statistics, where the kurtosis for the above named category exceed the normality range of ± 3 (Haniffa & Hudaib, 2006), indicating that such data are not normally distributed.

6.5.2 Correlation results between SED quality categories

Table 6.14 Correlation matrix between SED quality categories

	Employee	Environment	Community	HSE	Corp Gov
Employee	1	0.10	0.12	0.02	0.03
Environment	-0.04	1	0.60**	0.00	-0.10
Community	0.10	0.71*	1	0.30**	-0.03
HSE	0.03	0.17	0.31*	1	-0.03
Corp Gov	-0.09	-0.46*	0.03	-0.19	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). Spearman correlations are presented above the diagonal. Pearson correlations are presented below the diagonal.

The consistent Pearson and Spearman correlation results in Table 6.14 show that community is positively correlated to the employee, environment and health & safety categories. Pearson correlation indicates a positive correlation coefficient of 0.10, 0.71 and 0.31, between community disclosures with employee, environment and health & safety disclosures respectively at the significance level of 0.05. Spearman correlation indicates a positive correlation coefficient of 0.12, 0.60 and 0.30 between community disclosures with employee, environment and health & safety disclosures respectively at the significance level of 0.01. This result suggests that as the quality of community disclosures increases, the environment, employee and health & safety disclosure quality also increases.

Pearson and Spearman correlation results consistently show that corporate governance disclosures are negatively correlated to the environment and health & safety categories. Pearson correlation indicates a negative correlation coefficient of -0.46 and -0.19 between corporate governance disclosures with environment and health & safety disclosures respectively at the significance level of 0.05. Spearman correlation indicates a negative correlation coefficient of -0.10 and -0.03 between corporate governance disclosures with environment and health & safety disclosures respectively at the significance level of 0.01. This means that as the quality of corporate governance disclosure increases, environment and health & safety disclosure quality decreases.

6.5.3 Further Analysis

6.5.3.1 The reliability of measurement of SED quality

Reliability for the measurements of SED quality was evaluated by Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient to check on the internal consistency of the results. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the five SED quality categories is 0.43 suggesting that variables for SED quality have relatively low internal consistency. A low value of Cronbach's alpha could be due to poor interrelatedness between variables (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Since internal consistency is concerned with the interrelatedness of variables, if the variables are poorly correlated to each other, then the value of Cronbach's alpha will be low (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

6.5.3.2 Tests of Normality for SED quality categories

Table 6.15 Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test for SED quality categories

SED categories	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic(W)	df	Sig.
Employee	0.17	5	0.20*	0.98	5	0.95
Environment	0.20	5	0.20*	0.98	5	0.93
Community	0.25	5	0.20*	0.86	5	0.22
HSE	0.24	5	0.20*	0.82	5	0.11
Corp Gov	0.21	5	0.20*	0.93	5	0.65

* This is a lower bound of the true significance

Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk W tests for normality were used to examine whether the results of SED quality in AR followed a normal distribution. According to Oyewo (2013), a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test with $p > 0.05$ suggest that distribution of the sample is not significantly different from a normal distribution, but if however, the result is opposite that is $p < 0.05$, it means the distribution is non-normal. Table 6.15 indicates that the p values are all >0.05 for the SED quality categories.

For the Shapiro-Wilk W test, when $W=1$ the sample variable data are considered perfectly normal and when W is significantly smaller than 1 then the data is non-normal (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965). The results in Table 6.15 indicate that the W values for SED quality categories are all significantly closer to 1. Therefore, both the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests together with a visual inspection of the Normal QQ plots (see Figure 6.3 below) illustrate that the results of SED quality categories in AR follow an approximately normal distribution. When residuals analysis was applied to the results, it was found that the problems of heteroscedasticity were non-existent in the data.

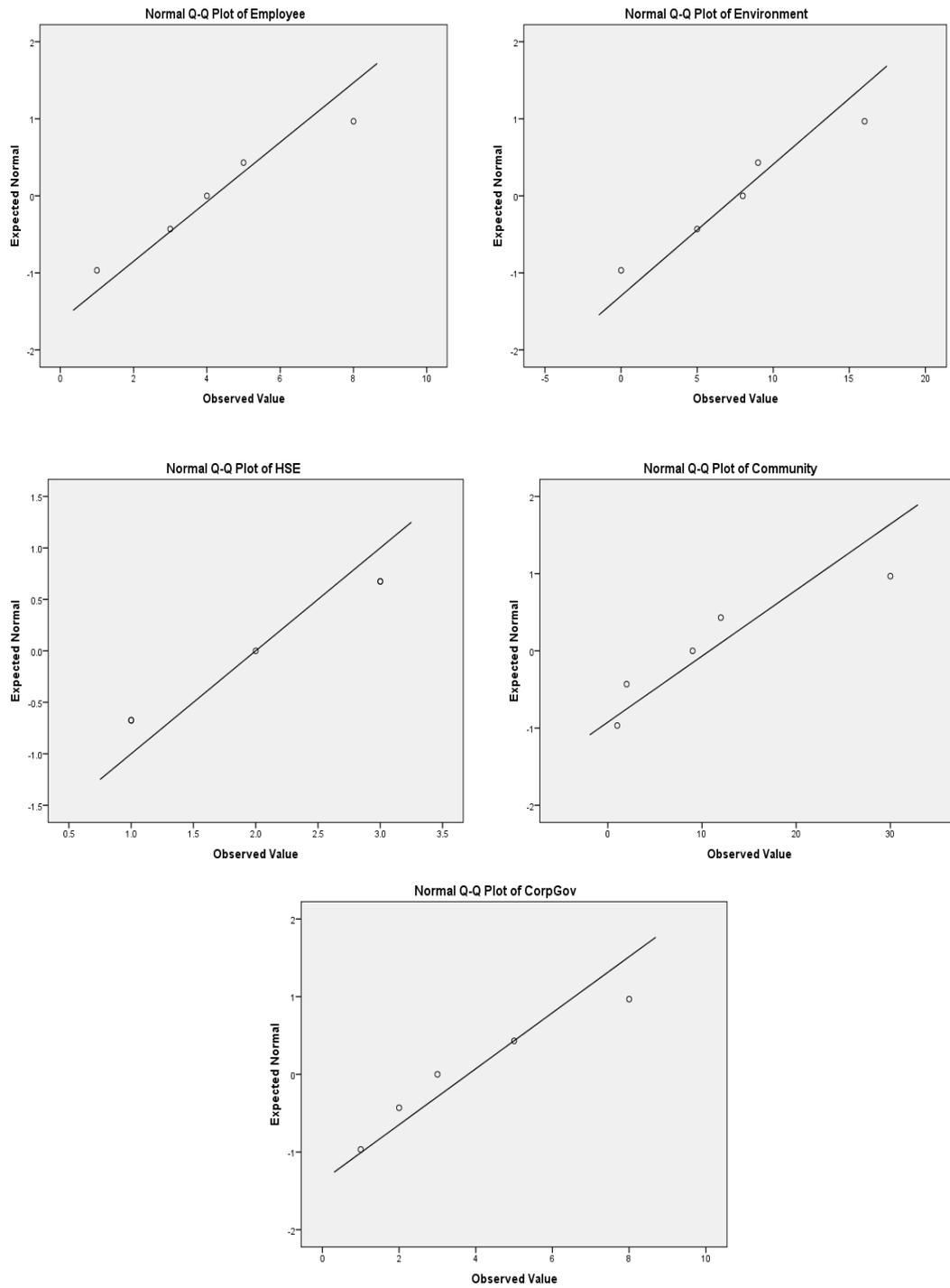


Figure 6.3 Five Normal Q-Q plots for SED quality categories

6.5.3.3 Robustness Tests for SED quality categories

Table 6.16 Multicollinearity Tests for SED quality

	Dependent Variable and VIF values				
	Employee	Environment	Community	HSE	Corp Gov
Employee		1.72	1.71	1.65	1.73
Environment	10.42		1.40	10.54	2.14
Community	10.68	1.46		8.04	2.74
HSE	10.66	2.17	1.59		2.14
Corp Gov	10.47	1.20	1.48	5.84	

The multicollinearity test results indicate that the data set for SED quality scores has variables with multicollinearity problems while some do not have multicollinearity issues. Multicollinearity is viewed as a serious problem if the VIF exceeds 10 (Haniffa & Cooke, 2005; Naser et al, 2006). As seen in Table 6.16, multicollinearity problems exist between employee data and other variables (VIF values are above 10) and between HSE and environment (VIF=10.54). Several solutions have been put forward in past studies to solve multicollinearity issues. First, different regression models are run, each routine using only one of the independent variables identified as generating a multicollinearity problem, in particular size variables (Ahmed & Nicholls, 1994; Cooke, 1991; Depoers, 2000). Another solution consists of factoring the collinear independent variables and using the principal factors as regressors (Cooke, 1992; Eng & Mak, 2003). The rest of the data do not have multicollinearity problems as indicated by their VIF values.

6.5.3.4 Wilks' Lambda or U Statistic for SED quality

Table 6.17 Wilks' Lambda Tests for SED quality

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Wilks' Lambda	0.12	1.83b	4.00	1.00	0.49

Based on the understanding that the SED data was sourced from similar companies, repeated measures of Wilks' Lambda was conducted to obtain robust results (Gunawan et al, 2009). The value of Wilks' Lambda tests in Table 6.17 show moderate levels of 0.12 for SED quality.

6.5.3.5 Relationship between total SED quality, company size, age and profitability

Table 6.18 Regression output for total SED quality, company size, age and profitability

Model summary					
	R	R Squared	Adjusted R Squared	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
	0.69	0.48	0.30	10.53	2.29
ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	921.07	3	307.02	2.76	0.10
Residual	999.69	9	111.07		
Total	1920.76	12			
Coefficients					
	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
Constant	9.97	7.21		1.38	0.20
Size	2.49	0.00	0.20	0.76	0.46
Age	0.46	0.16	0.73	2.85	0.11
Profitability	-3.80	0.00	-0.04	-0.19	0.85

Notes: a. Predictors: (Constant), Size, Age, Profitability b. Dependent Variable: TotalSEDQu
 NB. TotalSEDQu is the Total SED quality

Results from Table 6.18 indicate that the adjusted R^2 is 0.30 which shows that 30% of the variations in the total SED quality are explained by company size, age and profitability. The F-statistic value of 2.76 and the related p-value of 0.10 imply that company size, age and profitability are statistically insignificant in measuring the association with total SED quality. The Durbin-Watson statistic value is 2.29 indicating possible residual autocorrelation. Results reveal that company size, age and profitability have a statistically non-significant effect on the total SED quality as their p-values of 0.46, 0.11 and 0.85 respectively are all greater than 0.05.

The statistical analyses reveal that company size, age and profitability have a statistically non-significant effect on the total SED quality. For company size, the findings in this study are consistent with Echave & Bhati (2010), Prado-Lorenzo et al (2008), Ratanajongkol et al (2006) and Shirley et al (2009) who found that size does not affect SED. However, they contradict the studies of Chau & Gray (2010), Hossain & Hammami (2009), Huafang & Jianguo (2007), Stanwick & Stanwick (2006) and Uyar (2009), who found that there is a positive relationship between total SED and company size.

For age, these findings support the findings by Aldrugi & Abdo (2012), Liu & Anbumozhi (2009), Rettab et al (2009) and Yao et al (2011) who found that

company age has no significant relationship with SED. The findings, however, contradicts the studies by Haniffa & Cooke (2002) and Untari (2010) who found that SED was significantly affected by age of the company.

For profitability, the findings are consistent with the study of Apriwenni (2009), Chau & Gray (2010), Hossain & Hammami (2009) and Rahman & Widayarsi (2008) who claimed that profit is not related to SED. These findings, however, contradict the studies that have found a positive association between company profitability and the SED (see for example Garcia-Sanchez (2008); Jaffar et al (2007); Prihandono (2010); Stanny & Ely (2008); Zheng et al (2009).

6.5.4 Sensitivity Analyses

This study employed several sensitivity analyses to test the robustness of the research findings. Sensitivity analysis is aimed at examining how sensitive the results and findings are towards changing the statistical tests in SED determination (Aburaya, 2012). Firstly, different SED categories are incorporated into the analysis in order to better illustrate the different aspects of the company's disclosure strategy. The analysis of the different disclosure categories provides deeper understanding of and richer insights into disclosure strategies (Beattie et al, 2004). Secondly, in relation to the descriptive statistics, SED quantity is presented using the number of sentences, number of pages and aggregated SED measures. Thirdly, SED quality is presented using both a 2-point scale and multiple quality score. Results for SED quality are presented using a 2-point scale system as follows: 1: if SED is quantitative and reports specific activities of a company concerning its social and environmental responsibility; 0: non-disclosure. Alternatively, results are presented using a multiple quality score involving a 3-point scale as follows: 2: if SED reported is quantitative; 1: if SED reports specific activities of a company concerning its social and environmental responsibility; 0: non-disclosure. These sensitivity analyses show general consistency with the overall findings and confirm the reliability of the results, findings and support the generalisation of such results.

6.6 Discussion

Firstly, the analyses reveal that 72.2% of the sample companies provided some form of SED in their AR over the sample period. This is consistent with the findings of Ebimobowei (2011) who found that 82.5% of the Nigerian companies sampled present SED in their AR. Bhattacharyya (2008) found that out of 46 Indian companies 43 (93.47%) have made some form of SED disclosure. Mbekomize & Wally-Dima (2013) revealed that in Botswana, of 47 companies, 41 (87%) reported on SED issues while Ismail & Ibrahim (2008), in Jordan indicated an 85% level of disclosure. This high percentage negates conventional wisdom which suggests that CSR is more relevant to companies operating in developed countries due to elevated community expectations of socially responsible behaviour. The high culture of disclosure may not be unconnected with the home office reporting requirement of the MNCs and indigenous companies with foreign affiliations among the sampled companies (Owolabi, 2011).

Secondly, in regard to the SED quantity, oil companies make most disclosures on employee related information at 41.7% of the total information reported. This finding is consistent with those of Abu-Baker & Nasser, 2000; Belal & Lubinin, 2009;

Bhattacharyya, 2008; Das, 2013; Deloitte & Van Staden, 2011; Hassan, 2010; Rizk et al, 2008; Saleh, 2009; Sobhani et al, 2009; Yaftian, 2011. The primary objective of a company is to increase capital accumulation and to do so they need the support of employees, community and the government. These corporate activities are disclosed in AR to indicate that companies are responsible corporate citizens, with the ultimate aim of winning government and community support (Abeysekera, 2008). Daley (2001) notes that the competitive advantage of companies lies increasingly in intangibles (such as employees). Firms must convince capital providers that they are capable of using their assets (such as employees) at the highest levels of efficiency for capital accumulation. This is done in part through news releases, which include SED activities from AR (Abeysekera, 2008). Furthermore, the listing status of the particular company can be a factor influencing firms in voluntarily disclosing human capital (Cooke, 1989). Solidifying relations with the unions and disclosing them in AR enables companies to convince capital providers that capital accumulation is unhindered (Abeysekera, 2008).

Thirdly, employee information is reported by 61.1% of the companies. This is consistent with the findings of Yaftian (2011) who indicated that employee information was reported by 100% of the companies; that is 67.2% of the total SED disclosures in the sample AR. The overall significance of the share of this category of SED among all other categories is consistent with the results in most of the studies in this area both in developed and developing countries, see for example, Andrew et al (1989, Malaysia and Singapore); Belal (2001, Bangladesh); Gray et al (1995b, UK); Guthrie & Mathews (1985, Australia); Guthrie & Parker (1990, USA, UK and Australia); Hackston & Milne (1996, New Zealand) and Ratanajongkol et al (2006, Thailand).

Fourthly, environmental disclosures are overwhelmingly low in terms of both quantity and quality. This is surprising given the media focus on the environmental degradation caused by oil exploration and extraction activities by Nigerian oil companies. This finding is consistent with that of Mitchell et al (2006) who found that only a minority of companies report environmental information in their AR and the disclosures are limited in nature. Fear of readers' reaction and perception of their companies are said to contribute to low levels of environmental disclosures. Jaffar et al (2002) pointed out that the reluctance to disclose on the environmental category occurs if companies feel that such disclosure will have negative implications on their social and financial performance. Other studies which found low levels of environmental disclosures include Beck et al (2010); Brammer & Pavelin (2008); Déjean & Martinez (2009), Freedman & Stagliano (2008); Llena et al (2007); Mitchell & Hill (2009); Moneva & Cuellar (2009).

