Corporate Social Responsibility and the Role of Rural Women in Strengthening Agriculture-Tourism Linkages in Nigeria’s Oil Producing Communities

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Corporate Social Responsibility and the Role of Rural Women in Strengthening Agriculture-Tourism Linkages in Nigeria’s Oil Producing Communities

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Abstract
This paper extends and contributes to the literature on tourism for transformative and inclusive growth from the corporate social responsibility (CSR) perspective. Specifically, we examine the impact of CSR of multinational oil companies (MOCs) on empowerment of rural women in strengthening agriculture-tourism linkages in Niger Delta region of Nigeria. A total of 800 rural women were sampled across the region. Results from the use of a logit model indicates that rural women seldom participate in the global memorandum of understandings (GMoUs) interventions in agritourism value chain projects, due to the norms and culture of the rural communities. This implies that if the tradition of the people continues to hinder direct participation of the rural women from GMoUs programmes, achieving gender equality and cultural change would be limited in the region, and rural women would remain excluded from the economic benefits of agritourism when compared with the male counterparts. The finding suggests that, GMoU interventions engaging women smallholders in the tourism value chain can be an important vehicle for advancing gender empowerment and fostering social inclusion. Also, cluster development boards (CDBs) should pay close attention to which extent the participation of rural women in the GMoUs projects may be limited by traditions.

Keywords
Agriculture-tourism linkages; corporate social responsibility; multinational oil companies; young rural women; sub-Saharan Africa
1. Introduction

Tourism is capable of encouraging demand in the agriculture sector, promoting health and nutritious food in addition to strengthening the use of local products; as a result, it is essential to create linkages between the two, and to work on a policy on agritourism (UNCTAD, 2017). Linkages concerning agriculture, tourism and health not only potentially heighten the chances for domestic agriculture earnings, product enhancement and new market with successive viable economic growth but also make opportunities available to assist in the development of visitor attraction and typical tourism destination brands via the creative utilization and marketing of local produce cum production techniques, as well as use of local landscape (World Bank, 2008). Agriculture, the mainstay of many African economies, accounts for 14 percent of the continent’s GDP and 60 percent of its employment (African Development Report, 2015). As the tourism sector consumes a wide variety of inputs from agriculture, including fresh produce, processed agricultural products and flowers, and as food and beverages account for one third of tourist expenditure, there is potential to develop viable agriculture-tourism linkages that can raise demand for products and services, and contribute to employment creation and business opportunities (African Economic Outlook, 2017). African women have the capacity to contribute to agriculture-tourism product diversification, particularly women in rural areas with strong community ties (African Competitiveness Report, 2017). Owing to their traditional farming skills, women have the potential to harness agricultural services that enhance the variety of the tourism services and products (Uduji et al, 2019b).

In Nigeria, women are the main agricultural producers, often quoted in the range of 60-80%, and are on the go in trade and informal economy, but they remain badly off by shortage of resources, rights and commercial opportunities (Uduji and Okolo-Obasi, 2018a). In the Niger Delta region of Nigeria, where most extraction of oil takes place, the adverse effect of the activities of the multinational oil companies (MOCs) include gas flaring, environmental pollution, oil spills, harmful social impacts, conflict and violence amongst others (Watts, 2004; NDDC, 2001). By tradition, the people of Niger Delta are known to be farmers and fishermen. However, decades of oil spillage and gas flaring, in addition to a briskly growing population, has meant these traditional basis of livelihood are either no longer practicable or have witnessed substantial decline (Idemudia, 2014; NDDC, 2004). Meanwhile, MOCs partake in a glut of corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities in the region. Annually,
MOCs finance social projects and programmes in communities mostly in the Niger Delta. The earliest form of investments were in agricultural development programmes in the early sixties which over the years grew to include healthcare, education, roads and civil infrastructure, small business and water projects that the local communities gained from (Chevron, 2014). With the passing of time, MOCs have bettered how they engage the local communities to handle these projects. In 2006, they introduced a new way of working with communities called the global memorandum of understanding (GMoU); which represents an important shift in CSR approach, placing emphasis on a more transparent and accountable processes, regular communication with grassroots, sustainability and conflict prevention (SPDC, 2013). Under the terms of the GMoUs, the communities make decision on their desired areas of development, while MOCs provide safe backing for five years making sure that the communities have steady and reliable finance as they carry out the execution of their community improvement plans (Alfred, 2013). At the close of 2012, MOCs have signed agreements with about 33 GMoU clusters which cover 349 communities that make up about 35 percent of the local communities around their business setups in the region (SPDC, 2018). This system serves as a substitute to the previous CSR method in which MOCs agreed to hundreds of distinct development projects with discrete communities and handled them directly and independently (Chevron, 2017).

However, there is still a question mark on the effectiveness of CSR initiatives of MOCs towards community development in the region. For example, scholars such as Frynas (2009), Asgil (2012), Idemudia (2014), Slack (2012), Ekhator (2014), Eweje (2006) and others have argued that CSR initiatives of MOCs have not been able to contribute to community development and in some cases have resulted in inter/intra – community conflicts. On the other hand, Ite (2007), Lompo and Trani (2013) are of the opinion that CSR initiatives of MOCs have in reality added to community development in the region given the degree of the failure of the government in providing basic amenities for its citizens. Yet, Uduji et al (2019a) lately added some shade to the debate as they put forward that GMoUs of MOCs have added to the progress of cultural tourism in the region, but have also weakened rural young people who remained widely excluded from the GMoU plans and programmes. In the same light, Uduji et al (2020a) noted that the GMoUs of MOCs have to some degree backed the viable cultural tourism development in Niger Delta, but at the same time broadly excluded the rural women from the economic growth of the tourism evolution. Following the preceding diverse points of view of the CSR initiatives in the Niger Delta, this research is an addition to gender
discourse in the sustainable African tourism improvement for transformative and inclusive growth literature from the CSR perspective, by looking at empirical facts in four areas of great interest in the literature. The paper seeks to ascertain the degree of CSR investment that MOCs have made in the area of connecting tourism to agricultural products and facilities, as well as defining the gains from such investment that mount up to the rural women and how it affects their trade. These four areas of focus equally denote four main questions:

i. What is the intensity of MOCs’ CSR investment in horticulture and organic farming for strengthening agriculture-tourism linkages in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?

ii. What is the level of gender participation in the GMoU cluster interventions of the MOCs in the host communities?

iii. Do MOCs’ GMoU cluster interventions trigger positive changes in engaging rural women small-holders in fresh produce, processed agricultural products and flowers for tourism sector in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?

iv. Do MOCs’ GMoU cluster interventions advance gender empowerment for women smallholders in the tourism value chain in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?

