

**A CASE STUDY OF COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT PRACTICE
IN A PETROLEUM OPERATING COMPANY
IN SUDAN**

By

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And Allah increases those who were guided, in guidance, and the enduring good deeds are better to your Lord for reward and better for recourse.” [19:76]

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ABSTRACT

This case is about the community engagement practice of *JOC Petroleum*, a joint venture oil operating company in Sudan. Initially JOC Petroleum corporate community involvement started out as a voluntary initiative. However since Sudan's secession in July 2011 the voluntary act has now become a requirement to abide to the law of the newly formulated constitution of South Sudan. The aim of this case study is to analyze the community engagement practice in order for JOC Petroleum to sustain its corporate community involvement strategies and comply with the law. Data was collected through face to face interviews with seven interviewees from JOC Petroleum and their foreign partner. In addition JOC Petroleum internal documents were assessed. Gathered information was analyzed with three tools extracted from the engagement literature. The results of the case study show that JOC Petroleum is misguided in considering the community as independent stakeholders. This is due to the interchangeable understanding of the terms "stakeholders" with "community". As their engagement practice is mainly with the Sudanese authorities. It is suggested for JOC Petroleum to implement a participatory bottom –up approach of community engagement .Through conducting an inclusive, open dialogue that tolerates more insight views for development. The SWOT framework was proposed for JOC Petroleum, to use as a participatory tool to map sustainable strategies between the community and company.

ABSTRAK

Kajian mengenai amalan hubungjalin masyarakat oleh JOC Petroleum, sebuah syarikat usahasama minyak di Sudan, ini bermula sebagai inisiatif sukarela oleh komuniti korporat organisasi berkenaan. Amalan ini kemudiannya menjadi sebahagian daripada perlembagaan negara baru Sudan Selatan yang terbentuk ekoran dari perpecahan Sudan pada bulan Julai tahun lalu. Matlamat kajian adalah untuk mengkaji amalan hubungjalin masyarakat berkenaan untuk membolehkan komuniti korporat JOC Petroleum melestarikan strategi penglibatan mereka, di samping mematuhi undang-undang negara berkenaan. Sorotan literatur membantu mengenalpasti konsep hubungjalin masyarakat, bentuk hubungjalin yang wujud, serta kelebihan dan penilaian hubungjalin tersebut. Data kajian diperolehi menerusi temuramah secara bersemuka bersama tujuh responden yang terdiri daripada kakitangan JOC Petroleum beserta rakan niaga asing syarikat berkenaan. Di samping itu, dokumen dalaman JOC Petroleum turut dikaji. Tiga instrumen yang dibincangkan dalam sorotan literatur digunakan untuk mengkaji daya yang diperolehi. Hasil kajian menunjukkan anggapan bahawa komuniti adalah pihak berkepentingan bebas adalah tersasar dari konsep sebenar akibat kesalingtukaran penggunaan istilah “pihak berkepentingan” dengan “komuniti” oleh pihak berkuasa sebagai pihak yang paling banyak terlibat dengan amalan ini. Kajian ini mencadangkan agar JOC Petroleum melaksanakan amalan hubungjalin masyarakat menerusi penyertaan pendekatan bawah ke atas. Kaedah yang dicadangkan adalah dialog terbuka yang menyeluruh dan ianya hendaklah mengambilkira pandangan dalaman mengenai pembangunan. Rangka kerja SWOT adalah dicadangkan sebagai alat untuk merangka strategi kelestarian oleh komuniti dan syarikat berkenaan.

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background of the Case

The controversy with extractive industries operating in Sudan has been and still remains an ongoing concern. From the concerns about the poor and marginalized communities, to the environment and even the conflict arising from political boundaries, the list of the concerns is a long one. The extractive industry is commonly referred to as a “dirty business” .This is due to the unfavorable inevitable consequences from the industries operations such as environmental degradation, community displacement infringement of rights and pollution. These negative impacts directly affect the livelihood of the often vulnerable communities living in the operating area. That’s if they have not been forcefully displaced from their homes as a result of their targeted land as interests vested on it as an operational site.