Fifthly, of the 5366 total number of SED sentences only 33.4% were considered to be of quality. Adenibi (2005) revealed that the quality of SED was low among well over half of the sampled MNCs oil companies. Similarly, Ahmad & Haraf (2013) found the SED quality of Malaysian companies was relatively poor. Literature suggests that there are generally low levels and poor quality of SED and its marginalisation in corporate practices in the developing world (see for example Brown et al, 2004; Eljido-Ten, 2011; Hossain et al, 2006; Lodhia, 2004; Uwalomwa & Uadiale, 2011; Wang & Bernell, 2013).

Sixthly, results reveal that the highest SED quality category is found within community disclosures represented by 42.8% compared to the employee category with 26.7%. This could be attributed to the fact that companies disclosed most of their community involvement in a more detailed manner, for example the amount of donations; the number of schools assisted; the number of scholarships awarded; and the number of clinics opened.

Hassan (2010) contends that the starting point for explaining SED is to understand how a community perceives it. According to PET, there are a number of factors involved in the formation of society's awareness of the importance of social and environmental issues; one of them is the cultural dimensions of its society. This dimension creates social pressure on companies regarding the impact of their activities on the environment and on society as a whole. Hassan (2010) suggests that in responding to this pressure, companies attempt to provide information about how socially responsible their activities are. In general, SED are seen as a response to competing pressures from various stakeholders such as employees, customers, suppliers, the general public and other social groups (Branco & Rodrigues, 2007). From a social/political perspective, SED can be understood as a legitimizing practice, serving as a tool for companies to legitimise their business operations and avoid legal, social and political sanctions (Anbumozhi et al, 2011; Berthelot et al, 2003; Wang & Bernell, 2013).

PET "emphasises the fundamental interrelationship between political and economic forces in society" (Miller, 1994). SED is about altering or reorienting public perceptions of companies and are inevitably biased (Deegan et al, 2002). In adopting a PET perspective, the use of AR are viewed as a proactive document to report SED, construct and project a particular image aimed at targeted audiences (Stanton & Stanton, 2002). Mahadeo et al (2009) asserted that social, economic and political factors do not merely 'dictate' directly the SED quantity but rather they contribute in shaping the attitudes and motivations of companies in determining how to 'engage' with CSR actions and their disclosures. Barros (2008) concluded that SED refers to the disclosure of information about companies' interactions with society, which is an important instrument in the dialog between business and society.

Investors are increasingly more interested in investigating the social, environmental and ethical dimensions of a company before investing in it (Jenkins & Yakovleva, 2006). However, Swanson (2002) suggests that an increasing concern in business-society relationships today is not just about making money. Rather, it is about how the money is earned and how the company interacts with its communities (see Hamann, 2003; Jenkins, 2005; Hayes & Walker, 2005).

The results in this study are consistent with Barros (2008), Hillman & Keim (2001) and Hooghiemstra (2000) who interpreted SED through the lens of a "PET" framework in which companies present a socially responsible image through disclosing social responsibility information so that they can legitimise their behaviours to their stakeholder groups and influence the external perception of reputation. Results in this study suggest that bourgeois PET provides a strong basis to explain the SED behaviour of Nigerian oil companies. Mahadeo (2009) measured SED by considering factors such as size, industry, profitability and the social, political and economic context. They considered the argument that the PET is more

appropriate to explain the progression of SED.

When taken as a whole, all the companies report on CSR basically with the intentions as explained by PET. The social responsibility of a company and the importance of a positive relationship between it and the society are discussed through PET (Rajapakse & Abeygunasekera, 2008). As such, SED are seen as more than simply for the provision of information, but are used to “establish accountability relationships” (Lehman, 1995).

6.7 Conclusion

One general objective of this study was to extend the overall knowledge of SED practices. This included an examination of SED quantity and quality in the AR of Nigerian oil companies. It was apparent that all SED categories were reported by most of the companies and that the employee information was found to be the most common type and amount of disclosures in the AR.

The SED quantity and quality in the environment category was found to be overwhelmingly low despite the fact that environmental pollution and degradation is at the centre of the volatile relationship between the companies and their HCs. The findings of the present study provide more insights into the current status of SED in an environmentally sensitive industry (Ahmad & Haraf, 2013). What is most surprising and perhaps worrying is that even with consistent HCs unrest within the oil producing areas and in the midst of huge public concern, the reporting of the environment category by these companies is not only minimal but also of poor quality. Ahmad & Haraf (2013) also report this seeming paradox in Malaysian property development companies.

The quality of SED in AR is generally low and the community category was found to provide the most qualitative SED information. The results of content analysis indicated that most SED were almost always general and limited in nature, declarative (that is, descriptive), non-monetary quantification in terms of financial impacts. Of particular importance is the fact that companies are engaging in impression management to convince stakeholders, government and the HCs that they are ‘good corporate citizens’. As such, they engage in selective reporting of SED, dictating which items they wish to release to the public while mystifying and misrepresenting the negative environmental impacts (Mitchell et al, 2006).

While this chapter has focused on the quantity and quality analyses, evaluating SED among the local and foreign companies are integral to this research investigation. The crucial question is how to explain the differences in SED among these companies. This question is the focus of the next chapter.

Chapter 7 RESULTS: DIFFERENTIAL REPORTING OF SED BETWEEN LOCAL AND FOREIGN OIL COMPANIES

7.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to distinguish SED levels by comparing local and foreign companies operating in the oil sector. It aims at identifying the differences between local and foreign companies' SED practices. An examination of previous AR identified large differences in sentence length both within and between companies belonging to several industries including oil and gas, mining, packaging and building materials, chemical and pharmaceutical, wine and retail (Galani et al, 2011; Cunningham & Gadenne, 2003). Cowan & Gadenne (2005) provided evidence that differences in disclosure behaviours occur within voluntary SED environments, for instance, companies adopt different approaches when the disclosures are under increased scrutiny. The impact and effect of the disparities as a result of differing SED practices of companies should be recognised. This chapter focuses on the potential differences that may arise between local and foreign companies' disclosure practices.

The remainder of the chapter is organised as follows: Section 2 presents the distinction in the sample profile between local and foreign companies; Section 3 focuses on the comparative analysis between local and foreign companies; Section 4 provides SEDI for local and foreign oil companies; Section 5 discusses the findings while Section 6 contains the conclusion.

7.2 Distinction of sample profile between local and foreign companies

Depoers (2000) argued that operating in other countries increases the amount of information controlled by a company. Moreover, companies are induced to comply with the usual disclosure practices in countries in which they operate. It can be argued that due to their geographical extension, foreign companies are more likely to face greater social pressure (Hassan, 2010). This geographical extension creates more pressure from HCs on foreign companies, with regard to their social responsibilities and the more foreign countries in which the company operates, the more pressure there is on the company (Hassan, 2010). Aldrugi & Abdo (2014) found significant positive associations between foreign companies SED levels, legal requirements, improving reputation, meeting the expectations of society, societal pressures and economic factors in Libya.

Pahuja (2009) classified a foreign company as one which is a subsidiary of a company incorporated outside a country or foreign shareholders have 50% or more share in the company. Foreign companies consist of two types: (a) those headquartered in another country and operating in the country in question (b) those that are a subsidiary of a company incorporated outside the country in question. The study adopted Suttipun & Stanton's (2012) classification of foreign companies as

those founded in other countries but located in a host country, while local companies are those both founded and located within the country of origin.

Table 7.1 Foreign owned Nigeria oil companies

Company Name	NNPC (% Interest)	Operator (% Interest)	Other Partners (% Interest)
Total Nigeria Plc.	60%	Total (40%)	None
Mobil Oil Nigeria Plc.	60%	Mobil (40%)	None
SPDC	55%	Shell (30%)	TotalFinaElf (10%), Agip (5%)
NAOC	60%	Agip (20%)	ConocoPhillips, (20%)
Chevron Nigeria Ltd	60%	Chevron (40%)	None
MRS Oil Nigeria Plc.	Subsidiary of Corlay Global S.A., Republic of Panama		

Sources: Ariweriokuma (2009); NNPC (2010)

Table 7.1 depicts the companies in the sample that are considered foreign. The following 12 companies in the sample are considered as local: Conoil Plc., Anino International Plc. Afroil Plc., Eterna Oil & Gas Plc., Navitus Energy Plc., Capital Oil & Gas Ltd, Rak Unity Petroleum Company Plc., Tropical Petroleum Products Plc., Japaul Oil & Maritime Services Plc., Oando Plc., Beco Petroleum Products Plc. and Forte Oil Plc.

7.3 Comparative analysis between local and foreign companies

Several reasons have been advanced to justify the SED differences between local and foreign companies: (1) SED may assist a company to improve its image and promote goodwill, since some members of HCs usually believe that foreign companies come to steal the wealth of their country; (2) companies may disclose social and environmental performance in order to strengthen their competitiveness and distinctiveness; and (3) companies may resort to SED in an attempt to improve their reputation and erase the negative effects caused by environmental accidents, especially for companies with a reputation which may have been damaged as a result of an accident leading to environmental damage, such as the spillage of large quantities of crude oil (Aldrugi & Abdo, 2012).

The country of origin of the company making disclosures has been found to influence SED quantity (Adams et al, 1998; Kolk et al, 2001). Also, a number of studies indicate that the country in which the company reports affects the amount of disclosure (see Guthrie & Parker, 1990; Samantha & Tower, 1999). Chapple & Moon (2005) concluded that foreign companies are more likely to adopt SED than those operating solely in their home country, but the profile of their disclosures tend to reflect the profile of the country of operation rather than the country of origin.

Country context and type of industry have an impact on disclosures in terms of their differential SED reporting styles (Islam et al, 2011). Various studies have examined

variations in SED across single countries (Adams, 1999; Adams et al, 1995; Adams & Kuasirikun, 2000; Andrew et al, 1989; Roberts, 1991). The extent of these differences in some studies, however, is somewhat difficult to determine because of the different characteristics of companies making up the samples from each country (Michelon, 2007). Comparative analysis was conducted between local and foreign companies in terms of SED quantity (sentences) contained in the AR.

7.3.1 Descriptive statistics of SED extent in local and foreign companies

Table 7.2 Descriptive statistics of the extent of SED categories in local (L) and foreign (F) companies

	Employee L(F)	Environment L(F)	Community L(F)	Health & Safety L(F)	Corporate Governance L(F)
Mean	23.78 (15.86)	12.71 (0)	28.90 (24.37)	23.92 (10.08)	19.97 (7.73)
Standard Deviation	18.07 (16.47)	17.13 (0)	26.09 (16.61)	22.71 (5.72)	8.85 (3.17)
Sample Variance	326.77 (271.32)	293.57 (0)	680.69 (276.17)	515.99 (32.77)	78.44 (10.06)
Minimum	0	0	0	0	0
Maximum	103 (72)	49 (0)	112 (72)	91 (22)	42 (11)
Sum	1665 (571)	89 (0)	607 (707)	670 (242)	699 (116)
%	31.02 (10.64)	1.66 (0)	11.31 (13.18)	12.49 (4.51)	13.03 (2.16)

Note: L represents local while F are the foreign companies

Table 7.2 depicts the sentences data per SED categories of local and foreign companies respectively. The comparison of mean values indicates significant differences in the employee, environment, health & safety and corporate governance disclosures. In the employee category, local companies have an average of 23.78 compared to 15.86 for the foreign companies. The foreign companies have no mean values for the environment category. Health & safety category for local companies is 23.92 against that of foreign companies at 10.08. In the corporate governance category, local companies mean values are 19.97 compared to 7.73 for foreign companies. Community disclosure for local companies is 28.90 in contrast to 24.37 of foreign companies.

A comparison of the maximum number of SED sentences between local and foreign companies indicates significant differences in all of the categories. In the employee category, local companies had a maximum of 103 sentences while foreign companies had 72. Foreign companies had no maximum number of sentences in the environment category. Community category for local companies had a maximum of 112 in contrast to 72 sentences of foreign companies. The number of maximum sentences in the health & safety category in local companies was 91 compared with 22 for foreign companies. Lastly, in the local companies' corporate governance category, the maximum number of sentences was 42 compared to 11 sentences for foreign companies.

Significant differences were equally observed in the SED levels between local and

foreign companies. Local companies' employees disclosures were 1665 sentences (31.02% of the total SED) compared to foreign companies at 571 (10.64%). Only local companies disclosed SED in the environment category. Health & safety category for local companies was 670 (12.49%) sentences in contrast to 242 (4.51%) for foreign companies. Corporate governance category for local companies was 699 (13.03%) sentences against foreign companies at 116 (2.16%). Differences in community disclosures between local and foreign companies were insignificant at 607 (11.31%) and 707 (13.18%) respectively. Based on comparing the means and percentages of disclosure, it is clear that there are differences in SED between local and foreign companies, which seem to be in favour of local companies. The total SED extent for local companies is 69.51% compared to 30.49% of foreign companies.

7.3.2 SED type in local and foreign companies

SED was classified into three subcategories according to whether they were negative, neutral or positive disclosures and then their proportions were compared through descriptive analysis (Cowan & Gadenne, 2005; Mitchell et al, 2006). Several studies have identified a propensity toward the provision of positive information with little or no negative information even under circumstances where negative information was known to exist about the company (Deegan et al, 2000).

Mitchell et al (2006) classified SED as positive, negative or uncertain/neutral based. Positive disclosures are defined as information where the company is presented as operating in harmony with the society/environment. Neutral disclosures are defined as when SED is given but the impact is unclear. Negative disclosures are defined as those 'that present the company as operating to the detriment of the society/environment' (Deegan & Gordon, 1996). The number of sentences was chosen as the most appropriate measure to determine into which category the text is classified. The major limitation of using this method is the necessary element of subjectivity involved in determining what constitutes a positive, negative or neutral disclosure (Mitchell et al, 2006; Zéghal & Ahmed, 1990). The role of this classification is to capture variation in SED content and is based on the social and environmental issue that is being reported (Plumlee et al, 2010).

Table 7.3 Comparison of the type of SED categories in local and foreign companies

SED categories	Positive SED		Negative SED		Neutral SED	
	Companies		Companies		Companies	
	Local	Foreign	Local	Foreign	Local	Foreign
Employee	1585 (29.54%)	527 (9.82%)	36 (0.67%)	7 (0.13%)	44 (0.82%)	37 (0.69%)
Environment	47 (0.88%)	0	0	0	42 (0.78%)	0
Community	587 (10.94%)	696 (12.97%)	11 (0.2%)	11 (0.2%)	9 (0.17%)	0
Health & Safety	667 (12.43%)	242 (4.51%)	0	0	3 (0.06%)	0
Corporate Governance	672 (12.52%)	116 (2.16%)	3 (0.06%)	0	24 (0.45%)	0

Source: Table format adopted from Summerhays & De Villiers (2012)

The type of SED that appeared in AR of local and foreign companies are summarised and reported in Table 7.3. It illustrates the descriptive statistics for three categories: positive, negative and neutral SED. Within the positive SED, it is observed that there are significant differences between local and foreign companies in the employee, environment, health & safety and corporate governance categories. Local companies' employee disclosures were 1585 (29.54% of the total SED) sentences, to that of foreign companies at 527 (9.82%). Only the local companies had environmental disclosures. The health & safety disclosures for local companies were 667 (12.43%) compared to 242 (4.51%) for the foreign companies. In the corporate governance categories, local companies reported 672 (12.52%) sentences in contrast to 116 (2.16%) for the foreign companies.

On the negative SED, there was no differences in the environment, community and health & safety categories for local and foreign companies. The local and foreign companies had no negative disclosures for the environment and health & safety categories while in the community categories they both had the same number of disclosures. Differences were observed in the employee category as local companies reported 36 (0.67%) sentences compared to 7 (0.13%) for foreign companies. The corporate governance disclosures differences were not significant.

Under the neutral SED, local companies had disclosures on the environment, community, health & safety and corporate governance while foreign companies had no disclosures under these categories. The employee disclosures for local companies were 44 (0.82%) compared to 37 (0.69%) for foreign companies. This, however, was not significant.