1.1 Study hypothesis

In the Niger Delta region of Nigeria, women’s involvement in economic, social and political advancement is being held back by uneven access to resources and opportunities as well as deplorable level of relational violence. Though 75 percent of the region’s farming population is made up of women functioning as small-scale farm managers and suppliers of labour, the probability of their involvement as smallholders in the tourism value chain seems to be slowed down by the traditions and cultural standards in rural areas. As a result, women and girls in the region are far from profiting from the agritourism economic prosperity when matched with their male counterparts. Thus, we postulate that the new CSR model of MOCs has not meaningfully impacted on gender parity in agritourism, in Nigeria’s Niger Delta region.

The remaining parts of the paper are structured as follows: the background and theoretical underpinnings (section 2); description of the methods and materials (section 3); the empirical results and corresponding discussion (section 4); then, as a conclusion, implications, caveats and future research directions (section 5).
2. **Background and theoretical underpinnings**

This section will focus on why gender inequality is a major source of worry in the Niger Delta; then, look at the interface between tourism and agriculture, and finally discuss the context of CSR in Africa.

2.1 *The people and gender inequality*

The very rich culture and tradition of the Niger Delta region is founded on the presence of about 40 diverse ethnic groups speaking 250 languages and dialects (NDDC, 2001). The various ethnic groups include Ijaws, Ogonis, Ogbas, Eugennes, Obollos, Isokos, Nembes, Okirikans, Kalabarins, Urhobos, Ikwerees, Etches, Ekpeyes, Itsekiris, Igbos, Ika-Igbos, Bekwarras, inis, Ndonis, Efiks etc (NDDC, 2004). The heritage of the people is reproduced in their traditional cultural activities such as modes of dressing, festivals, and marriages ceremonies. The traditional economic undertakings of the communities plunge into two main categories: land-based type on the drier parts (the north part of the Delta) which includes farming, hunting, gathering and processing of palm fruits as well as fishing; then, the water-based type of economy (the south part of the Delta) which goes for fishing and trading, with a less diversified economy (PIND, 2015a, 2015b). The varied ethnic groups existing in the region have a long history of partaking in trade and travel, which has led to the prevalent exchange of ideas and art forms, amid the numerous ethnic groups and even the outside world (PIND, 2017, 2018, 2019).

Nonetheless, gender gaps in income, access to health and educational accomplishment are prevalent across the region. Women farmers are eight times less likely to freely own their agricultural land. Educated women (secondary school level) are 37 percent less likely to be sent to further their education, regardless of their ability, and their training is more likely to be disrupted by early marriage and pregnancy. Even when they manage to achieve equal levels of education with their male counterparts, they have less chances of getting salaried jobs and are likely to be paid less. About 36 percent of the women report being victims of violence, mostly meted out on them by their intimate partners. The true occurrence of violence against women is probably grossly under-reported; also under-reported is the direct effect on women and children. Violence against the women has broader social and economic implications, including on infant, child nutritional and health outcomes. It is expected that these could be reduced via measures that address gender disparity in the creation of jobs and entrepreneurship development (African Development Report, 2015; Uduji and Okolo-Obasi,

### 2.2 The interface between tourism and agriculture

The interface between tourism and agriculture was described by Bowen *et al* (1991) with the use of a graphic conceptual model. According to this, the home and external economies are connected via visitors who, while being in the host country, eat-up agricultural goods and enjoy services either directly or indirectly through visitor industries. Moreover, the model brings together home-country farmers and external-economy visitors via agricultural exports that lengthen the period of utilization of home-country goods by tourists to before and/or after their travel. There are also agricultural imports from tourist source countries that may actually reduce farmer-visitor transactions in the host country as such imports substitute local farm production for foreign one. Finally, the model also depicts resource sharing or competition between the farming and visitor industries. Although the clarity of the Bowen *et al* (1991) conceptual framework is without a doubt, it has been criticized by scholars for being too general and does not depict all transactions between local farmer and foreign visitor in detail, and also would need update to reflect recent developments in agritourism (Fisher, 2019; Torres, 2002, 2003; Rogerson, 2012; Gibson, 2018).

However, in this paper, we would be drawing more from Fisher (2019) who extended Bowen *et al* (1991) with details of the current dealings that exist between tourists and farmers while the former stay in the host country. It will concern their interaction via trade flows and the actual economic importance of agriculture cum tourism sector from both global and local viewpoints. Yet, the positioning of this research set off from the existing agriculture and tourism sector linkages literature, which has concentrated on *inter alia*: rural tourism and agriculture (Fleischer and Tchetchik, 2005); tourism and agriculture in sustainable development (Gurung, 2012); food as a form of destination identity (Lin and Cai, 20111); assessing agriculture-tourism linkages in Senegal (Njoya and Nikitas, 2019); linkages between tourism and agriculture for inclusive development in Tanzania (Anderson, 2018); food in tourism attractions (Cohen and Avieli, 2004); framework for food tourism as an element of destination marketing (Du Rand and Heath, 2006); food enthusiasts and tourism (Robinson and Gest, 2016); tourism-agriculture nexuses (Welteji and Zerihum, 2018) and others.
2.3 Women participation in African agritourism

Arguably, the role of women in African agritourism policies is yet to be appreciated and promoted by countries in Africa; few African national development plans explicitly consider how agritourism could promote the role of women (UNCTAD, 2017). While the majority of Africa’s poor reside in rural areas and depend on agriculture as their source of livelihood, the productivity in this sector remain largely undermined by its low mechanization, allocation of resources between men and women, which has left the continent with less than desired levels for agritourism development (African Development Report, 2015). Gender disparities in agritourism are mainly characterized by unequal access to agricultural inputs (Uduji and Okolo-Obasi, 2018b). Pervasive inequality, especially over the ownership of agricultural land, continues to limit women’s participation in the development of agritourism in the continent (Uduji et al, 2020d). Most women do not have access to agricultural inputs, apart from their own labour, and often unable to compete with their menfolk in terms of local producers supplier quantity; making women uncompetitive and creative disincentives for participation in the development of agriculture – tourism linkages (Aguilar, et al, 2015; Karamba and Winter, 2015; Uduji et al, 2019a).