Literature regarding this controversy in Sudan highlights the multinational oil corporations, and how their operations in Sudan have elicited much controversy and negative media attention from as early as the 1980s. According to the Human Rights Watch (2003), multinational oil corporations were seen as complicit in violence and displacement in many areas of Sudan by providing the government with revenues to do so. (Carmody, 2008; Patey, 2007; Westermann-Behaylo, 2010) by operations boosting and indirectly funding conflict (D’Agoût, 2009; Nour, 2011; Patey, 2007; Reeves, 2002) .

Such as the case of the Canadian petroleum company ,Talisman Energy’s potential complicity in supporting the government of North Sudan in alleged human rights

violations (Reeves 2002, Patey 2007, D'Agoût 2009, and Nour 2011) and behaviours that lead to environmental degradation (UNDO, 2010).

Despite the promising potential profits this valuable commodity often referred to as “black gold” holds, the stakes of operation remain increasingly high. However companies, as well as government and civil society, are assessing the social return on investments that companies make both locally and globally (CommDev, 2012).

These investments may involve, for instance, local human and institutional capacity building; or designing infrastructure – like roads or water supplies – to ensure benefits are created for the local people.

Hence to do so community engagement needs to be employed by organizations as a key strategy in order to incorporate representative community decision making, to ensure effectiveness of their investment. This can be done by giving “*voice to the local communities*” to participate in influencing development priorities (Fox, 2004).

Communities may possibly benefit from oil, gas and mining operations through direct compensation, royalties, equity participation in joint ventures, direct and indirect employment, business opportunities, enhanced services and improved infrastructure.

The extractive companies' continuous emergence and expansion tends to play a major role in the welfare of their host communities. That role could lead them to make even stronger commitments to community relations, as a subset to stakeholder engagement, to form the communal surrounding in which they operate, as they continue to contribute to community development surrounding their operations.

However whether these contributions yield positive impacts is often determined by the quality of the community engagement and accrued benefits that occur.

1.1 Problem statement

While the exploitation of natural resources has traditionally been seen as a vital part of economic growth, it has become well known that concern for environmental and social cost must be included. These costs are a key component of development activities (Garvin et al., 2009). Thereof while strengthening the economy at the national scale, it may present an entirely new set of problems at the scale of the local community, this is particularly true in the case of Sudan.

The oil industry vastly contributed to the Sudanese economy but its inevitable impacts have created problems. It raised apprehensions that companies are driving profits at the expense of the local communities surrounding the operational areas, and a cause of their environment's degradation and conflict.

The civil conflict between the Government of Sudan and a variety of armed forces, mostly in the southern part of the country, tore the country apart. A vicious war broke out for control over the oil fields at the south, between the Government of Sudan and armed rebel groups. The Southerners experienced harassment, attacks and forced displacement due to this conflict.

The Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005 ended the conflict then, but even with the stated commitments of benefits being accrued by the local communities living in the surrounding oil-extraction areas. The new arrangements brought about by the independence of the Southerners from the North remains to be seen.

On 9 July 2011, following a referendum in January 2011, South Sudan seceded from Sudan forming a new state - the Republic of South Sudan.

After the secession, community development projects from oil operating companies have become a requirement according to the Transitional Constitution of the Republic of South Sudan 2011 for all oil and gas investors.

With the new arrangement in efforts to address the aftermath of the conflict incurred, the Transitional Constitution of the Republic of the South has declared a Guiding Principles for Development and Equitable Sharing of Wealth to address the issue.

The constitution states the following:

- “The sharing and allocation of resources and national wealth shall be based on the premise that all states, localities and communities are entitled to equitable development without discrimination” (68.5),
- “Accountability for violations of human rights and degradation to the environment caused by petroleum and gas-related operations” is ensured (172.2).
- To create lasting benefits for society; 173:2 (b)
- Using oil revenues to develop other sectors of the economy; 173:2 (d)
- Ensure transparency and accountability; 173:2 (e)
- Promoting balanced and equitable development. 173:2 (g)

Though local communities benefited from development projects from the operational company, the once voluntary initiative undertaken by JOC Petroleum has now become a requirement for them to comply with the constitution. Thus, the issue of this case revolves around whether JOC Petroleum can deliver the lasting benefits to society and promote balanced and equitable development as stated in the guiding principles governing their operations using their current community engagement practice.