Table 7.4 Descriptive statistics of the type of SED by local and foreign companies

Company	Type of SED	Total	%
Local (Foreign)	Positive	3558 (1581)	66.31 (29.46)
	Negative	50 (18)	0.93 (0.33)
	Neutral	122 (37)	2.28 (0.69)

Source: Table format adopted from Abdo & Aldrugi (2012)

Table 7.4 indicates that the proportion of positive disclosures in local companies (66.31%) was significantly greater than in foreign companies (29.46%). This means that disclosure of positive news is more dominant in local companies compared to foreign companies. These findings are consistent with the results of previous studies examining SED practices (Cowan & Gadenne, 2005; Deegan & Rankin, 1996; Deegan et al, 2000). SED tend to be predominantly positive in nature, containing little negative information (Deegan et al, 2000). Positive disclosures have been identified as the most prevalent way to manage public perceptions (Deegan, 2002). Companies will sometimes use positive disclosures to deflect attention away from the crisis event, making no attempt to change the expectations of their relevant publics (Cho, 2009).

Table 7.4 further indicates that neutral disclosures were 2.28% and 0.69% for local and foreign companies respectively. Negative SED were the least disclosed with 0.93% and 0.33% for local and foreign companies respectively. The results are consistent with Mitchell et al (2006) who found that the vast majority of disclosures are positive in nature with very limited negative reports occurring since companies use SED in a self-promoting manner by disclosing almost solely positive or at the very least neutral items. Companies with bad social/environmental news have been shown to react by ignoring the negative and disclosing more positive environmental information (Deegan & Rankin, 1996). Companies do not provide such disclosures to satisfy the user's right to know, but as a means to which the company will be deemed legitimate by society and subsequently reap the rewards of such legitimacy (Wilmshurst & Frost, 2000; O'Donovan, 2002). The total SED type for local companies is 69.52% in contrast to 30.48% of foreign companies.

7.3.3 SED nature in local and foreign companies

Furthermore, additional analysis was conducted using the method adopted from Dawkins & Ngunjiri (2008); Warsame et al (2002) and Wiseman (1982) in which statements within AR were highlighted in regard to the five SED categories and identified in four levels of activity: (1) no policy disclosure; (2) policy description; (3) policy activity; and (4) policy outcome. This method was chosen since the classification of SED as positive, negative and neutral reduces their objectivity. The statements were scored as: (a) no policy disclosure, a score of 0 if no mention was made of an SED dimension; (b) policy description, a score of 1 if a company made general mention of SED but gave no indication of a desired level of performance; (c) policy activity, a score of 2 if SED activities were indicated but in a non-measurable manner; and (d) policy outcome, a score of 3 if measurable SED outcomes were provided. In this way, SED scores ranged from 0 to 3 (Dawkins & Ngunjiri, 2008).

Table 7.5 Comparison of the nature of SED categories in local and foreign companies

SED categories	Generally SED mentioned		SED activities indicated		Measurable SED provided	
	Companies		Companies		Companies	
	Local	Foreign	Local	Foreign	Local	Foreign
Employee	1580 (23.48%)	396 (5.88%)	82 (1.22%)	7 (0.1%)	84 (1.25%)	124 (1.84%)
Environment	89 (1.32%)	0	0	0	0	0
Community	96 (1.43%)	7 (0.1%)	128 (1.9%)	2 (0.03%)	907 (13.48%)	1234 (18.34%)
Health & Safety	665 (9.88%)	175 (2.6%)	247 (3.67%)	89 (1.32%)	3 (0.05%)	0
Corporate Governance	658 (9.78%)	157 (2.33%)	0	0	0	0

Table 7.5 shows that local companies disclosed more than foreign companies in all the categories in mentioning SED generally. There were significant differences in employee disclosures as the local companies had the most generally SED mentioned 1580 (23.48%) compared to that of foreign companies 396 (5.88%). This result is in contrast to the findings of Brammer et al (2006), who found that employee-related aspects of CSR tended to be relatively uniform among British companies with international operations. Foreign companies provided no environmental disclosures. The community disclosures for local companies' were 96 (1.43%) compared to 7 (0.1%) for foreign companies. Health & safety SED for local companies was 665 (9.88%) compared to 175 (2.6%) for foreign companies. The local companies' corporate governance disclosures were 658 (9.78%) while that of foreign companies was 157 (2.33%).

On SED activities indicated, local and foreign companies did not provide any disclosures on the environment and corporate governance categories. There was a significant difference observed in local companies' employee 82 (1.22%), community 128 (1.9%) and health & safety 247 (3.67%) SED as opposed to foreign companies 7 (0.1%), 2 (0.03%) and 89 (1.32%) respectively. On measurable SED provided, local and foreign companies did not provide any disclosures on the environment and corporate governance categories. The foreign companies had the most measurable SED provided in the community category with 1234 (18.34%) compared to local companies with 907 (13.48%). This is consistent with Moneva & Llena (2000) who indicated that a company with a foreign parent supplies more quantitative SED, possibly as a consequence of the situation in the parent company's country. The differences in the health & safety category were insignificant.

Table 7.6 Descriptive statistics of the nature of SED in local and foreign companies

Company	Nature of SED	Total	%
Local (Foreign)	Generally SED mentioned	3088 (735)	45.89 (10.91)
	SED activities indicated	457 (98)	6.79 (1.45)
	Measurable SED provided	994 (1358)	14.78 (20.18)

Source: Table format adopted from Abdo & Aldrugi (2012)

Results from Table 7.6 reveal that local companies reported mostly general SED information compared to foreign companies who provided mainly quantitative disclosures. Generally SED mentioned was found to be more prevalent in local companies (45.89%) than in foreign companies (10.91%). Total measurable SED provided was 34.96% of which local and foreign companies were 14.78% and 20.18% respectively. SED activities indicated were the least reported category at 8.24%, of which local companies were 6.79% while foreign companies were 1.45%. The total nature of SED for local and foreign companies is 67.46% and 32.54% respectively.

7.4 SEDI for local and foreign oil companies

Comparative local and foreign companies SED were measured through the SEDI. These indices are extensive lists of selected items, which may be disclosed in company reports (Rizk et al, 2008). The SEDI was constructed to evaluate the contents of SED in company AR. SED indices provide a measure of the total SED quantity and quality within each disclosure category (Aburaya, 2012). The main advantage of utilising disclosure indices is that the measurement allows the researcher to adjust disclosures that are not responsive to other more direct measures (Marston & Shrives, 1991). This measurement technique is more suitable for developing countries that generally have poor SED quantity and quality disclosed in AR (Nurhayati et al, 2006).

The SEDI consists of detecting the presence or absence of social responsibility information, where at least one information item needs to be disclosed under each category (see for example, Frost et al, 2005; Haniffa & Cooke, 2005; Magness, 2006). The analysis of the frequency of disclosure categories over a period of time is sufficient to reflect the importance of SED (Burritt & Welch, 1997). However, there is an absence of an appropriate generally accepted model for the selection of SED items to be included in a disclosure index (Hossain et al, 2006). The SEDI was constructed with a checklist of 62 voluntary items divided into seven categories which were; governance structure and management systems; credibility; social and environmental performance indicators; social spending; vision and strategy claims; social/environmental profile; social/environmental initiatives.

A dichotomous variable was used with the value of '1' if the company reported the corresponding SED and '0' for non-disclosure. The only consideration was whether or not a company disclosed an item of SED in its AR (Hossain et al, 2006). SED were identified by the 'meaning' implied in the text according to the definition of each disclosure item (Lu & Abeysekera, 2014). The unweighted approach was adopted for this study as other researchers have used it successfully (Arshad et al,

2014; Galani et al, 2011; Hossain & Hammami, 2009; Zhang, 2013). One advantage of using the unweighted index is that it decreases the chances of items being treated unequally and minimises the risk of subjectivity created when measuring the actual quantity of SED (Yuan, 2007).

Table 7.7 Distribution of SED indicators in local and foreign companies

Disclosure Indicators	Score	Frequency Local(Foreign)	% Local(Foreign)
Hard disclosure items			
Social and environmental performance indicators			
SPI			
1. SPI on employment information (type, numbers of employees and employment creation)	0 1	5 (2) 2 (4)	71.43 (33.33) 28.57 (66.67)
2. SPI on labour/management relations	0 1	3 (4) 4 (2)	42.86 (66.67) 57.14 (33.33)
3. SPI on health and safety	0 1	0 (2) 7 (4)	0 (33.33) 100 (66.67)
4. SPI on training and education	0 1	1 (1) 6 (5)	14.29 (16.67) 85.71 (83.33)
5. SPI on diversity and opportunity (description of equal opportunity policies, monitoring systems)	0 1	4 (4) 3 (2)	57.14 (66.67) 42.86 (33.33)
6. SPI on non-discrimination policies/programmes/procedures preventing all forms of discrimination in firms' operations	0 1	2 (4) 5 (2)	28.57 (66.67) 71.43 (33.33)
Society			
7. SPI on community (policies to manage impacts on community in areas affected by firms' operations)	0 1	6 (0) 1 (0)	85.71 (0) 14.29 (0)
EPI			
8. EPI on land and resources use, biodiversity and conservation	0 1	5 (0) 2 (0)	71.43 (0) 28.57 (0)
9. EPI on compliance performance (for example exceedances, reportable incidents)	0 1	6 (0) 1 (0)	85.71 (0) 14.29 (0)
Social spending			
10. Amount spent on community and political contributions	0 1	2 (2) 5 (4)	28.57 (33.33) 71.43 (66.67)
Soft disclosure items			
Vision and strategy claims			
11. CEO statement on social and/or environmental performance in letter to shareholders and/or stakeholders	0 1	5 (5) 2 (1)	71.43 (83.33) 28.57 (16.67)
12. A statement of corporate social and/or environmental policy, values and principles, codes of conduct	0 1	5 (5) 2 (1)	71.43 (83.33) 28.57 (16.67)
Social/environmental profile			
13. A statement about a firm's compliance (or lack thereof) with specific social and/or environmental standards	0 1	5 (0) 2 (0)	71.43 (0) 28.57 (0)
14. An overview of social and/or environmental impact of the industry	0 1	5 (0) 2 (0)	71.43 (0) 28.57 (0)

15. An overview of how the business operations and/or services impact the society and/or environment, employees and customers	0 1	0 (5) 0 (1)	0 (83.33) 0 (16.67)
16. An overview of corporate social and/or environmental performance relative to industry peers	0 1	6 (0) 1 (0)	85.71 (0) 14.29 (0)
Social/environmental initiatives			
17. A substantive description of employee training in social and/or environmental management and operations	0 1	6 (0) 1 (0)	85.71 (0) 14.29 (0)
18. Internal social and/or environmental awards	0 1	6 (0) 1 (0)	85.71 (0) 14.29 (0)
19. Community involvement and/or donations related to society and/or environment	0 1	1 (0) 6 (6)	14.29 (0) 85.71 (100)
Total SEDI scores		53 (32)	

Based on the frequency of each disclosure indicator reported, the SEDI for both local and foreign companies was calculated to evaluate the SED in their AR. Table 7.7 contains data on SED patterns made by the distribution of indicators under the disclosure index. Only 19 out of the 62 voluntary SED items had been disclosed by either the local or foreign companies. This is consistent with Oba & Fodio (2012) who found that companies had disclosed only 3 out of 20 testable disclosure items confirming the arguments that SED in AR of Nigerian companies were scant.

Table 7.7 indicates that four categories of the SEDI were reported by the companies. The total SEDI score for local companies was 53 compared to 32 for foreign companies. The scores of reported indicators by local companies were SPI (27), social initiative (8), social spending and social/environmental profile (both 5), vision and strategy claims (4), EPI (3) and society (1). The scores of reported indicators by foreign companies were SPI (19), social initiative (6), social spending (4), vision and strategy claims (2), social/environmental profile (1), EPI and society (both 0).

Both the local and foreign companies concentrated on disclosures regarding health & safety (100% and 66.67% respectively) and training and education of employees (85.71% and 83.33% respectively). The local companies placed emphasis on non-discrimination policies (71.43%) while the foreign companies disclosed more on employment information (66.67%). Consistent with the findings of Bhattacharyya (2008), disclosures were mainly about employees. Perhaps it is unsurprising to find that this area tended to have the highest SED levels (Liong, 2013). Given that facts about the workforce can be easily obtained without much additional cost, this may lend support to arguments that companies are choosing to disclose indicators that are convenient to them, in order to have the appropriate number of disclosures (Visser, 2011).

The local companies who had SED disclosures all scored on the SPI – health & safety indicator while the foreign companies all scored on the community involvement indicator. The results of the SEDI scores reveal that the companies disclose least information on items related to Society, EPI, Vision & Strategy claims and Social/environmental profiles. The local companies did not have a score on one indicator while foreign companies did not have scores on eight indicators.

Table 7.8 SED frequency scores in local and foreign companies

Scores	Local	%	Foreign	%
0	5	21.74	0	0
1	5	21.74	3	27.27
2	6	26.09	3	27.27
3	1	4.35	0	0
4	1	4.35	3	27.27
5	2	8.69	1	9.09
6	2	8.69	1	9.09
7	1	4.35	0	0
Total	23	100.0	11	100.0

Table 7.8 depicts the frequency of disclosure indicator scores in local and foreign companies' AR. Of the twelve local companies in the sample, five did not have any SED in their AR. Scores of two were the most frequently reported by local companies while scores of one, two and four were most disclosed by foreign companies. The total frequency of disclosure score for local companies was 23 compared to 11 for foreign companies. Belal & Cooper (2011) offered several reasons for an absence of SED in Bangladesh, some of which may be applicable to the low reporting patterns observed in this study. These include the lack of resources, a narrow emphasis on profits, no enforcement by law, poor knowledge or awareness, poor CSR performance and the fear of bad publicity.

Table 7.9 Items of SED not disclosed by any company

Item Number	Item of information
A 1.1	Existence of a department or management positions for addressing firm's social and/or environmental impacts
A 1.2	Existence of a social and/or environmental and/or a public issues committee in the board
A 1.3	Existence of terms and conditions applicable to employees, suppliers and customers regarding firms social and/or environmental practices
A 1.4	Stakeholder involvement in setting corporate social and/or environmental policies
A 1.5	Implementation of ILO/ISO standards at the plant and/or firm level
A 1.6	Executive compensation is linked to social and/or environmental performance
A 2.1	Adoption/acknowledgement of the use of GRI sustainability reporting guidelines
A 2.2	Independent verification/assurance about social and/or environmental information disclosed in the sustainability report
A 2.3	Periodic independent verifications/audits on social and/or environmental performance and/or systems
A 2.4	Certification of social and/or environmental programs by independent agencies
A 2.5	Product certification with respect to safety and impact
A 2.6	External labour and/or environmental performance awards
A 2.7	Stakeholder involvement in the social and/or environmental disclosure process
A 2.8	Participation in voluntary social and/or environmental initiatives endorsed by ILO/Departments of industrial relations/energy in respective country
A 2.9	Participation in industry specific associations/initiatives to improve social and/or environmental practices

Item Number	Item of information
A 2.10	Participation in other labour organisations/ associations to improve social and/or environmental practices
A 3.6	SPI on strategy and management (description of firms policies related to the universal declaration and the fundamental human rights conventions of ILO)
A 3.8	SPI on freedom of association and collective bargaining (firms' policies on acknowledging freedom of association and collective bargaining)
A 3.9	SPI on child labour (policies to exclude the use of child labour directly from firms' internal operations and indirectly from firms' suppliers)
A 3.10	SPI on forced and compulsory labour (policies addressing forced and compulsory labour)
A 3.12	SPI on bribery and corruption (policies and mechanism for organisation and employees in addressing bribery and corruption)
A 3.13	SPI on political contributions (policies, management system and compliance mechanism for managing political lobbying and contributions)
A 3.14	SPI on customer health and safety (policy protecting customer health and safety during the use of firms' products and services)
A 3.15	SPI on products and services (policy, management systems and compliance mechanism for product information and labelling)
A 3.16	SPI on respect for privacy (firms' policies, management systems and compliance mechanism for consumer privacy)
A 3.17	EPI on energy use and/or energy efficiency
A 3.18	EPI on water use and/or water use efficiency
A 3.19	EPI on greenhouse gas emissions
A 3.20	EPI on other air emissions
A 3.21	EPI on Toxic Release Inventory (TRI) (land, water, air)
A 3.22	EPI on other discharges, releases and/or spills (not TRI)
A 3.23	EPI on waste generation and/or management (recycling, re-use, reducing, treatment and disposal)
A 3.25	EPI on environmental impacts of products and services
A 4.1	Summary of dollar savings arising from social/environmental initiatives to the company
A 4.3	Amount spent on technologies, R&D and/or innovations to enhance environment performance and/or efficiency
A 4.4	Amount spent on fines related to social/environmental performance litigation/issues
A 5.3	A statement about formal management systems regarding social and/or environmental risk and performance
A 5.4	A statement that the firm undertakes periodic reviews and evaluations of its social and/or environmental performance
A 5.5	A statement of measurable goals in terms of future social and/or environmental performance
A 5.6	A statement about specific social and/or environmental innovations and improvements
A 7.2	Existence of response plans in case of social and/or environmental incidents
A 7.4	Internal social and/or environmental audits
A 7.5	Internal certification of social and/or environmental programs

Table 7.9 presents 43 SED indicators not disclosed by the sample companies. Hossain et al (2006) found that there were SED which were not disclosed by any of the sample companies in Bangladesh. Most companies ignored the important

indicators under the categories of governance structure and management systems; credibility and social/environmental profile. Inadequate SED may result from weak governmental and societal pressures to report on social and environmental issues (Bhattacharyya, 2008).