2.4 The context of CSR in Africa

The problems of CSR in emerging countries is framed by a vision distilled in sustainable development goals (SDGs) of getting rid of lack, hunger, disease and bringing to an end all ill-treatment of women and girls. Unfortunately, this world wide objective appears to be an optical phenomenon in most African nations today. Carroll’s (1991) CSR Pyramid is probably the most recognized model of CSR, with its four levels showing the relative significance of economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities respectively. Yet the exploration of CSR in Africa (Visser, 2006) has been used to question its correctness and importance. It is put forward that if Carroll’s basic four-part model is established, the relative priorities of CSR in Africa are likely to be dissimilar to the classic, American Ordering. Similarly, Amaeshi et al (2006) have reasoned that the Nigerian idea of CSR is remarkably dissimilar from the Western version. Uduji and Okolo-Obasi (2017) noted that philanthropic initiatives as CSR by multinational companies are predominant in Nigeria. Muthuri (2012) depending on the extant literature on CSR in Africa, posited that CSR issues dominant in Africa include poverty reduction, community advancement, education and training, corruption and governance, accountability, economic and enterprise development, health and HIV/AIDS, environment, sports and human right. Frynas (2009) put forward that the lack of action by the government
in emerging countries, in making available amenities for its citizens brings out the role of multinationals in CSR and philanthropy, which are not considered as CSR in Western Countries. Thus, this paper adopts quantitative methodology, but looks at the outcomes from the African CSR viewpoint.

3. Materials and methods

This study nevertheless drew greatly on previously published works in Niger Delta region (Uduji and Okolo-Obasi, 2019a, 2020d, among others). To quite an extent, research according to Uduji et al (2020b) into CSR in emerging countries is still somewhat underdeveloped and more often, adhoc in nature depending so much on convenience-based case studies or descriptive accounts. Often, a large number of such research are targeted at high profile incidents or branded companies and a few picked countries with a broad deficiency of quantitative benchmarking data (Asongu et al, 2019a, 2019b, 2019c, 2019d, 2019e, 2019f, 2019g). It is based on this that Uduji and Okolo-Obasi (2018b) stressed the critical need for further quantitative research on CSR in the region. Therefore, this paper adopts a survey technique, directed at collecting information from a representative sample population, as it is in essence cross-sectional, describing and construing the current situation. Figure 1 point out the constituent administrative states of Niger Delta, Nigeria.

![Figure 1: Constituent administrative States of Niger Delta, Nigeria](source: NDDC, 2004)
3.1 Sample size
Using the model developed by Taro Yamane (1964) for finite population, we determined the sample size used in this study thus:

\[ n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e^2)} \]

Where \( n \) = the sample size
\( N \) = total or finite population of the study area
\( e \) = level of significance (Limit of tolerable error)
1 = unity (constant)
The estimated total population of farmers in the study area is shown in table 1, hence

\( N = 15,456,542 \)

And the level of significance of the study is 5%, which is a 95 percent confidence level, indicating that:
\( e = 0.05 \) percent
Thus:

\[ \frac{15,456,542}{1 + 15,456,542(0.05^2)} = 400 \]

However, due to the fact that we are considering two strands of rural women (those from communities that have formed cluster development board and have signed GMOUs, and the ones that have not formed cluster development board and have not signed any GMOUs), we multiplied the outcome by 2 to make sure that we effectively chose representative and also reduced errors. To this, the total sample size used is 800 respondents.

3.2 Sampling procedure
We made use of both purposeful and systematic simple random samplings techniques to pick the final respondents. Purposefully, we chose two local government areas (LGAs) from each of the nine states in Niger Delta. Such choice was based the LGAs having more penetrating agricultural activities than others and also hosting at least one multinational oil facility. Also in stage two, we followed the same pattern in choosing three rural communities from each of the selected LGAs. Each rural community picked is either hosting MOC facility or very close to a host community. Finally from the fifty-four rural communities chosen, with the aid of
community leaders, we made use of systematic random sampling to pick respondents from both GMOU and non-GMOU communities as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Women Population</th>
<th>% of Total Population</th>
<th>State Sample</th>
<th>Community Samples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abia</td>
<td>2,881,380</td>
<td>1,451,082</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akwaibom</td>
<td>3,902,051</td>
<td>1,918,849</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bayelsa</td>
<td>1,704,515</td>
<td>830,432</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross River</td>
<td>2,892,988</td>
<td>1,421,021</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delta</td>
<td>4,112,445</td>
<td>2,043,136</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edo</td>
<td>3,233,366</td>
<td>1,599,420</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imo</td>
<td>3,927,563</td>
<td>1,951,092</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ondo</td>
<td>3,460,877</td>
<td>1,715,820</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rivers</td>
<td>5,198,716</td>
<td>2,525,690</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31,313,901</td>
<td>15,456,542</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source:* NPC (2007)/ Authors’ computation.