Given the constitutional change in Sudan and despite the resources spent on development projects by JOC Petroleum, there seems to be persistent criticism towards their projects (Fallet, 2010) .It is important for the company to fully engage so as to maintain their legitimacy from the government and gain social legitimacy to continue to operate. Hence, it is vital to evaluate their community engagement to know where they are lacking and where their problem lies that generates the criticism.

1.2 Research Objectives

Despite these positive steps taken towards oil exploitation, to address the issue of the impacts on the local community, the question as to how will the local community benefit from this natural resource? And whether the interest of the local community by identifying their real needs is taken into account by the oil industry investors?

Hence the objective of this case is to:

- Firstly, examine the current community engagement practice of the operating company (JOC Petroleum)
- Secondly, assess the effectiveness to what extent have the community played a role in profiling community development projects by:
 - Identifying the level of stakeholder dialogue
 - Classifying the type and level of engagement through their practice
 - Determine whether the practice comply with the nine elements of participatory practice
- Thirdly, identify the challenges faced by the organization in their community engagement

1.3 Research Questions

Thus the research questions for this study are as follows:

- What is the company's current practice for Community Engagement?
- What type and level of engagement does the company practice?
- At what level does the engagement dialogue take place?
- Is their approach to community engagement participatory?
- To what extent is the community involved in strategizing community development projects?

- What are the key challenges encountered?

1.4 Significance of the Study

Generally, the understanding of community engagement in Sudan is neither mature nor prevalent. While some companies are attempting to introduce the concept in a more modern understanding of CSR within their organisations, much of the local private sector in Sudan sees CSR as philanthropy or *sadaqah* (Ismail, 2011).

This case will attempt to fill this gap in the literature of community engagement. Through presenting the engagement practise of JOC Petroleum within the formulation of corporate social responsibility, particularly within their corporate community involvement projects.

Multinationals often refer to their stakeholder engagement activities in their CSR reports. While these references suggest stakeholder dialogue contribute to CSR activities but it is generally not reported how (Huijstee & Glasbergen, 2008).

Moreover, while publications provided a deeper insight of MNC CSR in developing countries, a close up shows that Africa is much less well researched than other regions (Kolk & Lenfant, 2009).

The subject was selected because of the critical and significant role this industry plays in the progress and maturity of the country and to their stakeholders: communities, employees, investors and nongovernmental organizations. To all that have an interest in the industry, especially after the perceived role the industry played in igniting the post conflict in Sudan.

1.5 Organization of Thesis:

Chapter 2 Literature Review

Chapter 3 Country and Industry Overview

Chapter 4 Research Methodology

Chapter 5 Case Write Up

Chapter 6 Case Analysis

Chapter 7 Conclusion and Recommendation

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a comprehensive review of past literature related to community engagement. Definitions, benefits, different forms of community engagement and assessment are explained. In addition to the concept of corporate community involvement and the stakeholder theory as the theoretical approach. This chapter also presents literature of community engagement in the mining and extractive industry and the role of the extractive multinational companies in developing countries.

2.1 Corporate Social Responsibility and Corporate Community Involvement

The term corporate social responsibility (CSR) is generally used to express the idea that companies have responsibility that extend beyond shareholders. As defined by the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) as “*the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the local community and society at large.*”

The concept has attained a high attention worldwide (De Bakker, Groenewegen, & Den Hond, 2005; Lockett, Moon, & Visser, 2006; Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Walsh, Weber, & Margolis, 2003) . Many now consider it a requirement for organizations to define and play a part in society while adhering to social, ethical, legal, and responsible standards (Lindgreen & Swaen, 2004; Luo & Bhattacharya, 2006).

From a CSR perspective, organizations provide the drivers and the potential to construct a better world (Friedman & Miles, 2002), and hence, experience increasing

pressure to do so and to demonstrate accountable corporate responsibility (Pinkston & Carroll, 1994). Not only must organizations deliver profits to shareholders but also are frequently subject to broader stakeholder interests and the need to demonstrate a balanced business perspective.

Therefore, organizations develop programs and policies in an effort to measure their social and environmental performance, while also engaging in consultations with stakeholders and, during this process, communicating their values to employees, environmental groups, local communities, and governments.