7.4.1 Further Analysis

7.4.1.1 Student t-tests

The student t-test was performed to assess whether there were statistical significant differences between the performance of local and foreign companies. The two-sample (independent groups) t-test is used to determine whether the unknown means of two populations are different from each other based on independent samples from each population. If the two-sample means are sufficiently different from each other, then the population means are declared to be different (Elliot & Woodward, 2007). Student t-test is used to compare if two sets of data are significantly different from each other. If the p-value (two-tail) is greater than 0.05, the decision would be that there is no significant difference between the two groups.

Table 7.10 Student t-test results for extent of SED categories

	Employee		Community		HSE		Corp Gov	
	Companies		Companies		Companies		Companies	
	Local	Foreign	Local	Foreign	Local	Foreign	Local	Foreign
Mean	23.78	15.86	28.90	24.37	23.92	10.08	19.97	7.73
Variance	326.77	271.32	680.69	276.17	515.99	32.77	78.44	10.06
df	77		32		31		47	
t Stat	2.26		0.69		3.11		7.17	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.01		0.24		0.00		0.02	
t Critical one-tail	1.66		1.69		1.69		1.67	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.02		0.48		0.00		0.04	
t Critical two-tail	1.99		2.03		2.03		2.01	

Table 7.10 depicts the results of the student t-tests. The p-values for employee, health & safety and corporate governance are 0.02, 0.00 and 0.04 respectively, which are all less than 0.05. This implies that there are statistically significant differences between local and foreign companies in regards to their employee, health & safety and corporate governance disclosures categories. The differences in the community categories at 0.48 are not statistically significant. The findings are consistent with Uwalomwa & Uadiale (2011) who established a statistically significant difference in the level of SED between the Building Material and Brewery Industry in Nigeria. However, they contradict the findings of Oliveira et al (2013) who confirmed that there was no statistically significant difference between Brazilian and French companies with regard to the level of SED.

Table 7.11 Student t-test results for type of SED in local and foreign companies

	Positive SED		Negative SED		Neutral SED	
	Companies		Companies		Companies	
	Local	Foreign	Local	Foreign	Local	Foreign
Mean	9.22	9.02	1	1.12	1.06	1
Variance	80.23	55.82	0	0.12	0.06	0
df	190		7		28	
t Stat	0.18		-1		1.44	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.42		0.17		0.08	
t Critical one-tail	1.65		1.89		1.70	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.01		0.32		0.00	
t Critical two-tail	1.97		2.36		2.04	

Table 7.11 shows the results of the student t-tests for the type of SED in local and foreign companies. The p-values of 0.01 and 0.00 for positive and neutral SED respectively between local and foreign companies suggest the existence of statistically significant differences. This result is consistent with prior research from Australia which reported that SED in companies tend to emphasise information favourable to their corporate image (Deegan & Rankin 1996; Deegan & Gordon 1996). Warsame et al (2002) argued that SED in AR provide companies with one possible method of managing/limiting adverse consequences associated with discrediting events. The significance level of negative SED between local and foreign companies at 0.32 is found not to be statistically different.

Table 7.12 Student t-test results for the nature of SED in local and foreign companies

	Generally SED mentioned		SED activities indicated		Measurable SED provided	
	Companies		Companies		Companies	
	Local	Foreign	Local	Foreign	Local	Foreign
Mean	6.01	3.81	7.29	3.50	21.08	24.74
Variance	37.22	6.56	94.81	6.63	954.68	782.74
df	204		38		94	
t Stat	3.72		1.99		-0.62	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.00		0.02		0.26	
t Critical one-tail	1.65		1.68		1.66	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.00		0.05		0.53	
t Critical two-tail	1.97		2.02		1.98	

Table 7.12 illustrates the results of the student t-tests for the nature of SED in local and foreign companies. Statistical significant differences exists between local and foreign companies in regards to generally SED mentioned and SED activities indicated are 0.00 and 0.05 respectively. However, the p-value of measurable SED provided is 0.53 indicating the non-existence of a statistically significant difference between local and foreign companies. These findings are consistent with Grecco et al (2013) who observed differences in SED between Spanish and Brazilian companies,

emphasising differences in disclosures in the international sphere. This also confirms the findings of Waldman et al (2006) that foreign companies from developed countries are not as focused on social concerns as their counterparts in emerging market countries.

7.4.1.2 Kruskal Wallis Tests

The Kruskal Wallis is a non-parametric statistical test used for comparing more than two samples that are independent, or not related. The Kruskal Wallis test was performed to examine whether local and foreign companies had statistically significantly different levels of SED. If the Kruskal Wallis tests lead to significant results, then at least one of the samples is different from the other (Corder & Foreman, 2009). If the significance level (asyp. Sig.) of the Kruskal Wallis results is less than 0.05, then the conclusion would be that there is a statistically significant difference in the continuous variable across the samples (Pallant, 2005).

Table 7.13 Kruskal Wallis tests

Local and Foreign Companies										
	Empl.	Comm.	HSE	Corp Gov	Positive SED	Negative SED	Neutral SED	SED mentd.	SED indictd.	SED provid.
Chi-Square	0.16	1.00	2.20	1.50	1.07	0.00	1.00	1.45	0.12	1.47
Df	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Asymp. Sig.	0.00	0.31	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.10	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.22

Note: Empl. refers to employee; Comm., community; mentd., mentioned; indictd., indicated and provid., for provided

Table 7.13 shows the Kruskal Wallis tests results for SED in local and foreign companies. The Kruskal Wallis tests give similar findings to the student t-tests results. Local and foreign companies' employee, health & safety and corporate governance categories significance levels are 0.00, 0.01 and 0.00 respectively indicating the existence of statistically significant differences. The significance levels of local and foreign companies for positive and neutral SED are 0.00 and 0.03 respectively. This indicates that there are statistically significant differences between local and foreign companies in regards to their positive and neutral SED. The significance levels for generally SED mentioned and SED activities indicated are both 0.00, suggesting the existence of a statistical significant difference between local and foreign companies. The findings are consistent with those of Khasharmeh & Desoky (2013) who showed results of the Kruskal Wallis test indicated that there were statistically significant differences in SED of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries. Ching et al (2013) also found significance in the differences observed in SED of top Brazilian companies. However, local and foreign companies community SED categories, negative disclosures and measurable SED provided did not exhibit statistically significant differences.

7.4.1.3 Mann Whitney-Wilcoxon Tests

Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted since the Kruskal Wallis test does not identify where and how many differences occur. Mann-Whitney U tests are used to test for differences between two independent groups on a continuous measure (Pallant, 2005). It is based on the comparison of each observation from the first group with observations from the second group (Nachar, 2008). It is one of the most well-known parametric significance tests known for its robustness and its lower likelihood to spuriously indicate significance because of the presence of outliers (Conover, 1980). Mann-Whitney U tests were carried out to determine if there was a significant difference between each of the disclosure types for all SED categories (Lu & Abeysekera, 2013). It was also performed to statistically test whether local and foreign companies report different levels of SED.

The Wilcoxon Signed Rank test is applied for comparing two datasets (of local and foreign companies) and evaluate whether their population means differ (Wilcoxon, 1945). Freedman & Stagliano (2002) used the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test to detect any statistical differences in the SED mean values for two groups. If the value of the asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) is equal or less than 0.05, then the conclusion would be that the difference between the two groups is statistically significant (Pallant, 2005).

Table 7.14 Mann-Whitney U tests

Local and Foreign Companies										
	Empl.	Comm.	HSE	Corp Gov	Positive SED	Negative SED	Neutral SED	SED mentd	SED indictd.	SED provid.
Mann-Whitney U	1.50	1.00	0.00	3.50	5.50	3.50	4.50	3.05	3.50	3.00
Wilcoxon W	4.50	2.00	5.10	3.51	7.15	4.50	5.50	5.85	4.50	9.31
Z	-0.40	0.00	-1.48	-0.23	-0.92	0.00	-0.31	-1.20	-0.35	-1.21
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.02	0.10	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.10	0.10	0.02	0.72	0.22
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	0.66 ^a	0.10 ^a	0.33 ^a	0.80 ^a	0.38 ^a	0.10 ^a	0.90 ^a	0.24 ^a	0.88 ^a	0.40 ^a

^a Not corrected for ties

Table 7.14 illustrates the Mann-Whitney U and Wilcoxon test results for SED in local and foreign companies. Local and foreign companies' employee, health & safety and corporate governance categories significance levels are 0.02, 0.00 and 0.00 respectively indicating the existence of statistically significant differences. The significance level of local and foreign companies for positive SED and generally SED mentioned are 0.03 and 0.02 respectively. This indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between local and foreign companies in regards to their positive SED and generally SED mentioned.

These findings are consistent with those of Aldrugi & Abdo (2012), who indicated that there was a significant difference in the amounts of disclosures between local and foreign companies regarding SED. Abdo & Aldrugi (2012) also found that the

differences in SED amounts between local and foreign oil companies operating in Libya was statistically significant. However, local and foreign companies community SED categories, negative and neutral disclosures; SED activities indicated and provided did not reveal statistical significant differences.

7.4.1.4 ANOVA

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also used to explore differences in the local and foreign companies SED. One-way ANOVA compares any number of groups to determine whether there are significant differences between any two of the groups. If the significance is 0.05 or less, the result is statistically significant. The smaller the significance, the less likely it is that the calculated value of the statistic could have occurred by chance (Tanner, 2012).

Table 7.15 One-way ANOVA for extent, type, nature of SED in local and foreign companies

Local/Foreign companies	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F	Sig.
Employee	13113.46	7	183.14	5.49	0.02
Community	7507.81	8	110.59	0.56	0.45
HSE	5167.46	3	82.11	8.43	0.00
Corp Gov	1248.68	6	41.44	6.88	0.83
Positive SED	12494.40	2	150.43	0.01	0.00
Negative SED	249.23	1	16.43	2.65	0.11
Neutral SED	957.23	1	62.14	0.84	0.36
Generally SED mentioned	11961.50	2	198.07	3.28	0.03
SED activities indicated	242.81	2	26.88	0.85	0.43
Measurable SED provided	3395.50	3	113.18	0.12	0.94

Table 7.15 depicts the one-way ANOVA for the extent, type and nature of SED in local and foreign companies. The significant values between local and foreign companies' employee, health & safety SED categories, positive SED and generally SED mentioned are 0.02, 0.00, 0.00 and 0.03 respectively indicating statistically significant differences. However, community, corporate governance, negative, neutral, SED activities indicated and measurable SED provided for local and foreign companies are 0.45, 0.83, 0.11, 0.36, 0.43 and 0.94 respectively implying a non-statistically significant difference.

Faisal et al (2012) found that the results of ANOVA showed that there was a significant relationship between SED from some of the world's largest companies in 24 diverse countries. Suttipun (2012) established that there were statistically significant differences in SED of Thai companies. Cuesta & Valor (2013) confirmed that differences were not statistically significant of SED by Spanish listed companies.

7.4.1.5 Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was used to test the relationships between local and foreign companies with the following company characteristics: size, age and profitability. Normally, regression analysis is used to: (1) determine whether the independent variables explain a significant variation in the dependent variable; (2) determine how much of the variation in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variables; (3) determine the structure or form of relationship (strength of the relationship); (4) predict the values of the dependent variables; and (5) control for other independent variables when evaluating the contributions of a specific variable or a set of variables (Malhotra, 2002).

Table 7.16 Regression output for local and foreign companies SED, company size, age and profitability

Model summary L(F)					
	R	R Squared	Adjusted R Squared	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
	0.67 (0.97)	0.44 (0.95)	0.11 (0.89)	1.70 (0.60)	2.45 (1.65)
ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	11.76 (17.25)	3 (3)	3.92 (5.75)	1.35 (15.50)	0.35 (0.06)
Residual	14.45 (0.74)	5 (2)	2.89 (0.37)		
Total	26.22 (18.00)	8 (5)			
Coefficients					
	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
Constant	6.19 (0.30)	1.75 (1.18)		3.52 (0.25)	0.01 (0.82)
Size	2.26 (2.32)	0.00 (0.00)	0.15 (1.43)	0.40 (5.54)	0.70 (0.03)
Age	-0.11 (-0.12)	0.07 (0.02)	-0.56 (-1.14)	-1.56 (-4.47)	0.17 (0.04)
Profitability	-1.98 (7.61)	0.00 (0.00)	-0.19 (0.06)	-0.53 (0.36)	0.61 (0.74)

Notes: a. Predictors: (Constant), Size, Age, Profitability b. Dependent Variable: Local/ Foreign companies SED

Results from Table 7.16 indicate that the adjusted R^2 for local companies is 0.11 which shows that 11% of the variations in the total SED quantity are explained by company size, age and profitability. The adjusted R^2 for foreign companies is 0.89 indicating that 89% of the variations in the total SED quantity are explained by the same independent variables.

The F-statistic value for local companies of 1.35 and the related p-value of 0.35 imply that company size, age and profitability are statistically insignificant when measuring the association with total SED quantity. The F-statistic value for foreign

companies of 15.50 and the related p-value of 0.06 suggests that company size, age and profitability are statistically insignificant when measuring the association with total SED quantity. The Durbin-Watson statistic value for local companies is 2.45, indicating possible residual autocorrelation. Durbin-Watson statistic value for foreign companies is 1.65 suggesting there is no residual autocorrelation.

The results reveal that company size, age and profitability of local companies have a statistically non-significant effect on the total SED quantity as their p-values of 0.70, 0.17 and 0.61 respectively are all greater than 0.05. Results disclose that profitability for foreign companies have a statistically non-significant effect on the total SED quantity as its p-value of 0.74 is greater than 0.05. This finding is consistent with the study of Abd Ghaffar et al (2004) who claimed profit is not related to SED. However, company size and age for foreign companies have a statistically significant effect on the total SED quantity as their p-values of 0.03 and 0.04 respectively are less than 0.05. The finding is consistent with Jaffar et al (2007) and Rahman et al (2011) who established that company size had a positive significant relationship with SED. The findings contradict the study by Hamid (2004) who found that SED was significantly affected by age of the company.

7.4.2 Sensitivity Analyses

Several sensitivity analyses were employed to test the robustness of the research findings. Firstly, SED were classified into the average values of disclosure categories sentences of local and foreign companies. Secondly, SED were distinguished into three subcategories according to whether they were positive, negative or neutral disclosures and then comparing their proportions through descriptive analysis. Thirdly, further analysis was conducted in which SED statements were identified by four levels of policy activity. Fourthly, an SED index was utilised to provide a measure of the total disclosures for both local and foreign companies. These sensitivity analyses show general consistency with the overall findings and support the generalisation of such results.

7.5 Discussion

To begin with, the results reveal that local companies provided more SED than foreign companies. For the extent of SED, local companies contributed 69.51% of the disclosures in contrast to 30.49% from foreign companies. SED type for local companies was 69.52% compared to 30.48% for foreign companies. For the nature of SED, local companies provided 67.46% of the disclosures, while 32.54% were from foreign companies. These findings are consistent with Janggu et al (2007) who revealed that Malaysian local companies disclosed more SED compared to foreign companies. Furthermore, Janggu et al (2007) concluded that local companies were more socially responsible than their foreign counterparts because of their closeness to their customer base. The findings contradict Narwal & Singh (2013) who found no major differences in SED between foreign and Indian companies, both of which adhered to the prevailing local practices. Moreover, there was no considerable difference between foreign and selected local companies in Bangladesh (Momin & Hossain, 2011). It was observed that the results of a number of prior studies indicated that foreign companies have a negligible effect on SED practices (Moneva & Llana, 2000; Hossain et al, 2006). This study finding further contradict Chapple & Moon (2005) who established that foreign companies in India, Indonesia, Malaysia,

the Philippines, Singapore, South Korea, and Thailand were more likely to report SED than local companies. It is also possible that foreign companies operating in India will disclose more SED than domestic companies (Pahuja, 2009).