3.3 Data collection

We generated data via both primary and secondary sources. In assembling the primary data, we used participatory rural appraisal (PRA) technique. We made use of a written semi-structured interview (SSI) questionnaire. This was used in collecting data for corporate social responsibility impact because it makes room for full involvement of those being studied. According to Uduji & Okolo-Obasi (2017), the management of the views of those being studied is very essential. Since it concerns the rural women, their opinion on the matter at hand is paramount. We made use of local research assistants in administering the semi structure interview questionnaire because it was needful to overcome the multi-lingual problem posed by more than thirty ethnic groups in the study area. Besides, the environment and its usual violence entail that such assistants direct and protect the researchers against all unwanted developments. The use of local research assistants was also necessitated by the inability of the researchers to speak the different local languages and dialects of the many ethnic groups of the Niger Delta region. The research assistants can speak some of the languages and dialects; they are also conversant with the terrain, and have been adequately trained to assist the researchers in administering the questionnaire; in some cases, they translate the questions to the language and dialect that a respondent can easily comprehend.
3.3.1 Semi-Structured Interview (SSI) Questionnaire

Semi-structured interview (SSI) questionnaire is often regarded as the “workhorse” of PRA because it is both on its own and as part of the tools which requires teams to ask questions and probe issues in a sensitive way. SSI is a major tool which is used in every PRA. The SSI used for this study is named *Multinational oil companies CSR progress in Niger Delta questionnaire*. The instrument is divided into four sections. Section one of the checklist elicited information on the socio-economic characteristics of respondent, and the other three sections elicited information based on the three research questions. This semi-structure interview questionnaire was the major tool the study used for the household survey. The survey took place between the months of January 2019 to April 2019.

3.4 Analytical framework

We exposed the data collected to series of treatments; using both descriptive and inferential statistics, we provided answers to the research questions and tested the hypotheses. Objectives 1, 2 & 4 were attained by providing answers to questions 1, 2 & 4. The answers were made available using descriptive statistics and the results presented in tables, figures and charts. On the other hand, inferential statistical tools were put to use in providing answer to questions 3 and in testing the hypothesis of the study: *the new CSR model of MOCs has not significantly impacted on gender equality in agritourism, in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria*. To test this hypothesis, we estimated a logit model on how rural women received or did not receive CSR of the multinational oil companies. The model was estimated as a reliable variable to be described by basic socio-economic variables.

Having a dichotomous value, the dependent variable of the logit model takes two values: 1, if a rural woman has received direct CSR and is empowered in *agritourism* or 0, if the case is contrary. Adopting the line of argument of Uduji *et al* (2020a), we noted that associations of this nature can use numerous analytical techniques of any other linear, probability model, but the probit model and/or logit model are the best. According to Cox and Snell (1989), models like Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) maybe calculated for binary response, yet, the error terms are always heteroscedastic thereby resulting in inefficient parameterization. Such parameterization usually makes testing the hypothesis and confidence intervals construction incorrect and vague. Hence as long as the linear probability models are not regulated to the interval (0, 1) they are not suitable for this type of application. To this, logit and probit models come to hand and are very much put to use in qualitative response models that can avoid the inadequacies of the other models. So employing the logit model in our study is essential.
because the logistic function has a little heavier tails than the cumulative normal function and it has a plus in its ability to compute as observed by Maddala (1983). This is where logit is better than probit notwithstanding both being equal in predictive power. Also the logit model makes sure that if one exponentiates the coefficients, adjusted odds ratios that have a remarkably innate interpretation will be acquired (Uduji et al., 2020a). Probit models and some others cannot be interpreted in such a way.

Thus, we present the logistic link, the natural logarithm of the odds ratios as binominal response variables thus:

\[
P_x = \log \frac{p_i}{1-p_i} = \log 0_i = \alpha + \beta_i I_i \ldots + \gamma_i H_i \ldots + \mu \quad \text{Equation (1)}
\]

Where:
- \( \alpha \) - Vector coefficient of explanatory variable,
- \( \beta \) – Vector coefficient of individual characteristics variables,
- \( \gamma \)– Vector coefficient of household characteristics variables,
- \( I \) - Vector of individual characteristics variables,
- \( H \) - Vector of household characteristics variables,
- \( e \) - Error term

Hence, the effect of the corporate social responsibility activities of the MOCs using GMOU in improving the rural women’s agritourism productivity in the Niger Delta region was assessed with the equation empirically stated as follows:

\[
Logit(WAP) = \alpha + \beta_1CSR + \beta_2Age + \beta_3HOcc + \beta_4PriOcc + \beta_5HHSize + \beta_6Edu + \beta_7AY + \beta_8YOHM \\
+ \beta_9MS + \beta_10Exp + \mu
\]

Equation (2)

Where:

WAP= Rural women’s agritourism productivity. (The response here is binary, it measures the level of productivity of the rural women in agritourism, and it is measured in either high =1 or low=0)

CSR = Corporate social responsibility of multinational oil companies using the global memorandum of understanding (this is measured by the amount money or input received by the rural women valued in Nigeria naira (NGN).

Age = Age of the respondent

HOcc = Occupation of husband (if married)
\textit{PriOcc} = Primary occupation of the respondent \\
\textit{HHSize} = Household size of the respondent measured by number in a household \\
\textit{Edu} = Highest level of education of the respondent this is measured by the number of years spend in formal education. \\
\textit{AY} = Annual income of the respondent; this is measured by the total amount generated from arts and craft of cultural tourism and minus money from any other sources of income that is not cultural tourism. \\
\textit{Exp} = Experience of the respondent in cultural tourism. This is a dummy for experience, \\
\textit{MS} = Marital status of the respondent this is also a dummy for marriage \\
\textit{YOHM} = Income of other household members; this is measured by the total amount earned by other people living in the household (if any) from their respective jobs \\
*In this model, the main parameter of interest is $\alpha$ in terms of sign and significance. \\
We also considered agritourism as having a good opportunity in bettering the capacity of the rural women to add to the family income, thus we used the same variables to assess the effect of the CSR on gender empowerment through agritourism. To this, we presented gender empowerment as the dependent variable with the independent variables remaining same. Therefore, the equation was re-written thus:

\[
\text{Logit}(GE) = \alpha + \beta_1\text{CSR} + \beta_2\text{Age} + \beta_3\text{PriOcc} + \beta_4\text{HHSize} + \beta_5\text{Edu} + \beta_6\text{AY} + \beta_7\text{YOHM} + \beta_8\text{MS} \\
+ \beta_{10}\text{Exp} + \mu \\
\]

Equation (3)

GE = Women Empowerment through agritourism. (Like WAP above, the response here is also binary, it is coded thus: received CSR and empowered =1 or otherwise = 0)

3.5 \textit{SCOTDI}

We attained the fourth objective of the study by using the Shell Community Transformation and Development Index (SCOTDI), which represents an inventive framework that integrate and adopts a number of international principles into a composite index in a way that is responsive to local context (SPDC, 2013). The innovative framework is put into work in assessing and ranking the performance of divergent GMoU clusters in the host communities (SPDC, 2018).