Carroll (1979) considers CSR to include “the legal, economic, ethical and discretionary philanthropic expectations that society has of organizations”. Given the relatively broad conceptualization of CSR, Carroll (2006), a more specified term has been used pertaining to the aspect that the company is involved within the community.

Zappala and Cronin (2003) define corporate community involvement (CCI) as an essential part of CSR that focuses on a company’s social impact which is of particular significance to non-profit organisations in community services.

Regardless of the relatively long literature on corporate community involvement debating the concept about the relationship of CCI with the broader CSR movement is ongoing (Carroll, 1999; Godfrey & Hatch, 2007) .

Related debates appeared in literature on similar topics, such as corporate philanthropy (Seifert, Morris, & Bartkus, 2003) , corporate social initiatives (Hess, D., Rogovsky, N., & Dunfee, T., 2002), and charitable giving (Brammer & Millington, 2004).

The term Corporate Community Involvement has been numerously defined , according to (Burke, Logsdon, Mitchell, Reiner, & Vogel, 1986) definition it is” the

provision of goods and services to non profit and civic organizations by corporations”. Moreover Van der Voot, Glac, and Mejis (2009) define it “as the donation of funds, the contribution of goods and services, and the volunteering of time by company employees that is aimed at non-profit and civic organizations.”

Consequently Rowe, Nowak, and Naude (2011) state corporate community involvement as “examining the structures and strategies companies have in place to provide financial and in-kind assistance as well as contributions of time and expertise to not-for-profit (NFP) organisations and community causes”.

According to Zappalà and Arli (2010) it is possibly one of the most visible aspects of corporate responsibility. More broadly it is therefore often that element of corporate responsibility where both financial (to the company) and social value can be generated.

However for this dual purpose value generation to occur, a particular approach to corporate community involvement is required, usually referred to as ‘strategic philanthropy’ or ‘*corporate community investment*’.

According to Muthuri (2007) the concept is evolving beyond philanthropy to an essential business function, from “*involvement*” to “*investment*”, directly related to companies maintaining their social license to operate .

This corporate community investment is emphasized by the London Benchmarking Group as: “*long-term strategic involvement in community partnerships to address a limited range of social issues chosen by the company in order to protect its long-term corporate interest and to enhance its reputation*” (LBG, 2010).

Various sources have considered ‘corporate community involvement’ as an aspect of CSR (Barnett, 2007; Carroll, 1979). Drawing on this definition, ‘corporate community

involvement' can thus be considered a synonym of 'corporate community investment' (Rowe et al., 2011).

CCI is the most established and biggest wave of CSR (Chapple & Moon, 2005), corporations are institutionalizing community involvement as seen in the drafting of social policies and budgets or in the setting up community affairs departments (Altman, 1998; Burke & Logsdon, 1996).

Corporate community involvement (CCI) is growing in importance as communities are identified as an important stakeholder (Carroll & Buchholtz, 2003).

However herein this case we apply Moon and Muthuri (2006) corporate community involvement definition which refers to it as "corporations that support the community by different means of support be it financial, material, or human skills through modes such as corporate donations, strategic philanthropy, employee volunteering, and *community driven development*"

2.2 Theoretical Approach: The Stakeholder theory

Scholars drew on other theories when it came to corporate community involvement and CSR such as the Resource Dependency theory, of the firm. In which corporations engage in corporate community involvement either for resource acquisition or for uncertainty reduction (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Or the Social Theory which states that corporations are part of the social system so they have both social and economic roles in the community (Petit, 1964). Both however are found to be viewed upon the stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984).

Stakeholders are defined by Freeman (1984) as "*groups and individuals who can affect, or are affected by, the achievement of an organization's mission*" or

alternatively as “those groups who have a stake in or a claim on the firm” (Evan & Freeman, 1988).

According to the stakeholder model of Donaldson and Preston (1995), a company must be aware of and respond to the various demands of its constituents, including employees, customers, investors, suppliers, and the local community .