In addition, the results reveal that 95.77% of the total SED in local and foreign companies was positive news. This finding is consistent with Sen et al (2011) who observed that more than 95% of the total SED by Indian companies revealed positive news, while the remaining 5% showed neutral news. Belal (2001) found that disclosures in AR of 30 Bangladesh companies largely emphasised 'positive news'. Ahmad et al (2003) found that approximately 80% of companies in Malaysia made positive news disclosures. Companies want to be seen as being good corporate citizens. Accordingly, most companies indulge in 'positive news' and neutral reporting, choosing only to report on the positive impacts on society and not to disclose negative news (Ahmad et al, 2003). Uwalomwa & Jimoh (2012) indicate that about 57% of selected manufacturing companies in Nigeria concentrated more on positive disclosures rather than negative and neutral news at 18% and 24% respectively.

Moreover, negative news was 1.26% of the total SED in both the local and foreign companies. Consistent with previous findings, both local and foreign companies appear reluctant to provide any information with negative environmental implications of their operations (Deegan & Ranking, 1996). Foreign companies have more to lose when they report negative information and this may lead to a more cautious approach to SED (Dawkins & Ngunjiri, 2008). Kamla (2007) found no evidence of any negative news in AR of 68 companies from nine Arab Middle East countries, with the majority of disclosures being of positive and self-complementary in nature. Sen et al (2011) observed that surprisingly, no negative news was found in the disclosures across a wide range of Indian industries. Ahmad et al (2003) found that only 2% of Malaysia companies had negative news disclosures. Cunningham (2001) demonstrated that companies provide little negative SED even when they have experienced several negative social/environmental events. Such reports could mislead the users regarding the social and environmental performance of companies (Rockness, 1985). These findings emphasise the fact that SED are attempts at improving the image of companies rather than fulfilling stakeholders' information needs.

Furthermore, local companies reported mostly general SED information (45.89%) compared to foreign companies who provided mainly quantitative disclosures (20.18%). Companies will face differential SED pressures in different countries and will have to adjust their disclosure strategy accordingly (Van der Laan Smith et al, 2005). In addition, the operations of foreign companies in more than one country contribute to increased pressure on companies. Therefore, foreign companies may be faced with many challenges when disclosing SED in dissimilar countries because of the variation in the economic conditions and government regulations in those countries where they operate (Tan, 2009).

The results imply that SED is mainly about corporate image building and impression management. The impression conveyed is one of a 'good' corporate citizen and an environmentally friendly company (Mitchell et al, 2006). It is argued that management will not disclose SED when the expected cost exceeds the benefit (Xiao

et al, 2005). The reputational damage a company would face if it had gone out of its way to claim to be following socially responsible practices and was then found to be acting irresponsibly would be greater than if it had not made the claims (Chapple & Moon, 2005). CSR may be underreported in companies that have long regarded their social responsibility as part and parcel of business or that describe certain components of CSR in other ways (Chapple & Moon, 2005).

SED, however, may be used against the disclosing company. For instance, HCs may use disclosed information on the environmental impact of corporate operations to file a lawsuit, which may result in negative monetary implications for the company (Healy & Palepu, 2001). According to Cooper (2003) some companies noticed that instead of the provision of SED enhancing companies' reputation, it actually attracted adverse comments by drawing attention to divergences between the values adopted by the company and its actual behaviour. For example, when companies make mistakes, those with "good" reputations suffer more in the market than those with poor reputations, because stakeholder expectations are higher for successful and larger MNCs (Rhee & Haunschild, 2006). Stakeholders expect that since MNCs size translates into access to more resources, they should acknowledge the impacts of their business practices and take responsibility for them.

The country where the head office of the company is located could give rise to a situation whereby the informative behaviour of the local branch of the company being analysed is related to that of its parent company (Moneva & Llana, 2000). There is evidence that a company's nationality is a key determinant of SED (Saida, 2009). There are differences in the nature of the SED, depending on the company's country of ultimate ownership (Abdo & Aldrugi, 2012; Adams et al, 1995; Guthrie & Parker, 1990). Further, other evidence indicates that the country in which a company reports affects the SED practices of that company (Samantha & Tower, 1999; Guthrie & Parker, 1990). Several studies have attempted to capture this country effect by adopting a comparative framework in examining SED issues (Fekrat et al, 1996; Freedman & Stagliano, 1992; Gamble et al, 1996; Meek et al, 1995). Alternatively, it could be argued that the very nature of internationalisation, by companies of any nationality, leads to an increase in SED. It might be envisaged that as businesses trade in foreign countries, they see the need to establish their reputations as good citizens in the eyes of their new HCs (Chapple & Moon, 2005).

The theory of dialectical materialism is underpinned by the following assumptions: (1) it gives primacy to material conditions in explanation of social factors. Hence it advocates for particular attention to be paid to the economic substructure of society; and (2) it focuses on the relatedness of different elements of society, especially the economic, social and political structures. It is the economic factor which is the most decisive of all the elements of society and largely determines the character of others (Ake, 1981).

In the context of SED in local and foreign companies, a proper understanding and application of dialectical materialism would lead to the following conclusions. First, foreign companies tend to be interested in preserving the existing economic order while local companies have a strong interest in changing it. Foreign companies have dominated oil exploration, drilling and shipping in Nigeria, for example, SPDC controls approximately 60% of the domestic oil market (Belda et al, 2006). This

could explain why local companies disclose more SED so as to strengthen their competitiveness and distinctiveness. They may also believe that SED will give them priority in terms of new contracts for oil exploration in the future (Abdo & Aldrugi, 2012). Second, the predominant existence of positive SED news among all the companies suggests that the companies tend to want to protect their economic interests. The concentration of positive disclosure reflects an attempt to encourage shareholders and the public to believe that the company is in harmony with and is conscious of society and the environment (Mitchell et al, 2006).

Rees (1998) maintains that contradiction (differences) is the only form of explanation of social change. According to Cooper et al (2005), dialectical materialism theory proposes that the SED production aligned to contemporary social struggles would promote the potential to create a more equitable society. The social relations of production are determined by the character of the ownership of the means of production (either local or foreign companies), the role they play and the exchange of activities among them and the distribution pattern of their outputs (Nwekeaku, 2013).

Dialectical materialism interprets the contradictions in the practices and concepts of modern society (Bernstein, 2005). Without contradiction, there is no change: and without change, there is no 'development'; without development, there are no improvements in the welfare of the people (Essien, 2012). Dialectical materialism provides an understanding of the contradictions between the oil companies in Nigeria by providing a perspective on the extent, type and nature of SED. It further assists in identifying reasons that have led to voluntary SED by the oil companies. Key motivating reasons uncovered by previous studies include: a sense of accountability for disclosure (Donaldson & Preston, 1995) and fulfilling community expectations (Deegan, 2002). Wilmshurst & Frost (2000) indicate that community concerns are perceived to be of most important for oil companies' decisions in providing SED.

7.6 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to identify the differences in the extent, type and nature of SED in local and foreign companies and explain the factors causing the differences of disclosure among these companies. According to De Villiers & Alexander (2010), no two companies disclose exactly the same information in the same way. The results demonstrate that SED in local companies are higher than those of foreign companies. It can therefore be concluded that foreign companies might not necessarily be more aware of the SED issues that have attracted the concerns of the public than local ones (Jangu et al, 2007). However, local companies reported mostly general SED information. Positive news was found to be predominant in both local and foreign companies.

Both the level and nature of the SED are largely dependent on the company's country of origin (Moneva & Llena, 2000). In general, the disclosure of the SED depends on the social consciousness of the country the foreign company comes from (Guthrie & Parker, 1990). In addition, Adams & Kuasirikun (2000) showed that SED depends on the social consciousness in the country where a company has settled. Tan (2009) revealed that discrepancies exist in how foreign companies perform CSR in their home countries versus their operations in other countries.

Companies attach more importance to economically dominant stakeholders, such as

shareholders and employees, while ignoring the rights of social stakeholders such as HCs and the natural environment (Belal, 2008). Luan (2005) explained that a company should operate in a more responsible manner and take full account of their business impact on environment, people and community. A company that takes various steps to conserve the environment when making crucial business decisions should report this information to the public. Companies try to enhance their image by displaying good corporate citizen behaviours (Pahuja, 2009).

Chapter 8 CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

This study had three main purposes: (1) to identify the HCs perceptions of SED practices of the oil companies; (2) to examine SED quantity and quality of the Nigerian oil companies; and (3) to distinguish whether there were differences between SED of local and foreign oil companies. This chapter synthesises these objectives while also discussing the main findings. It commences by summarising the results and findings of the three research questions. This is followed by a discussion of the study's contribution to knowledge both in theory and practice. In Section 4 of the chapter, implications and recommendations are discussed. Section 5 highlights the limitations encountered during the research while Section 6 presents suggestions for possible areas of further research.

8.2 Summary of findings

The main purpose of the study was to provide a detailed and concrete analysis of the state of SED of Nigerian oil companies. This was to be achieved through answering three research questions: (1) what are the HCs perceptions of the SED of the oil companies? (2) what is the SED quantity and quality of the oil companies? (3) are there differences between local and foreign oil companies in regards to the SED data divulged to various stakeholders? The study population for the secondary data consisted of all oil companies' registered in Nigeria as at 1st January, 1992. Records obtained from the Department of Petroleum Resources in Lagos indicated that there were 279 oil companies registered. The period of study was from 1st January, 1992 to 31st December, 2011. The host community participants were selected from Ogbunabali community in Port Harcourt (Rivers State), Biogbolo community in Yenagoa (Bayelsa State) and Ogonu community in Warri (Delta State).

A multi-method qualitative research design consisting of data from both primary and secondary sources was used. Primary data was collected through a semi-structured questionnaire administered to members of the various HCs. Secondary data was sourced from company's AR. Additionally, secondary data included newspapers articles which contained accounts of SED press releases from oil companies addressing social and environmental issues. Nine participants were purposively selected from Community Leaders, Church Leaders, Youth Leaders and community residents for indepth discussions. Eighteen oil companies were used as the sample and provided the data for the study. This included fifteen oil companies listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange and three non-listed major foreign companies (Shell, Chevron and Agip), because of the scale of their operations in the Niger Delta (Aaron, 2008).

Based on the data gathered, analysed and interpreted, the findings are summarised as follows.

8.2.1 SED practice

8.2.1.1 HCs perceptions of SED practices of the oil companies

Participants expressed different views regarding their perceptions of the relationship

with oil companies. While others considered the relationship as cordial, some participants declared that it was hostile due to a variety of reasons. Firstly, HCs considered that oil companies had no respect and largely ignored them. According to Ogula (2012), the apparent lack of respect for the customs of the indigenes evoked emotions such as dissatisfaction, frustration, anger and despair among HCs.

In addition, participants felt that the oil companies' staff humiliated members of the HCs wherever they visited the companies' premises. They complained that the oil companies had not done anything for the HCs in regard to providing basic services like water, clinics etc. Participants disclosed that the oil companies had bad public relations and preferred that they leave their communities.

Moreover, water pollution was cited as one of the causes of the negative perceptions towards oil companies since it resulted in the HCs having difficulty in accessing clean drinking water. Many HCs are surrounded by water and yet people have difficulty accessing any clean water to drink. They travel long distances to fetch the so-called good water, which is darkish and smelly (Wali, 2008). According to the HC participants, there is a lot of pollution through oil spills on their land which adversely affects its productivity.

Furthermore, the existence of poverty was mentioned as one of the major reason for the non-cordial relationship with oil companies. Frequent oil spills from the companies leading to water pollution have resulted in devastating effect on agriculture. Continuous pollution from oil exploitation and exploration has made farming and fishing for the HCs futile. According to Davis et al (2006), HCs are plagued by low-incomes, poor health and their means of livelihood (fishing and farming) were heavily affected by the increasing rates of pollution.

Additionally, participants cited the perceived lack of willingness by oil companies to compensate HCs affected by oil spills. For instance, it disguises the fact that in some cases it is the type of compensation that is contested and in others it is the procedure for arriving at the compensation that is at issue. This is keenly contested in cases where sabotage has been alleged, so as to completely avoid or limit the amount of compensation payable. Monetary compensation for spillages is rare and paltry. Oil companies prefer to engage in lengthy litigation, sometimes spanning periods of more than 20 years, rather than compensating HCs for their losses (Kemedi, 2005).

Moreover, high rates of unemployment in the HCs were blamed on oil companies not providing enough employment opportunities to indigenes. Oil companies hired their work forces from outside the HCs to fill their employment roster and did not try to decrease the level of unemployment in the region (Obi, 2001). However, participants revealed that cases of job selling were prevalent in most of the HCs. The major problem is that many of the youths prefer to sell the opportunity to non-indigenes by collecting a fee depending on the type of job and the salary. In some cases they give their jobs to other people and reach agreement with their beneficiary so that they get their own share of the salary every month.

To add on, other participants perceived the relationship with oil companies as being cordial, arguing that they had done a lot for the HCs. These participants felt that by bringing development projects such as the provision of a steady power supply,

maintenance of the roads and compensating the communities whenever possible, the oil companies have supported in uplifting the wellbeing of HCs. The oil companies are willing to support the communities by initiating infrastructural development projects but the HCs demand they be given the money allocated to these projects for their personal consumption. This would explain why the oil companies no longer attempt to provide infrastructure to these communities. Still despite the instability and violence of the HCs, the oil companies nevertheless try to put things in place, for example, piped water, health centres and roads leading to these communities.

8.2.1.2 SED quantity and quality of the oil companies

To begin with, the results reveal that 72.2% of the sample companies provided some form of SED in their AR. This is consistent with the findings of Ebimobowei (2011), Bhattacharyya (2008), Mbekomize & Wally-Dima (2013) and Ismail & Ibrahim (2008) who equally found high percentages of SED in the AR of the companies in their studies. This result demonstrates a positive indication of the development of SED in Nigerian oil companies. This high percentage negates conventional wisdom which suggests that CSR is more relevant to companies operating in developed countries due to elevated community expectations of socially responsible behaviour (Owolabi, 2011).

In addition, in regard to the SED quantity, oil companies make most disclosures on employee related information at 41.7% of the total information reported. Since labour relations and human rights are the most sensitive public issues, companies are more likely to report information about employees in order to retain a high level of reputation. The primary objective of a company is to increase capital accumulation and to do so they need the support of employees, community and the government. These corporate activities are disclosed in AR to indicate that companies are responsible corporate citizens (Abeysekera, 2008). The results of this study confirm the findings of earlier studies by Belal & Lubinin (2009), Das (2013), Deloitte & Van Staden (2011), Hassan (2010), Saleh (2009), Sobhani et al (2009) and Yaftian (2011).

To add on, employee information is reported by 61.1% of the companies. Consistent with these findings are studies by Belal (2001), Ratanajongkol et al (2006) and Yaftian, (2011) who indicated that employee information was reported by the majority of the companies. Perhaps it is unsurprising to find that employee information tends to have the highest SED levels in most companies given that data about the workforce can be easily obtained without much additional cost.

Furthermore, environmental disclosures are overwhelmingly low in terms of quantity and quality. This is surprising given the media focus on the environmental degradation caused by exploration and extraction activities of Nigerian oil companies. Findings from these results are comparable with earlier studies by Beck et al (2010), Déjean & Martinez (2009), Mitchell & Hill (2009), Mitchell et al (2006) and Moneva & Cuellar (2009) who similarly found low levels of environmental information in the AR of companies.

Moreover, of the 5366 total number of SED sentences only 33.4% were considered to be of quality. This finding is consistent with those of Ahmad & Haraf (2013), Elijido-Ten (2011), Uwalomwa & Uadiale (2011) and Wang & Bernell (2013) who

found generally low levels and poor quality of SED and its marginalisation in corporate practices in various developing countries. The explanations for poor disclosure quality could be the flexible and voluntary nature of the SED process and reporting requirements.

Further, results reveal that the highest SED quality is found within community disclosures represented by 42.8% compared to the employee category with 26.7% of the total disclosure. This could be attributed to the fact that companies disclosed their community involvement in a more detailed manner, for example the amount of donations; the number of schools assisted; the number of scholarships awarded and the number of clinics opened.