3.6 The explanatory Variables
\( \text{CSR} \) = Corporate social responsibility of multinational oil companies (MOCs) using the Global Memorandum of Understanding (this is measured by the amount of money or input received by rural women valued in Nigeria Naira—NGN). The real variable that is looked at here is the participation of MOCs in agritourism development using GMOU as accepted by the rural communities. In this study, it is coded as; received none =0, (1000-50,000) =1, (51,000 -100,000) =2, (101,000 -200,000) = 3 and (Above 200,000) =4

The socio economic characteristics selected to explain the dependent variables are:

\( \text{Age} \) = Age of the respondent, this is measured in number of years the respondent has spent on earth. It is coded thus: Less than 20 years =0, (21-30 years) =1, (31-40 years) = 2 and (Above 40 years) = 3

\( \text{HOcc} \) = Occupation of husband (if married) this is measured and coded as: None =0 Fishing = 1, Trading=2, Farming = 3, Government/Private Paid Employment = 4, Handicraft = 5, Agritourism = 6, others =7

\( \text{PriOcc} \) = Primary occupation of the respondent woman, this is measured and coded as: Agritourism = 0, Handicraft = 1 Trading=1, Farming = 2, Government/Private Paid Employment = 3, Fishing = 4, Full time Housewife=5 and others = 6

\( \text{HHSize} \) = Household size of the respondent measured by number of people living in a particular household, it is coded as: (1 - 4) = 0, (5 - 9) =1, (10 - 14) = 2, (15 and above) = 3

\( \text{Edu} \) = Highest level of education attained by the respondent, this is measured by the number of years spend in formal education. It is measured as: None = 0, primary =1 secondary = 2 tertiary = 3

\( \text{AY} \) = Annual income of the respondent; this is measured by the total amount generated from primary occupation of the respondent minus money from any other sources of income that is not. It is coded as: none = 0, (1000 - 50,000) = 1, (51,000 - 100,000) =2,(101,000 - 150,000) = 3, (151,000 - 200,000) = 4 and (Above 200,000) = 5

\( \text{Exp} \) = Experience of the respondent in agritourism. This is a dummy for experience, it is measured as: experienced =1 and otherwise =0

\( \text{MS} \) = Marital status of the respondent this is also a dummy for marriage, it is coded as: Married =1 not married = 0

\( \text{YOHM} \) =Income of other household members; this is measured by the total amount received by other people living in the household (if any) from their own occupation. It is measured and coded as: none = 0; (1000 - 50,000) = 1; (51,000 - 100,000) =2;(101,000 - 150,000) = 3; (151,000 - 200,000) = 4, and (Above 200,000) =5.
4. Results and discussion

Being aware of the relevance of inter-sectoral linkages in adding to viable development by making jobs available, fostering social inclusion and encouraging environmental protection, this examination cum discussion explore the potential of supporting the linkages between tourism and agricultural sector which are capable of helping economic expansion and structural transformation in the Niger Delta region. We drew a lot from previous published works that are additions to separate segments of the public-private partnership debate on social difficulties in the oil generating region from the perspective of corporate social responsibility of multinational oil companies (Uduji and Okolo-Obasi, 2017, 2019a, 2019b, 2020; Uduji et al, 2019a,2019b, 2019c, 2019d, 2020a, 2020b, 2020c, 2020d, amid others).

4.1 Descriptive characteristics

In exploring the role of women in agritourism in the Niger Delta, we commenced with the explanation of some of the relevant qualities which are demographic (age, household size, marital status), social (education) and economic (occupation, household income). These qualities are vital in comprehending the gaps in the socio-economic status of the women who are involved in the GMoUs in contrast to other women who do not take part.

In analyzing the socio-economic respondents, Table 2 expresses their distinctiveness which points out that agritourism is a considerable accomplishment in the region. It shows that, even a substantial number of rural women are already blossoming in the trade via their horticultural undertakings and related enterprises. Nevertheless, while 33% of the women intensely partake in conventional farming, only about 10% of them take part in agritourism related engagements as their primary employment. Also worthy of note is the fact that a greater percentage of those engaged is mostly in the area of horticulture. A careful study of the age and capability of the respondents also reveals that while only 45% of the respondent have some form of experience in agritourism (both full and part time), 39% of them have gained experience of not less than 10 years. Out of the respondents that are experienced, 67% are above 30 year. This reveals that as the total number of respondent above 30 years is only 50%, most respondents in this circle fall into experienced respondent. Obviously, this indicates that agritourism is not new-fangled in the region but has to a practical extent been left for the aged people, probably because of how youths perceive agriculture in the area. While ladies that are single make up 16% of the respondents, 84% are either married or were married in the past: married = 63%; widowed = 9%, divorced/separated = 13%. This further supports the fact that the business has been left for
the aged. Analysis (Table 2) also reveals that training is not much of a barrier in the region, since about 84% of the respondents are able to read and write (having completed at least the basic primary education); only 16% have not acquired any formal education. A lot of women are full-time housewives (6%), being a part of the younger generation that favours staying idle. Agba et al (2010) concur that such women have one or two abilities and/or potential (including in agritourism) but fail in appreciating such. Yet, if gender biased CRS intervention is channeled towards such area, many women would probably be helped out of poverty.