8.2.1.3 Differences between local and foreign companies in regards to the disclosure of social and environmental data

To begin with, the results reveal that local companies provided more SED than foreign companies. For the extent of SED, local companies contributed 69.51% of the disclosures in contrast to 30.49% from foreign companies. SED type for local companies was 69.52% compared to 30.48% for foreign companies. For the nature of SED, local companies provided 67.46% of the disclosures, while 32.54% were from foreign companies. These findings are consistent with Janggu et al (2007) who revealed that Malaysian local companies disclosed more SED compared to their foreign counterparts.

Moreover, results reveal that 95.77% of the total SED in local and foreign companies was positive news. The results in this study agrees with the findings by Belal (2001), Sen et al (2011) and Uwalomwa & Jimoh (2012) whose studies revealed largely positive SED news. Companies want to be seen as being good corporate citizens. Accordingly, most companies indulge in 'positive news' and neutral reporting where they only report on the positive impacts on society and choose not to disclose negative news (Ahmad et al, 2003).

Furthermore, negative news was 1.26% of the total SED in both the local and foreign companies. Local and foreign companies appear reluctant to provide any information within their AR about any negative environmental implications of their operations (Deegan & Ranking, 1996). These findings emphasise the fact that SED are attempts at improving the image of companies rather than fulfilling stakeholders' information needs. Findings from these results are similar with earlier studies by Ahmad et al (2003), Cunningham (2001), Dawkins & Ngunjiri (2008), Kamla (2007) and Sen et al (2011) who found no evidence of any negative news in AR.

To add on, local companies reported mostly general SED information (45.89%) compared to foreign companies who provided mainly quantitative disclosures (20.18%). Empirical evidence indicates that the country in which a company reports affects the SED practices of that company (Samantha & Tower, 1999; Guthrie & Parker, 1990). The results imply that SED is mainly about corporate image building and impression management. SED, however, may be used against the disclosing company. For instance, the HCs may use disclosed information on the environmental impact of corporate operations to file a lawsuit, which may result in negative monetary implications for the company (Healy & Palepu, 2001).

8.2.2 SED Theories interpretation

From the findings of Chapter 5, alienation is manifested in feelings of powerlessness, normlessness and meaninglessness. Participants repeatedly mentioned indicators of alienation such as poverty, neglect, lack of respect and humiliation of the HCs by the oil companies. As opposed to improving the quality of life in the Niger Delta, oil production has led to a worsening of living standards and lost income as the employment lost from the dwindling agriculture sector was not replaced with employment in another industry. The alienation combined with the divide and rule strategy of the oil companies is a major developmental challenge (Section 5.4).

From the results of Chapter 6, it is revealed that regarding PET, companies present a socially responsible image through disclosing social responsibility information so that they can legitimise their behaviours to their stakeholder groups and influence the external perception of reputation. Results suggest that a bourgeois PET (by combining stakeholder and legitimacy theories) may provide an explanatory basis for the provision of SED by the oil companies. PET is supported by the mixture of Nigerian socio-political, cultural and economic context which assists explain SED practices (Section 6.6).

From the outcomes of Chapter 7, dialectical materialism theory provides an understanding of the contradictions between the oil companies' perspectives on the extent of SED. Dialectical materialism gives primacy to material conditions in the explanation of social outcomes. Foreign companies tend to be interested in preserving the existing economic order because of their dominance of the oil industry while the local companies have a strong interest in changing it. It further assists in identifying reasons that have led to voluntary SED by the oil companies (Section 7.5).

8.3 Contributions to knowledge

This research study makes several theoretical and practical contributions to SED literature in general and especially to understanding its use in developing countries. Although in recent years SED has been considered as an increasingly global activity, it has a greater presence in developed than in developing countries. Developing countries exhibit different economic, political and social characteristics from developed countries. However, limited SED research has been conducted in developing countries. Country specific studies can provide useful and detailed insights. Studies of this kind are important in understanding specific country settings as it is not possible to generalise the findings from one country to another specially if the countries are of different cultures and at different stages of economic development (Elijido-Ten, 2004).

8.3.1 Contribution to theory

The theoretical framework in Chapter 3 outlined the theories used to explain SED in this study. Miller & Bahnson (2010) explained that the purpose of accounting theories was to ensure better accounting practice. The choice of a particular theoretical framework to explain SED practices depends upon the understanding of the researcher (Deegan & Unerman, 2006). Most prior research investigated the phenomenon of SED practices from a stakeholder, legitimacy or institutional theory perspectives. The distinctive contribution of this study is the application and

operationalisation of alienation and dialectical materialism theories in explaining SED practices in the Nigerian context.

Alienation theory highlights the fact that there is a dissociative state or a sense of separation in relation to some other element in the environment. Alienation entails a social-economic condition whereby “resource wealth” is separated from their real owners and is transferred from one class to another. Alienation theory was examined from the viewpoint of HCs perceptions on the segmentation of the interconnected elements in society; and given the increasing evidence of societal, environmental degradation and alienation as a direct consequence of corporate success of which disclosures are intended to suppress. The study advances alienation theory by exploring its applications in the real world.

Dialectical materialism theory advocates for particular attention to be paid to the economic substructure of society. It focuses on the relatedness of different elements of society, especially economic, social and political structures. The economic factor is the most decisive of all the elements of society and largely determines the character of others. The predominant existence of positive SED news among all the companies suggests that the companies tend to want to protect their economic interests. This study highlighted that according to dialectical materialism theory, SED production is aligned to social struggles and that disclosures could promote the potential to create a more equitable society.

The contribution of this study is not only restricted to the Nigerian context, but it also contributes to the wider field of SED research. The results of this study can be used to understand the extent of importance of SED practices in Nigeria. This contribution allows a comparison between developing and developed countries in SED research. In addition, the findings are applicable to both developing and developed countries. This study therefore contributes to the limited SED research conducted in developing countries in general and particularly within African countries.

8.3.2 Contribution to practice

Nigeria was chosen in this study for two reasons. Firstly, Nigeria (like many other developing countries), has no mandatory SED requirements. Secondly, in recent years there have been many documented cases of continuous environmental degradation and pollution caused by the exploration and extraction activities of the oil companies. The findings from this study could provide insights both to the SED providers and users in order to strategise on how to move forward. This study further provides a basis for comparison with studies conducted in other developing countries as well as the numerous studies conducted in developed countries.

The study provides one of the most comprehensive longitudinal examinations of SED practices among Nigerian companies. The 20 year longitudinal period of the study increased the validity of the conclusions. The possession of 20 years of data minimised the possibility of inaccuracies. The study contributes to the understanding of companies’ responses to the demands and changes in the SED since the beginning of the 1990s. It is possible to draw the conclusion that local and foreign companies within the oil industry exhibit differences on SED practices precisely because of the long historical period of the study. A lower number of observations (that is, fewer years) would have reduced the confidence of the findings (Campbell, 2002).

As far as it can be established, this research is the most extensive investigation into Nigerian SED practices, adding significantly to the growing literature on developing countries, particularly emphasising the triangulation of disclosure practices. It combines both qualitative and quantitative methodologies by making use of interviews in addition to the content analysis of AR.

As far as the researcher is aware, this study contributes to the body of existing literature by being the first to attempt a comparative analysis between the local and foreign oil companies SED practices in Nigeria. The impact of the existing differences as a result of differing SED practices should be recognised. The main contribution of this study lies in identifying the factors that have led to diversity and uniqueness in SED between local and foreign oil companies.

The study made use of semi-structured interviews to examine HCs perceptions of SED practices. This was achieved by adopting the qualitative research approach of face-to-face semi-structured interviews as the data collecting method. O'Dwyer (2002) has contended that this research method is better than using only secondary data gathered by content analysis, which has been widely used in many previous studies. The study relates the results of the content analysis to the views of HCs by seeking their perceptions of SED practices. An understanding of SED allows diverse stakeholders such as HCs to become more engaged with issues affecting them. They become more cooperative and willing to collaborate with companies to reach solutions on contentious issues (Othman & Ameer, 2009).

Another contribution of the study that extends SED research is by focusing on social disclosures such as employee, community and health & safety related disclosures. The study assesses SED quantity and quality in terms of five different disclosure categories. The frequency, content and amount of disclosure found in AR are associated with the importance companies place on social disclosures. The study provides descriptive material on the quantity and quality of social disclosures in AR. The information collected in this study demonstrates that the majority of Nigerian oil companies are disclosing mostly employee related information in their AR. From this study, most companies can improve their SED practices relating to employee information in AR equally in the quantity and quality of the information provided (Zunker, 2011).

Most prior SED studies using indices have usually focussed on either SDI or EDI, never both in one study. The study contributes to the literature by extending the works of Clarkson et al (2008) and Sutantoputra (2009) who developed an EDI and SDI respectively by combining both these two indices into one SEDI. The SEDI in itself is a contribution to research as it provides a measure of disclosure quality in relation to SED.

8.4 Implications and Recommendations

Companies disclose SED in their AR to influence the allocation of capital, create and maintain their image by influencing employees, customers and other groups in society. This section provides the implications and recommendations for future disclosure practices.

8.4.1 Implications of research findings

The findings indicate that environmental disclosures are overwhelmingly low in terms of both quantity and quality. In addition, the quality of SED sentences was considered to be low. Moreover, results reveal that the majority of SED in local and foreign companies were positive news. Furthermore, SED negative news in both the local and foreign companies was minimal. The implication of the above findings suggests that if SED in the AR is left as a voluntary practice as it is currently, it is unlikely that the independence of the information will improve.

Further, the results reveal that the majority of the companies provided some form of SED in their AR with local companies providing more disclosures than foreign companies. One possibility is that these companies might believe that, by making SED, it would enable them to introduce themselves as a socially responsible company (Elmogla, 2009). Freedman & Stagliano (1992) argued that disclosing information about social activities is not a single motivation by itself and the decision to disclose SED is a function of the attitude of top management towards its stakeholders. Ernst & Ernst (1978) argued that the “quantification of a disclosure improves its quality by specifying the amount of effort a company expends in a particular area of social responsibility”. The other reason for disclosing SED in the oil companies’ AR might be that these companies just follow others who are working in the same environment.

Rather than develop forms of SED which provide a more balanced account of the full cost of business activities in social and environmental terms, developments to date have simply resulted in sophisticated forms of public relations half-truths (Hibbit, 2003). The main observations of this study indicate the scarcity of standards and guidelines, along with the lack of expertise, qualification and training of managers in the field of SED. Academics in the accounting field can affect SED practices in a country since they can enter into dialogue with practitioners and concerned officials (Ahmad, 2004).

In regard to the SED quantity, oil companies make most disclosures on employee related information. The implication of this finding is that social issues such as unemployment and job creation are regarded as important by the public in a developing country who might have limited awareness of other environmental issues. Companies are more likely to report information on employee and labour relations in order to retain a high level of reputation since unemployment and job creation are perhaps the most sensitive issues in developing countries. This implies that economic activities that add value to companies are important factors for voluntarily disclosing SED.

Oil companies may be inspired by this study to disclose more SED aspects in their AR and to improve the quality of their disclosures. The findings will serve as a benchmark of current SED practices and may motivate companies to consider better quality reports as they become aware of the areas which they can report on, the nature and type of disclosures. Investors may find this study useful as it provides analysis of the relationship between HCs and SED practices which might enhance the long term sustainability of their investments.

8.4.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following recommendations may be useful to the companies, stakeholders, investors and the regulatory bodies.

All companies in Nigeria should make efforts to provide SED in their AR. They can present SED in a separate section of the AR that is easy to understand for both internal and external stakeholders. The accounting programs of Nigerian Universities should be adapted to include the social and environmental role in accounting. SED should be included in accounting education as a part of accounting and disclosure practices.

Relying on voluntary SED is unlikely to result in increased levels of quantity and quality of disclosure. Since voluntary SED comprehensiveness, comparability and credibility are difficult to measure, some form of regulatory intervention on the part of the Nigerian government is recommended. The government and other regulatory authorities should take necessary steps by compelling companies to address social and environmental issues in their AR (Ullah et al, 2014). The Nigerian Stock Exchange should take the initiative to encourage all listed companies to adopt SED in their AR.

This study recommends for more concerted efforts by the government to encourage companies to embrace social and environmentally responsible practices in order to guarantee a conflict free atmosphere in HCs. Efforts should be put in place by companies in order to gain maximum support of the HCs.

To improve disclosure practices, there should be an adaptation of SED standards providing guidance to Nigerian companies which are relevant to the country's economic, social and political circumstances. Furthermore, the study recommends setting up of guiding principles and accounting standards by FRCN in conjunction with the ICAN and the ANAN in order to improve the SED of listed and unlisted companies.

In developing countries, companies have not yet fully utilised the Internet as a communication tool and a medium for the dissemination of SED practices. There is great potential in making disclosures more available and accessible to user's through the Internet. The website has been used by companies to disclose SED because of their interactivity and broad coverage (Marston & Polei, 2004; Matherly & Burton, 2005). The website not only provides a more cost effective way for disclosing SED, it also provides more space and format flexibility (for example hyperlinks, sounds or videos) than hard copy reports (Debreceeny et al, 2002).

Looking forward, with the increased availability of information about corporate activities, decision-making and its impact on society and environment will be open to further scrutiny with the global push for CSR. The concept of CSR is predicated on the notions of transparency and accountability (Van der Laan, 2009). SED have also moved toward the external assurance of reports. Third party assurance can be defined as "a process in which a practitioner expresses a conclusion that intended users can have about the evaluation or measurement of a subject matter that is the responsibility of a party, other than the intended users or the practitioner, against criteria" (Brorson & Park, 2005). Externally verified reports are generally considered

to be of higher quality and more reliable. As a result, both companies and stakeholders alike are interested in third-party assurance. In 2002, 13% of the top 250 from Fortune's Global 500 companies published third-party assured SED (Brorson, & Park, 2005). Since that time, the rate of third-party assured SED has increased slowly; nevertheless, independent assurance remains a valuable part of reporting today. More recently researchers have begun to consider what factors may be driving companies to disclose social and environmental information (Tilling, 2004).

8.5 Limitations of the study

The first limitation regards the small number of respondents selected from the HCs. The sample of the interviewees was constrained by their availability and accessibility, which might have injected some bias (Hanafi & Gray, 2005). However, gathering an in-depth and richer description of events was of more interest for this study. The respondents (Leaders) from the HCs proved to be resourceful in this regard. Given the difficulty of conducting interviews, the above limitations were inevitable. Belal (2001) and Hanafi (2006) reported similar difficulty in collecting primary data. In addition to the above limitations, there were constraints of cultural limitations since the study was conducted in a foreign country, working under a difficult set of circumstances. It was necessary for the researcher to quickly learn "Brokin" (Nigerian Pidgin).

Measurement of SED was focused on AR, without consideration of other disclosure media such as stand-alone reports and corporate websites. The use of the AR as the sole disclosure medium of SED has been criticised for ignoring other disclosure instruments that a company may use to communicate to users (Unerman, 2000). Furthermore, only a small proportion of a company's total SED might be captured exclusively through the AR (Unerman, 2000). Prior research revealed that companies with negative news tend to disclose that information earlier through their interim reports (Skinner, 1994). Therefore, AR could omit information that is redundant, having already been disclosed through more timely information channels such as half yearly reports and other continuous disclosure methods (Zunker, 2011). Cho et al (2010) found that, in the process of providing SED, companies use biased language, concealment and attribution in order to present a more favourable depiction of their performance. As a result, corporate websites have been used as a means of positive representation for companies with poor environmental performance (Cho & Roberts, 2010). Similarly, De Villiers & Van Staden (2011) reported that companies disclose more information in the AR when they have an adverse environmental reputation, but disclose more information on corporate websites when there is an environmental crisis.

SED were assumed by the study to be voluntary for the companies and they may choose not to disclose any information in AR since there are no regulations or disclosure guidelines in Nigeria to be followed. Previous research examining voluntary SED questioned the reliability (Berthelot et al, 2003), objectivity (Deegan & Gordon, 1996), credibility (Deegan & Rankin, 1996) and usefulness to users (Hughes et al, 2001) of those disclosures.

SED data were analysed through content analysis. There are several limitations to the use of content analysis (Unerman, 2000): (1) is the notion that content analysis captures the quantity of disclosure (in terms of frequency and volume of disclosure)

rather than the quality characteristics (Zunker, 2011); (2) quantifying disclosures do not reveal motives or underlying reasons for the observed patterns (Suttipun & Stanton, 2012); and (3) there is an element of subjectivity involved in determining what constitutes a particular type of disclosure (Guthrie & Abeysekera, 2006). Therefore, subjectivity of judgments would be an inherent limitation for this type of research. However, this study overcame these issues through a combined method of collecting data through AR and interviews.