Table 2. Socio-economic characteristics of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Cum.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary Occupation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishing</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agritourism</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farming</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government/Private Paid</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trading</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full time Housewife</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>800 100</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level of Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>800 100</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>501</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widow</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced/Separated</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>800 100</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Monthly Agritourism Income</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000 - 50,000</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51,000 - 100,000</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101,000 - 150,000</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>151,000 - 200,000</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 200,000</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>800 100</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Authors’ compilation based on household survey

Moreover, even with the great aptitude in agritourism skills, the rural women in the host communities are not gaining from it, which could be due to the level of investment in it or how it is approached and managed. About 62% make no gain from it due to lack of participation or being nonchalant while participating. Just 12% make between 1000 to 50,000, while about
4% gain above NGN200, 000 (USD 574) annually. These observations are in line with Aguilar et al (2015) in that most of Africa’s poor live in rural areas and rely on agriculture as their source of income. Yet, while productivity in this sector is greatly weakened by its low mechanism, the method of distribution of resources between men and women has left the continent with a regrettable level of productivity.

4.2 Multinational oil companies’ CSR interventions in host communities

![Figure 2 Distribution of CSR intervention in sectors by Percentage in the Niger Delta](image)

**Source:** Authors’ compilation based on household survey.

Our evaluation of the CSR interventions of the MOCs in the region reveals that 20% of the intervention went to education (making infrastructure available, getting library and laboratory equipment, providing scholarship and training of teachers), while health care services took up 18%. Regrettably, chieftaincy matters took 10%, while investment in areas like agritourism is just 1%, in addition to 7% put in conventional agriculture. Then, a greater percentage of the forms of CSR including the listed acquirement of skill appear to be urban-based. These urban based involvements as good as they maybe would make little impact, since over 70% of the women in the region live in rural communities; besides, the ever increasing militant actions cannot be ruled out in the uneven access to CSR interventions particularly the rural - urban clash. However, this finding gives consent to Uduji et al (2020a) in that GMoUs have gained popularity with host communities as it makes available an improved community interface and better mechanism for grievance/dispute resolution.

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1Fish = Fishing , Agr = Agriculture(both crop and Animal), Hlt = Health, SKA = Skill Acquisition, Hou = Housing development , Edu, Educational development (scholarship, bursary, Lab and Library and school building), DYE = Direct employment of youths, Rd = Road construction, AT= Agritourism, PA = Policy Advocacy, ChM = Chieftancy Matters , RuEl = Rural electrification
Table 3. Multinational oil firms CSR projections in host communities in Niger Delta, Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Multinational oil firms</th>
<th>Chevron</th>
<th>Shell</th>
<th>Total E&amp;P</th>
<th>Exxon Mobil</th>
<th>Halliburton</th>
<th>Agip</th>
<th>Average %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Building and maintenance of tourism sites</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mopping up agritourism products</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sponsoring tourism fairs and sports</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizing entrepreneurship training for women in agritourism.</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting venture capital for agritourism entrepreneurs</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Releasing soft loan and or grants for investors</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100

Source: Authors’ compilation based on household survey

In our evaluation (Table 3), which ascertains CSR investment types that MOCs were involved in using the 1% CSR intervention assigned to agritourism, we reveal that, about 22% is put into erection and maintenance of tourism sites, while mopping-up of agritourism products takes up only 14% . This is not an incentive since such agricultural products could be consumable and cannot be stored. Sponsoring tourism fairs and sports takes up 27%, while arranging for entrepreneurship training for women in agritourism took 25%. Soft loans and grants took only 8%, whereas venture capital got 5%. This finding come to an agreement with UNCTAD (2017) in that on the demand side, obtaining of local agricultural produce by tourism set ups can reinforce local agricultural sectors, with backward, linkages generating supply and employment opportunities; then, on the supply side, such acquirement can make available a viable market and an unswerving source of income for these young woman farmers in rural areas. Adding to encouraging the development of local agricultural producers linkages, World
Bank (2008) concede in that the obtaining of local products may be necessary in averting economic leakages related to the importing or sourcing of inputs from intermediary providers.

4.3 Rural Women Interest in Agritourism

To ascertain the willingness of the rural women to be part of agritourism, this study made a further attempt to determine the preference of the rural women if provided with adequate resources to invest in any enterprise of their choice.

![Figure 3: Willingness of women to be involved in Agritourism](image)

**Source:** Authors’ compilation based on household survey.

Our analysis (Figure 3) reveals that many of the respondents are interested in participating in agritourism. While 61% of the rural women state that agriculture is their natural and traditional line of employment, engaging in agritourism as long as it will be profitable is a welcome development. Such number is enthusiastic to get on full-time agrotourism enterprise. Another 21% are desirous of getting into it on part-time basis, only 11% are completely unwilling. About 7% are undecided but will go for it as soon as investment in the area booms. This observation get along with Ferguson and Alarcon (2015) in that demand for agricultural products and services used up by tourist can create solid forward linkages; provide agritourism-connected activities (such as farm tours, horseback riding and animal feeding); complement traditional agriculture and chances for alternative cum additional employment, and fuel businesses opportunities for young women farmers in rural areas.
In our examination, (Figure 4) points out that CSR intervention (cash, input, subsidy) has not directly reached 66% of the respondents in their area of investment. 18.4% have been given between NGN1, 000 – NGN50, 000; only 1% of all have been given above N200, 000. This is an obvious clue that the CSR intervention of the MOCS has ignored investment in agritourism. Therefore, the cluster development boards CDB ought to wake up to face the challenge and move agritourism investors along. Fisher (2019) assent to this discovery in that while it is principally related to commercial agriculture, agritourism is progressively practiced by smallholders and can be important in supporting expansion from low-value to high-value activities; in addition, linkages between tourism and high-value activities such as agro processing are capable of encouraging creation of job and entrepreneurship, while changing the rural areas positively.

\[^2\text{Figure 4} \text{ Receipt CSR intervention for Investment in Agritourism}
\]

**Source:** Authors’ compilation based on household survey.

\[^2\text{None} = 66\%, \ 1000-50,000 = 18.4\%, \ 51,000 – 100,000 = 8\%, \ 101,000- 150,000 = 4.5\%, \ 151,000-200,000=2.5\%, \ \text{above} \ 200,000 = 1\%\]
4.4 Econometric Analysis of Impact of CSR Intervention in Agritourism

Table 5. Projected impacts of CSRs interventions in Agritourism of in the Niger Delta region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1(a)</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
<th>95.0% C.I. for EXP(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>Upper</td>
<td>Lower</td>
<td></td>
<td>df</td>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>Upper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>-.015</td>
<td>.116</td>
<td>2.105</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.0173</td>
<td>.830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOcc</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.142</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.915</td>
<td>.908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>6.642</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>7.812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YOMH</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.115</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.679</td>
<td>.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MS</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.120</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>1.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDU</td>
<td>-.062</td>
<td>.114</td>
<td>.715</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.398</td>
<td>.812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AY</td>
<td>-.048</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.729</td>
<td>.996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEOCC</td>
<td>-.27</td>
<td>.135</td>
<td>1.470</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.168</td>
<td>.883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HHSIZE</td>
<td>-.044</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>.372</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.483</td>
<td>.986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.731</td>
<td>.667</td>
<td>1.740</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.164</td>
<td>2.533</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Variable(s) entered on step 1: AGE, HOcc, HHSIZE, PEOCC, Exp, EDU, AY, YOMH, MS, CSR.

Source: Authors’ compilation based on household survey.

We undertook logistic regression analysis to predict the effect of the multinationals corporate social responsibilities on agritourism utilizing the above model’s variables as predictors. The valuation of the full model against a constant only model was statistically necessary, revealing that the predictors as a set dependably distinguished between the “yes” and “no” effect of CSR (chi square = 23. 029, p <.000 with df= 8). Nagelkerke’s R² of .842 showed a strong connection between prediction and assemblage. Prediction success overall was 88 percent: (90 percent for “yes” and 86 percent for “no”). The Z- value for GMoU is 6.642, with an associated p-value of .023. Having set our significant level to 0.05, the p-value being less than 0.05, we had to cast-off the null hypothesis. As a result, the study finalizes that the CSR of the MOCs has considerably impacted on the agritourism of the rural women. This puts forward that a high level of variation is still involved in agritourism development of the rural women in the region of Niger Delta. Nevertheless, the EXP (B) value of the Predictor – GMOU is 7.812, implying that if the CSR interventions of the MOCs directed at rural women’s productivity in agritourism development are made high by one unit, the odds ratio is 7.8 times as large. Thus, the rural women are 8 times more expected to partake in agritourism in the host communities. On the crossing point between tourism and agriculture, this result gave consent to Bowen *et al* (1991) in that, on the demand side, what is obtained by tourism establishment of high-value processed products (locally produced) can surge business opportunities for local agro processing enterprise and indirectly motivate employment in such enterprises, while
consolidating the development of local industry via light manufacturing. On the supply side, Fisher (2019) is all for it in that agro processing enterprises can assist in betterment of skill, enhance productivity and result in multiplier effect in other areas via demand for inputs from smallholders and infrastructure (such as storage and transport), creating room for more profit in the rural economy.

Table 6. Z-Value table of the impact of CSR interventions on rural women agri-tourism development in Niger Delta region.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Z - Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>-.015</td>
<td>2.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOcc</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HHSIZE</td>
<td>-.044</td>
<td>.492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRIOCC</td>
<td>-.048</td>
<td>.120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exp</td>
<td>-.27</td>
<td>1.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDU</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.652</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AY</td>
<td>-.062</td>
<td>.715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YOHM</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MS</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>1.35*</td>
<td>6.642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.731</td>
<td>1.940</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* significant at 5%; - a = This only refers to standard error (SE) b= Associated P Value of the Z value

Source: Authors’ compilation based on household survey.

4.5 GMoUs in advancement of gender empowerment for women
To realize objective 4, we assessed the feeling of the rural women gender gap in the CSR interventions of the MOCs making use of the GMoUs. With the aid of the SCOTDI developed criteria, we sought their opinions. The SCOTDI developed criteria is a framework of innovation which integrates and embraces a number of international principles into a compound index with an approach that is adoptable to local context (Shell, 2013). We did the
evaluation to determine the issues as it relates to governance of the CDBs, involvement in the GMoUs, openness in management, participation in the decision making, flow of the cluster after MOCs’ intervention and result of the GMoUs in the Niger Delta region. The opinion of rural women was highly important in the analysis. Our analysis (Figure 5) reveals that rating the six criteria, the overall rating of the interventions of the GMoUs in rural women’s agritourism development in Niger Delta is actually low while the rating for men is high. For governance, women were rated less than 20% while men got close to 60%. In transparency, however, the rating was equal: the women agreed that for both men and women not in the management, the activities of the CDB are not transparent. Women’s inclusiveness and involvement are in the low revealing that men control the GMoU programs while women are hardly carried along. This observation is in line with African Development Report (2015) in that women’s involvement in key areas of development (economic, political and social) are being held back by unequal access to resources and opportunities in addition to detestable levels of interpersonal violence. Uduji and Okolo-Obasi (2018a) also flow with this finding in that inequality results in direct damage to women and their children, and graver costs to African economies. Uduji et al (2020a) concede also to the result in that Africa ought to provide a better deal for her women and girls in tourism to achieve transformation and inclusive growth. Therefore, we need carefully planned out GMoU interventions to raise women’s economic status and to stop aggression in encouraging structural transformation via tourism. The duty of women in solidification of the agriculture-tourism linkages is vital in this regards, as they support the creation of jobs and economic opportunities that foster expansions into higher-value activities and mete out income generally in the region. The results propose that CDBs should pay close attention to the level of engagement of rural women in the GMoUs projects which are most probably restricted by cultural and traditional barriers.

---

3The conditions and the variables, rating them either none, very low, low, moderate, and significant or soaring
Figure 5. Rating of gender involvement in the GMoUs interventions in the Niger Delta

Source: Authors’ compilation based on household survey.