One of the prim challenges for research in this area is access to data. The type of data used in this study is often easy to acquire in developed countries than in developing countries. The data collected for this study are based on one country which controls diversity but limits the generalizability of the findings. The study is limited by the sample which includes mainly quoted companies as they are believed to make improved disclosures because of their investor orientation and statutory obligations. Therefore, any findings for using these particular HCs and oil companies' perspectives might be limited to these specific samples and no claims can be made for their generalizability.

8.6 Suggestions for future research

Due to the lack of research into SED practices in the developing countries in general and particularly in Africa, there are many potential possibilities for future research.

First, future research could investigate SED practices using other disclosure media such as stand-alone reports and/or corporate websites. Access to SED is now more easily gained than in the past, with all companies providing this information via their websites. Such a change in accessibility to information by the general public, or any interested party, most likely explains why the use of the AR for SED is diminishing as more companies produce separate stand-alone reports and websites (Tilt, 2001). Research that investigates the impact of various forms of media on SED would also be a contribution to the literature (Deegan et al, 2002).

The study could be extended to include generally all companies and other countries. Management in different countries approach SED in many different ways. Extending the research to other countries would provide an opportunity to explain possible differences in SED motivations in different parts of the world. Future studies could investigate SED practices of one or more foreign companies across a number of developing countries.

This study examined those companies which had adopted SED practices. To gain a better and fuller understanding of such practices, future research could examine companies that are not disclosing SED. This way, the views of companies not providing disclosures could offer a richer and deeper understanding of the development of SED. An interesting extension of this study could be to use companies which are unlisted and possibly compare them with listed companies SED practices.

SED categories could be expanded or examined individually in future research. For example, the community disclosure category could be analysed independently to determine its impact on SED practices. In this study, primary data was collected from HCs members. Gathering data from other stakeholders such as NGOs, consumers,

investors and creditors may give a deeper understanding of SED practices. Another approach would be to extend this study by examining the perceptions of relevant government officials towards SED in developing countries.

The study used independent variables of company size, age and profitability to assess their impact on Nigerian oil companies SED practices. Therefore, future studies might be able to consider other independent variables such as industry type, country of origin, liquidity, leverage or risk, subsidiaries of MNCs, audit firm, media exposure, creditors' influence, corporate governance variables (duality, independent directors, and audit committees), economic performance, ownership structure and identity.

While the study has focused on measuring voluntary SED, of importance would be future studies on the assurance process including the mechanism of the process, the qualifications of auditors and the characteristics of the audit committee necessary for undertaking such auditing. The practice of assurance statement in SED serves as a communication mechanism and enhances the clarity and reliability of the statements (Deegan et al, 2006). CPA Australia (2004) in a study of worldwide SED assurance statements noted differing objectives, scope and a tendency not to disclose reporting criteria or standards used.

This study was a longitudinal research based over a 20 year period. A similar study could be conducted as a latitudinal (cross-sectional) research over a single point in time, for example by examining SED of the similar companies during one year. This will allow the comparison of many different variables at the same time. Alternatively, future research could adopt a case-study approach, by undertaking an investigation of SED practices within a single company, to gain a richer understanding of why and how companies disclose SED. Another research avenue could include comparing the disclosures on individual companies' SED practices with companies in other industries.

8.7 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed findings of the study's main research issues, which were: (1) HCs perceptions of SED practices of Nigerian oil companies; (2) the quantity and quality of disclosures; and (3) differences between local and foreign oil companies in regards to the disclosure of social and environmental data. The use of time series data enables shifts in SED practices to be identified. It contributes to the understanding of companies' responses to the changes in the SED practices since the beginning of the 1990s. This chapter summarises the findings of the study and the interpretation of the results while highlighting the major theoretical and practical contributions.

Companies disclose SED to enhance their image, promote customer and community relations. It is concluded that it is unlikely that SED can develop voluntarily without the intervention of the government with more enforceable laws in Nigeria. The chapter also discussed the potential implications of the findings for promoting disclosures and suggested some recommendations for future SED development. The chapter concludes with discussion of the study's limitations along with possible suggestions for future research. Despite the limitations, it is believed that this study addresses its objectives and fills a gap in the literature by making a contribution to knowledge in the field of SED.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Registered oil companies in Nigeria as at 1st January, 1992

1. Abacan	36. Baywood Continental Ltd
2. ABB Soimi Nigeria Ltd	37. B+B Gas & Oil Services Nigeria Ltd
3. Addax Oil Nigeria Ltd	38. Baseline Petrol & Chemical Nigeria Ltd
4. Adm Petroleum	39. Beco Petroleum Products Plc.*
5. Acorn Petroleum Plc.	40. Bell Oil & Gas Ltd
6. Africa Oilfield Service Ltd	41. Bint and Prathel Ltd
7. African Petroleum Plc. (AP)	42. BG Exploration and Production Nigeria Ltd
8. Afren Energy Resources	43. Brass Exploration
9. Afroil Plc.*	44. Bolton Nigeria Ltd
10. Agigaf Oil Ventures	45. Bongusto Nigeria Ltd
11. Agip Oil Company (Nigeria) Ltd**	46. Brian Munro Ltd
12. Akoja Oil & Gas Nigeria Ltd	47. Britford (Nig) Ltd
13. A Jolad Petroleum	48. Britannia-U Nigeria Ltd
14. Alfred James Petroleum	49. Bua Oil Mill Ltd
15. Allied Energy Resources (Nigeria)	50. Bulwark Svcs Ltd
16. Aloy Oil & Gas Ltd	51. Bureau Veritasnig Ltd
17. Amalgamated Oil	52. Busador & Co Ltd
18. Amec Oil and Gas Ltd	53. Cakasa Nigeria Company Ltd
19. Amni International Petroleum Dev. Co. Ltd	54. Calin Sweden Nigeria International
20. Amoco Corporation	55. Camac (Allied Energy Resources) Nigeria
21. Anino International Plc. *	56. Canadian Petroleum Ltd
22. Ascon Oil Company Ltd	57. Capital Oil & Gas Ltd*
23. Ash-Bert Limited	58. Cavendish Petroleum Nigeria Ltd
24. Atlantic Meridean Company Ltd	59. Central Oil Engineering Company Ltd
25. Atlantic Mediterranean Oil Services Ltd	60. CGG Veritas
26. Atlas Oranto Petroleum Oil	61. Chevron Nigeria Ltd**
27. Atlas Petroleum Limited	62. Chrome Oil Services Ltd
28. Aquitane	63. Cillaza International Nigeria Ltd
29. Ariboil Company Limited	64. Ciscon
30. Arkleen Oil & Gas Ltd	65. Clio Comm Ltd
31. Austin Sherif Ltd	66. Compagne General De Geophysique Nigeria Ltd
32. AYT Nigeria Ltd	67. Compass Oil & Gas Services Ltd
33. A-Z Petroleum Products Ltd	68. Conoil Plc.*
34. Baker Hughes Nigeria Ltd	69. Conoco Energy Nigeria Ltd
35. Bamod Oil Nigeria Ltd	70. Conoco Phillips Oil Company Nigeria Ltd

71. Conzicu Nigeria Ltd	114. Falck Prime Atlantic
72. Coplus Nigeria Ltd	115. Famfa Oil
73. Cotsgas H. A. P. Nigeria Ltd	116. Felpet Nigeria Ltd
74. Cs Total Gastroil Nigeria Ltd	117. Flame Petroleum & Gas Company Ltd
75. Daewoo Nigeria Ltd	118. Fomon Petroleum & Gas Nigeria Ltd
76. Dan Oil and Petrochemicals Ltd	119. Forte Oil Plc.*
77. Damagix Nigeria Ltd	120. Fugard Group of Companies
78. Dambusey Nigeria Ltd	121. Fugro Nigeria Ltd
79. Dansaki Petroleum Ltd	122. General Oil (Nigeria)
80. Darlivan Ventures Ltd	123. G. Eurafic Ltd
81. Delsolve Nigeria Ltd	124. Global Energy Group Ltd
82. Des Petroleum & Allied Chemicals Ltd	125. Global Offshore Drilling Ltd
83. Dettle Nigeria Ltd	126. Golden Oil & Extraction Company Ltd
84. Dezern Nigeria Ltd	127. Grammer Petroserv Nigeria Ltd
85. D & G Petroleum & Gas Ltd	128. Haliburton Energy Services Nigeria Ltd
86. Domade Ventures Nigeria Ltd	129. Hardy Oil & Gas Plc.
87. Domart Group of Companies	130. Henchoko Ventures
88. Don-Wei Oil and Gas Company Ltd	131. Honeywell Oil & Gas
89. Dowel Nigeria Ltd	132. Hydrocarbon Services of Nigeria (Hyson)
90. Dozy Oil and Gas Ltd	133. Kaduna Refinery & Petrochemicals (KRPC)
91. Dredging International Services Nigeria Ltd	134. Kasolute Nigeria Ltd
92. Drillog Petro-Dynamics Ltd	135. Ibafo Oil Ltd
93. Dubri Oil Company Ltd	136. Iges Ltd
94. Dupoint Nigeria Ltd	137. Ikart International Services
95. Eleme Petrochemical (EPCL)	138. Index Petrolube Africa Ltd
96. Elf Petroleum Nigeria Ltd	139. Intertec Nigeria Ltd
97. Emeraude Nigeria Ltd	140. Invensys
98. Energo Nigeria Ltd	141. Japaul Oil & Maritime Services Plc.*
99. Energy Trading & Transport Company Ltd	142. Jenew Nigeria Ltd
100. Enasco Drilling Company (Nigeria) Ltd	143. Keedac Nigeria Ltd
101. Equator Exploration Nigeria Ltd	144. Kengrin Nigeria Ltd
102. Esco Exploration & Production Nigeria Ltd	145. Knights Bridge Ltd
103. Eskay Petroleum Ltd	146. Ladol
104. Esso Exploration & Production Nigeria Ltd	147. La-Mond Ltd
105. Eterna Oil & Gas Plc.*	148. Lamont Oil and Chemical Nigeria Ltd
106. Etugo Oil International Ltd	149. Life Gate Oil & Gas Ltd
107. Exterran Nigeria Energy Services Ltd	150. Maa Oil & Gas Nigeria Ltd
108. Express Petroleum Product	151. Mabon Ltd
109. Express Petroleum & Gas Company Ltd	152. Manath Oil & Gas
110. Expro	153. Marca International Ltd
111. ExxonMobil	154. Marine and Oil Services (Nigeria) Ltd
112. Fabrico Oil & Gas Ltd	155. Mcdemott Nigeria Ltd
113. Ff-40 Petroleum and Gas Company Ltd	156. Melvon

157. Midlantic International	200. Pabe Oil & Gas Nigeria Ltd
158. M-I Drilling Fluids Nigeria Ltd	201. Pan Ocean Oil Corporation Nigeria Ltd
159. Millan Oil and Gas Ltd	202. Peak Petroleum Limited
160. Millenium Oil & Gas Company (MOGCL)	203. Pere Roberto Nigeria Ltd
161. MI Swaco	204. Petrobras
162. Mobil Oil Nigeria Ltd *	205. Petroleo Brasileiro Nigeria
163. Monbel Oil & Gas Ltd	206. Petroleum Training Investment
164. Moni Pulo	207. Petrolog Limited
165. Movido Exploration & Production Nigeria Ltd	208. Pgs Exploration Nigeria Ltd
166. MRS Oil Nigeria Ltd *	209. Phillips Oil Company (Nigeria)
167. Nacoil International Ltd	210. Pipelines & Products Marketing (PPMC)
168. National Oil and Gas Chemical Marketing Plc.	211. Platform Petroleum Ltd
169. Negril Ltd	212. Polar-Ice Oil and Gas Ltd
170. Nestoil Ltd	213. Port Harcourt Refining (PHRC)
171. Network Petroleum Company Ltd	214. Profload (Svcs) Limited
172. Nexen Petroleum Nigeria Inc.	215. Rahamaniyya Oil & Gas
173. Niger Delta Drilling Fund Plc.	216. Rak Unity Petroluem Company Plc.*
174. Nigeocon International Ltd	217. Roxar
175. Niger Offshore Nigeria Ltd	218. Sadiq Petroleum Nigeria (SPNL)
176. Nigeria LNG Ltd (NLNG)	219. Sahara Group
177. Nigeria Oil Resources Company Ltd	220. Saipem Nigeria Ltd
178. Nigerian Agip Oil Company Ltd	221. SBM Marina Services
179. Nigerian Agip Exploration Ltd	222. Schlumberger Oil Services Group
180. Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation	223. Sea Pet Gas Company Ltd
181. Nigerian Petroleum Development Company Ltd	224. Sealand Oilfield Services Ltd
182. Nimadek Ltd	225. Shell Petroleum Dev. Co. of Nigeria Ltd**
183. NIPCO Plc.	226. Shell Nigeria Exploration & Production Company
184. NISSCO	227. Shora Oil and Gas (Downstream)
185. Nitro Atlasco Nigeria Ltd	228. Socotherm Group
186. Noble Drilling Nigeria Ltd	229. Sodexho Nigeria Ltd
187. Noreast Petroleum	230. Sogenal Ltd
188. North-East Petroleum	231. Solgas Petroleum Ltd
189. Nossien Petroleum and Gas Nigeria Ltd	232. Sono Nigeria Ltd
190. Oando Nigeria Plc.*	233. South Atlantic Petroleum Ltd (SAPETRO)
191. Ocean & Oil Holdings	234. Southwest Oil & Gas Ltd
192. Oil & Services Ltd	235. Sowsco
193. Oilserv Ltd	236. Star Deep Water Petroleum
194. Oilworld	237. Star Oil Field Services
195. Optimum Petroleum Development Company	238. Statoil Nigeria Ltd
196. Oracle Nigeria	239. Sudelettra Nigeria Ltd
197. Oriental Energy Resources	240. Summit Oil International Ltd
198. Outturn Oil & Gas Ltd	241. Sunlink Petroleum Ltd
199. O Vika Group Ltd	242. Survicom

243. Syntroleum Nigeria	262. Vetco Aibel Nigeria Ltd
244. Technip	263. Virgo288 Nigeria Ltd
245. Teco Ltd	264. Vita-Act Oil and Chemical Marketing Co. Ltd
246. Tecon Oil Services Ltd	265. VRMT International Nigeria Ltd
247. Tegmic Nigeria Ltd	266. Wallhouse (W.A) Ltd
248. The Ibeto Group	267. Warri Refining & Petrochemicals (WRPC)
249. Texaco Nigeria Plc.	268. Wascap Petroleum Ltd
250. Titanium Oil & Energy Ltd	269. Wasco Oil Services Company Nigeria Ltd
251. Total Nigeria Plc.*	270. Weafri
252. Total E and P Nigeria Ltd	271. West Africa Offshore Ltd
253. Total Upstream Nigeria Ltd	272. Western Atlas Logging Services
254. Tricontinental Oil Services Ltd	273. Western Geophysical (Western Atlas Nigeria Ltd)
255. Tropical Petroleum Products Plc.*	274. Wilbros Nigeria Ltd
256. Tropical Services Nigeria Ltd	275. Wilson George Ltd
257. Typha Cenia Ltd	276. WOG Allied Services Nigeria Ltd
258. Udokanma Oil	277. Yinka Folawiyo Petroleum Ltd
259. Union Ventures and Petroleum Plc.* (changed name to Navitus Energy Plc. on 17/1/14)	278. Zenon Petroleum & Gas
260. Uturu Oil Nigeria Ltd	279. Zukus Industries Ltd
261. Veracity Venture Ltd	

Those with* are listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange. Those with** are not listed.
(Source: Archival records of the Department of Petroleum Resources, Lagos, 1992)

Appendix 2: Interview guide

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is designed to examine the quantity and quality of social and environmental reporting of Nigerian oil companies'. This study is being undertaken in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of a Ph.D. degree. All the data supplied shall be used solely for the purpose of this study and will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Please complete the questionnaire as honestly as you can.