On the whole, placing women in a better position to access economic opportunities in tourism is intrinsically valuable and vital to achieving more inclusive growth. Improving on the involvement of women in strengthening agriculture tourism linkages would result in several gains to tourism itself and development generally. Most importantly, our finding shows that the relative priorities of CSR in Nigeria’s oil producing communities probably vary from the classic American ordering as recommended by Carroll (1991). Instead, the relevance of cultural context in ascertaining the suitability of CSR principles and programmes ought to be considered as suggested by Visser (2006), Amaeshi et al (2006), and Uduji et al (2019b, 2019h, 2020a). Hence, if we are to go for an ideal CSR for addressing the distinctiveness of the socio-economic challenges in the Niger Delta region, we would support enhanced CSR projects aimed at putting together the potential of the tourism sector to add to inclusive growth, transformation in structure and actualizing of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). It is our argument that MOCs is appropriate for the improvement of women’s inclusion in tourism, which would create room for various gains in tourism and bring down women vulnerability to impoverishment. Precisely, we argue that there is potential to develop solid backward linkages in active, very valuable agricultural subsectors such as organic farming and horticulture, which till date have not been well exploited by the tourism sector of the Niger Delta. As women in this region massively get involved in smallholder agriculture, making smallholders to be engaged in the tourism value chain is possibly a vital tool for advancing gender empowerment, in addition to promoting social inclusion. The women smallholders, who control the subsector, making up about 75% of its paid workforce in the region, would consider linkages with
horticulture as growth area (Uduji et al, 2019b). Openings for women smallholders to supply high-value horticulture products to tourism establishments can assist in ensuring a viable market for their products cum more consistent and higher levels of income, with incorporation into the tourism value chain making a very positive impact. We emphasized that organic farming, a fast growing agriculture subsector in the Niger Delta, is a prospective area of the development of strong linkages via directed interventions of GMoU. On the demand side, CDBs of tourism establishments can make available a market for local organic produce and a competitive edge that will favour smallholders. On the supply side, low entry barriers for pesticide-free produce supported by CDBs can allow local organic smallholders to make more money from higher-value products, thereby enhancing rural livelihood and actively contributing to poverty alleviation in the rural oil host communities.

5. Concluding remarks, caveats and future research directions

In the Nigeria’s oil producing communities, women’s involvement in economic, political and social development is frustrated by unequal access to resources and opportunities in addition to deplorable level of interpersonal violence. Though women make up about 75% of the farming population in the region, functioning as small-scale farm managers and suppliers of labour, their involvement in smallholder in the tourism value chain appear to be slowed down by the traditions and cultural norms in rural areas. As a result, women and girls in the region are far from gaining from the agritourism economic wealth when compared with their male counterparts. Thus, we set out to examine the effect of MOCs’ GMoU interventions on raising gender empowerment for women smallholder in the agriculture-tourism value chain development in Nigeria’s Niger Delta region. This paper is a plus to gender discourse in the sustainable African tourism development for transformative and inclusive growth literature from the CSR viewpoint, by looking at empirical facts in four areas of great interest in literature. We seek to ascertain the level of CSR investment that MOCs have made in the area of linking tourism to agricultural products and facilities, in addition to finding out the level of benefits from such investment that are available to the rural women and the effect on their trade. These four areas of focus similarly stand for four main questions notably:

i. What is the intensity of MOCs’ CSR investment in horticulture and organic farming for strengthening agriculture-tourism linkages in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?

ii. What is the level of the gender participation in the GMoU cluster interventions of the MOCs in the host communities?
iii. Do MOCs’ GMoU cluster interventions trigger positive changes in engaging rural women smallholders in the fresh produce, processed agricultural products and flowers for the tourism sector in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?

iv. Do MOCs’ GMoU cluster interventions advance gender empowerment for women smallholder in the tourism value chain in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?

Rural women (eight hundred in number) were sampled across the region. Results from the use of a logit model shows that rural women hardly partake in the global memorandum of understandings (GMoUs) interventions in agritourism value chain projects, as a result of the norms and culture of the rural communities. This means that if the tradition of the people continues to deter direct involvement of the rural women from GMoUs programmes, realizing gender equality and cultural change would be limited in the region, and rural women would never be able to gain economically from agritourism in comparison to their male counterparts. The discovery suggests that, GMoU interventions involving women smallholders in the tourism value chain can be a vital tool for advancing gender empowerment and promoting social inclusion. Also, cluster development boards (CDBs) should carefully monitor the degree of involvement of rural women in the GMoUs projects which may be restricted by traditions.

This paper extends and puts more on the literature regarding the role of oil in consolidating agriculture-tourism linkages through the involvement of women in Nigeria in five ways. Firstly, we show why gender inequality is a key area of interest in Nigeria’s oil producing communities. Secondly, we explore the potential of developing solid linkage between tourism and agricultural sector, which can stimulate economic expansion and structural transformation. Thirdly, unlike previous studies, this study adopts a quantitative methodology, based on the scarcity of quantitative works in the region. Fourthly, the study seeks to establish the level of CSR investment that MOCs have been engaged with in the area of agritourism as well as ascertain the extent of gain from such intervention that amass to rural women and its effect on their trade. Fifthly, we put forward a suggestion for increment of the involvement of rural women in the GMoU interventions of MOCs and how African tourism and inclusive growth may be made better. To our knowledge, this is the first study that looks at the role of CSR in consolidating agriculture-tourism linkages by involving women in Africa. The main limitation of the study is that it is restricted to the scope of the rural oil host communities in Nigeria. Hence, the results are not directly applicable to other developing countries with the same policy challenges. In the light of the limitation, replicating the analysis in other countries is
highly encouraged in order to ascertain whether the establishment nexuses withstand empirical scrutiny in the context of varied rural oil host communities of the world’s emerging economies.

**Declaration of Conflict of Interests**
The authors declared no potential conflict of interest as it concerns the research, authorship and/or publication of this article.

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