Yours sincerely,

Odhiambo Odera

PART ONE: Personal Data

- Sex:
- Marital Status
- Age
- Residence: Warri Yenagoa Port Harcourt
- How long have you lived in this community?
- Educational Level
- Community position: Church Leader Community Leader
Youth Leader Community Resident

PART TWO:

- Have you heard about the concept of social and environmental reporting? If yes, what does it mean?
- Is social and environmental reporting necessary for Nigerian oil companies?
- What would you say are the most important social and environmental issues or problems affecting your community?
- Which type of support does the community receive from oil companies to solve these problems?
- To what extent are you satisfied with what the oil companies have done or are doing to solve these problems?

- How do the oil companies involve the host communities before initiating their social and environmental projects?
- Please mention some of the benefits and/or detriments that the oil companies have contributed to this community.
- Do you agree that the oil companies have responded to the environmental impacts of their operational activities in your community?
- Do you think the oil companies are conducting their operations in a more equitable and sustainable manner both socially and environmentally?
- What would you say are the most important things the oil companies' could do to protect or improve the society and environment in your community over the next few years?
- What kind of social and environmental reporting practices do you expect the Nigerian oil companies to adopt for you to continue providing support to them?
- In your opinion, what should be the main priorities to be pursued by Nigerian oil companies regarding social and environmental reporting at the moment?
- Please make any other comments which you feel might be helpful

Appendix 3: Participant Information Sheet



University of Southern Queensland

The University of Southern Queensland Participant Information Sheet

TO: *Participants*

Full Project Title: Examination of social and environmental disclosures in Nigerian oil companies

Student Researcher: Odhiambo Odera

I am Odhiambo Odera, a PhD student in the Faculty of Business and Law/School of Accounting, Economics and Finance, University of Southern Queensland, Australia. My research project is about examining social and environmental reporting of Nigerian oil companies. I would like to invite you to take part in this research project.

You are invited to participate in this research project because your region has experienced the environmental degradation/pollution and neglect by the oil companies. You have been specifically selected to state your opinions on the social and environmental reporting of the oil companies operating within your community. You must be at least 18 years old to participate in this research.

Please read this Participant Information Sheet carefully. Its purpose is to explain to you as openly and clearly as possible all the procedures involved so that you can make a fully informed decision as to whether you are going to participate. Feel free to ask questions about any information in the document. You may also wish to discuss the project with a relative, friend or members of your family.

Once you understand what the project is about and if you agree to take part in it, it is asked that you sign the Consent Form. By signing the Consent Form, you will be indicating that you understand the information and that you give your consent to participate in the research project.

1. Purpose of Research

This study seeks to look at the amount and quality of social and environmental reporting of the oil companies operating within your community. It will evaluate the communities opinion on social and environmental reporting of the oil companies. The research further seeks to provide information on what social and environmental reporting the Nigerian oil companies have made to satisfy the communities. The research also seeks to look at how these community opinions affect the amount and quality of the social and environmental reporting of the oil companies. The study will also establish the differences between local and foreign companies in regards to their reporting of social and environmental information. The researcher of this study is expected to receive a PhD degree as a part of this research.

Procedures

Participation in this project will involve:

- Face-to-face interview: participants will be interviewed only once and the expected time for the completion of each interview is between 30 to 40 minutes.
- The researcher will record the responses by handwriting method.

- A questionnaire with both open and close-ended questions will be used for the interviews.
- After the interview, the researcher will type the responses and hand over a copy to you within a day or two to cross check and edit. This is to make sure that the researcher recorded exactly what you had said.
- The participants in this research will include Church Leaders, Community Leaders, Youth Leaders and community residents.

2. Confidentiality

The researcher will make sure all information that is provided is handled in a confidential manner. While I am in Nigeria, all the completed questionnaires will be kept in a hired safe deposit box in a bank in Lagos for the duration of the data collection period. The typed data will be kept on both password protected flash disk and the hard drive of my laptop so that no one except me can access the information.

Before travelling back to Australia, I will scan all the completed questionnaires and store them on both password protected flash disk and the hard drive of my laptop. While travelling back to Australia, I will ensure that I carry the flash disk, my laptop and all the completed questionnaires with me personally (as hand luggage) on the plane. I will not keep them with the rest of the checked-in baggage.

When I am back at the University of Southern Queensland in Australia, all the completed questionnaires will be kept in a fireproof locked filing cabinet after the data has been processed for analysis. Again the typed data will be kept on a password protected flash disk and on the hard drive of my computer so that no one except me can access the information. I will make sure that the computer is switched off or locked when it is unattended for a period of time. According to the rules of the University of Southern Queensland, all information will be stored for 5 years and then destroyed.

Any information obtained in connection with this study cannot identify you since the questionnaire has nowhere that requires your name, contact or address. Instead I will use code numbers for each completed questionnaire. The information will only be released with your permission, subject to legal requirements.

If you give me your permission by signing the Consent Form, I plan to publish the results in the form of conference and journal papers, in addition to the submission as a PhD thesis.

In any publication, information will be provided in such a way that you cannot be identified. While analysing information, code numbers will be used to represent your interview.

3. Voluntary Participation

Participation in this research study is entirely voluntary. You have the right to say no. If you do not wish to take part you can decide not to do so. If you decide to take part and later change your mind, you are free to withdraw from the project at any stage. Any information already obtained from you will be destroyed. You may also choose not to answer specific questions or to stop participating at any time.

Your decision whether to take part or not to take part, or to take part and then withdraw, will not affect your *relationship with* the University of Southern Queensland.

Before you make your decision, I will first make an oral presentation of my study and will be

available to answer any questions you have about the research project. You can ask for any information you want. Sign the Consent Form only after you have had a chance to ask your questions and have received satisfactory answers.

If you decide to withdraw from this project, please notify me. This notice will allow me to inform you if there are any special requirements linked to withdrawing.

4. Outcomes

The possible outcomes of this study will assist in creating awareness of the communities' opinions of the oil companies. The study has the possibility of improving social and environmental reporting of the oil companies and as a result improves the quality of life for the wider community of the Niger Delta. To the oil companies, the benefits of this research it is hoped will provide both quantitative and qualitative evidence to enable them address their social and environmental responsibilities and as a result gain the support of the communities. For your participation in the study, I will provide a summary of results as soon as they are ready.

5. Queries or Concerns

If you have any concerns or questions about this study, such as the progress or conduct of this research, please contact the researcher at:

Odhiambo Odera
School of Accounting, Economics and Finance
University of Southern Queensland
Address: Unit14/ 466 George Street, Brisbane QLD 400, Australia
Phone: +61 7 4687 5662
+61 449 605 030 (after hours)

If you have any ethical concerns with how the research is being conducted or any queries about your rights as a participant please feel free to contact the University of Southern Queensland Ethics Officer on the following details.

Ethics and Research Integrity Officer
Office of Research and Higher Degrees
University of Southern Queensland
West Street, Toowoomba 4350
Ph: +61 7 4631 2690
Email: ethics@usq.edu.au

Appendix 4: Consent Form



University of Southern Queensland

The University of Southern Queensland Consent Form

HREC Approval Number:

TO: *Participants,*

Full Project Title: Examination of social and environmental disclosures in Nigerian oil companies

Principal Researcher:

Student Researcher: Odhiambo Odera

Associate Researcher(s):

- I have read the Participant Information Sheet and the nature and purpose of the research project has been explained to me. I understand and agree to take part.
- I understand the purpose of the research project and my involvement in it.
- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.
- I confirm that I am over 18 years of age.
- I understand that while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will remain confidential.

Name of participant.....

Signed.....**Date**.....

If you have any ethical concerns with how the research is being conducted or any queries about your rights as a participant please feel free to contact the University of Southern Queensland Ethics Officer on the following details.

Ethics and Research Integrity Officer
Office of Research and Higher Degrees
University of Southern Queensland
West Street, Toowoomba 4350
Ph: +61 7 4631 2690
Email: ethics@usq.edu.au

Appendix 5: Nomination of proxy supervisor

To: Odhiambo Odera
USQ Student Number: 0050082269
Faculty of Business and Law
School of Accounting, Economics and Finance
University of Southern Queensland

20th September, 2012

RE: NOMINATION OF Dr. AKINTOLA OWOLABI AS A PROXY SUPERVISOR

This is to inform you of the nomination of Dr. Akintola Owolabi of the Lagos Business School, Pan African University, Lagos, Nigeria to act as a proxy supervisor for you during your data collection period from 9th November, 2012 to 22nd February, 2013.

I will be in constant touch with Dr. Owolabi to monitor your progress during your 4 months data collection period in Nigeria. Should you have any issues or problems, make sure that you contact both me and Dr. Owolabi so that we can advise you. Dr. Owolabi will also provide you with advice and consultations during your entire data collection period.

Regards,



Kieran James
Assoc Prof of Accounting
Faculty of Business and Law
School of Accounting, Economics and Finance
University of Southern Queensland

Appendix 6: Acceptance of assistance with data collection



LBS
PAN-AFRICAN UNIVERSITY

From: Dr. Akintola Owolabi,
Lagos School Business,
Pan- African University,
Lagos,
Nigeria.

To: Odhiambo Odera,
School of Accounting, Economics & Finance,
Faculty of Business and Law,
University of Southern Queensland,
Australia.

Date: 22nd August, 2012

RE: ACCEPTANCE OF ASSISTANCE WITH DATA COLLECTION

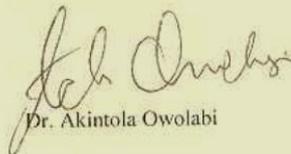
This is in response to your request that I assist you with the data collection process.

I confirm that I, Dr. Akintola Owolabi will offer you all the assistance required towards your PhD data collection process in Nigeria. This assistance will include both the secondary and primary data collection.

As you have stated that you will require the following participants i.e. Church leaders, Community leaders, Youth leaders and Community residents from Port Harcourt, Yenagoa and Warri for the interviews, I assure you that I will be involved in the identification and recruitment of the potential participants by contacting key informants known to me in the cities mentioned.

Kindly let me know at least 2 weeks before the exact date of your arrival in Lagos so that I can commence the recruitment of the potential participants.

With Regards


Dr. Akintola Owolabi

CELEBRATING
1991-2011
YEARS

Appendix 7: Ethics conditional approval

Odhiambo Odera

From: Ethics
Sent: Wednesday, 3 October 2012 5:40 PM
To: Odhiambo Odera
Cc: Kieran James; Albert Scott
Subject: Ethics Research Application advice - H12REA144 - conditional approval

cc: Kieran James; Albert Scott - supervisors

Dear John,

Thank you for submitting your application for ethical approval of the project:

H12REA144	Examination of social and environmental disclosures in Nigerian oil companies
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The USQ Human Research Ethics Committee assessed your resubmitted application at its meeting held 25 September 2012. The committee resolved to **conditionally approve** the application subject to the following points being addressed to the satisfaction of the chair:

- The Committee was concerned about the applicant's safety and isolation while conducting the data collection. It was nevertheless noted that the applicant had taken steps to minimise the risks as necessary. The committee nevertheless issues a cautionary note to Mr Odera, asking that he maintain a high level of awareness at all times whilst collecting data ensuring his utmost safety at all times.
- Please provide a short statement to the committee outlining how you aim to achieve this level of awareness to ensure your safety and wellbeing while conducting your data collection in Nigeria.

Please respond by reply email and provide your comments immediately below the points listed above. If the comment requires amendments to the participant information sheet, consent form, or questionnaire please make the corrections on that documentation and forward as an attachment to your email to ethics@usq.edu.au.

Please note you may not commence your research until you have obtained 'approval'. You have 30 days to respond to this email after which time your ethics application will be withdrawn from review.

If you have any further queries please do not hesitate to contact me on 4631 2690 or ethics@usq.edu.au

Leah Baldwin
Ethics Support Officer
Office of Research and Higher Degrees
Phone: 07 4631 2690
ethics@usq.edu.au
The University of Southern Queensland
Toowoomba Qld 4350



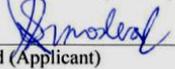
Appendix 8: Statement outlining researcher's safety

Short statement to the HREC

I take cognizance of the risks that are involved in my research. I have discussed at length with both my supervisors and with my proxy supervisor in Nigeria. In acknowledgement of the risks levels, the following risk mitigation strategies have been identified:

- 1) The data analysis phase will not be conducted until I am back in Australia. As such all the data collected will be securely stored in Nigeria.
- 2) The actual physical data collection will not be undertaken by me but by the informants. I will train the informants on how to collect the data and how to communicate with the community members. This way the risk to me will be mitigated.
- 3) On arrival in Lagos Nigeria, I will go to the High Commission of the Republic of Kenya to register my presence in Nigeria. While there, I will obtain the mobile phone number of the Kenyan education attaché so as to keep in touch with him should the need arise.
- 4) I will send weekly progress reports on data collection to my supervisors in USQ by email. The weekly progress reports will provide detailed data collection activities for each day of the week.
- 5) To address my isolation while conducting data collection, upon arrival in Lagos Nigeria, I will obtain a local sim card for my mobile phone. Every morning before leaving the house and embarking on data collection, I will call my proxy supervisory Dr. Akintola Owolabi to inform him of where I am going and what I will be doing. At the end of each day I will call him to give him a detailed briefing of how the data collection went, any problems I encountered etc. If I do not contact him, he can call my host family to find out my whereabouts. He can also call my guide to try and locate me and lastly he can call the Kenyan education attaché.
- 6) To address my safety while conducting data collection, on arrival in Lagos Nigeria, I will immediately go to Lagos Business School, Pan Africa University to see my proxy supervisor and to request him to make available an undergraduate student who will act as my guide since students will be on holidays. I will provide a daily monetary allowance to the undergraduate student for his time. This will enhance my safety while in Nigeria.
- 7) To maintain a high level of awareness for my safety every morning before leaving the house, I will call my guide to inquire about the possible locations of trouble spots and which areas to avoid. I will have the use of a private car provided by my host family which will enable me to move fast from any trouble spots.

The proposed above strategies suggested by me will assist in maintaining a high level of awareness for my safety and wellbeing while conducting data collection in Nigeria.


Signed (Applicant)

Odhiambo Oden
Print name

9 / 10 / 2012
Date


Signed (Supervisor)

Kieran James
Print name

9 / 10 / 2012
Date

Appendix 9: Ethics approval

Odhiambo Odera

From: Ethics
Sent: Thursday, 11 October 2012 4:02 PM
To: Odhiambo Odera
Subject: Approval response from Chair

Hi John

The Ethics Acting Chair has recently reviewed your submission of a 'short statement to the committee outlining how you aim to achieve this level of awareness to ensure your safety and wellbeing while conducting your data collection in Nigeria' and approved the project "Examination of social and environmental disclosures in Nigerian oil companies" (*H12REA144*) as stated in your memorandum dated 03 October 2012. The requested amendments have been endorsed and full ethics approval has been granted.

Ethics approval for the project expires on 22 February 2013

The standard conditions of this approval are:

- (a) conduct the project strictly in accordance with the proposal submitted and granted ethics approval, including any amendments made to the proposal required by the HREC
- (b) advise (email: ethics@usq.edu.au) immediately of any complaints or other issues in relation to the project which may warrant review of the ethical approval of the project
- (c) make submission for approval of amendments to the approved project before implementing such changes
- (d) provide a 'final report' when the project is complete
- (e) advise in writing if the project has been discontinued.

For (c) to (e) proformas are available on the USQ ethics website:
<http://www.usq.edu.au/research/ethicsbio/human>

Please note that failure to comply with the conditions of approval and the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007)* may result in withdrawal of approval for the project.

You may now implement the amendments. I wish you all the best for the conduct of the project.

Leah Baldwin
Ethics Support Officer
Office of Research and Higher Degrees
Phone: 07 4631 2690
ethics@usq.edu.au
The University of Southern Queensland
Toowoomba Qld 4350



Appendix 10: Introductory letter



University of Southern Queensland

FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND LAW

Dr Albert Scott

Lecturer

School of Accounting, Economics & Finance

PHONE +61 7 4631 1179 | FAX +61 4631 5594

EMAIL albert.scott@usq.edu.au

5 November 2012

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam

I hereby introduce the bearer, Mr Odhiambo Odera, who is in Nigeria to conduct field research for his doctoral degree thesis. Mr Odera is a doctoral degree candidate at the School of Accounting, Economics & Finance, Faculty of Business & Law, University of Southern Queensland, Australia. He is doing his doctoral research on "Examination of social and environmental disclosures in Nigerian oil companies" under my supervision. All the data collected by Mr Odera are strictly for academic purposes.

I would greatly appreciate every assistance you could extend to Mr Odera to facilitate the successful completion of his field research.

Yours truly

A handwritten signature in blue ink that reads 'A H S Scott'.

Dr Albert H S Scott