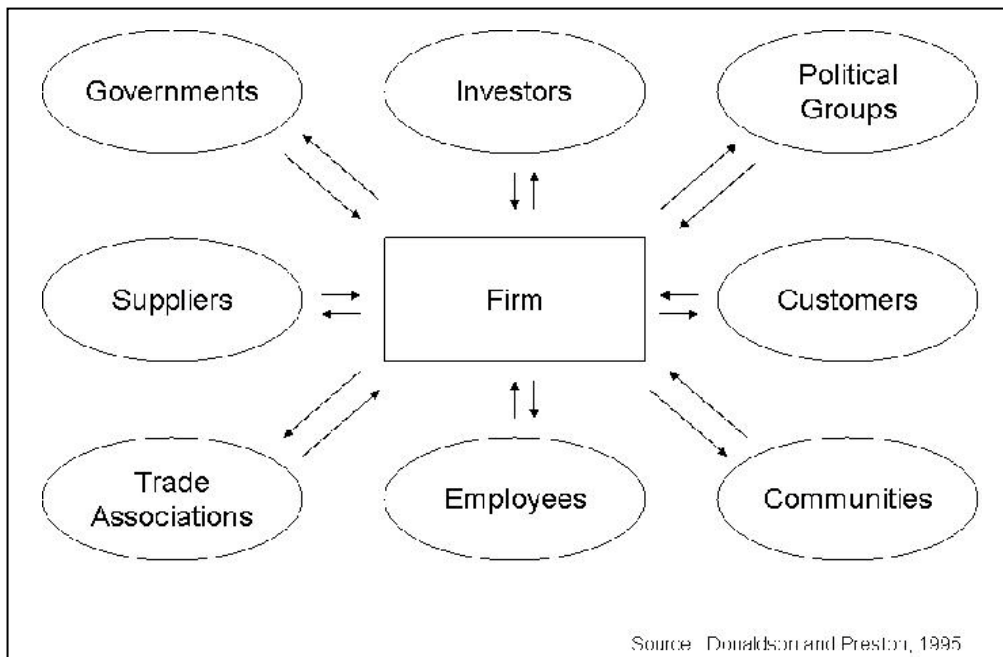


Figure 2.0 The Stakeholder Model *Source: Donaldson and Peterson (1995)*

The stakeholder model has become one that best reflects the modern understanding of companies as integrated in, rather than separated from, the rest of society .Without relationships, companies will find it difficult to seize and understand the changing nature of the values, attitudes, and behaviour of their stakeholders and respond to them accordingly. When applying these definitions, local communities are considered stakeholders.

Nonetheless, in spite of increased reference to the ‘community’ in CSR research, they remain the most complex, subjective, and difficult to identify and discuss of all

corporation's stakeholders (Dunham, Freeman, & Liedtka 2001; Greenwood, 2001; Kumar, 2005)

Though, the two terms stakeholder and community cannot be used interchangeably. Some important stakeholders come from outside a local community, but on the other hand, not all people in a community would consider themselves as stakeholders.

In the mining industry some mines have addressed this issue by referring to local communities as 'primary' stakeholders" or 'key' stakeholders. This recognizes the special significance of the host community, while also realizing the company's obligation to engage with stakeholders extends beyond the boundaries of that community. (Community Engagement Division, 2006)

2.3 Stakeholder Engagement

Stakeholder engagement has been defined as "practices that the organisation undertakes to involve stakeholders in a positive manner in organisational activities".

In defining stakeholder engagement in this manner, it manifest that many areas of organisational activity involve stakeholder engagement .(Greenwood 2007)

According to Phillips (1997) is "the involvement of stakeholders in a mutually benefiting scheme that marks a person or group as a stakeholder and merits them additional consideration".

The central claim of stakeholder approach is that corporations ought to be operated for the benefit of all those who have *stake* in the enterprise, including employees, customers, suppliers and the local community. A stakeholder is variously defined as "those groups who are vital to the survival and success of the corporations" and as any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the

organization's objectives". The concept of stakeholder groups and much of the success of the firm depends on how well of these stakeholders are managed.

Identifying and managing the concerns of stakeholders, is argued to help and avoid the risks of damaging publicity, and potentially increase the social capital of a firm(Burchelland & Cookn, 2006).

In ideal terms, stakeholder engagement would take the form of a mutually beneficial and just scheme of cooperation. However such a view depicts stakeholder engagement as a moral partnership of equals which in reality.

Greenwood (2007) argues is not exactly true, as it is highly likely that the organisation and its stakeholders are not of equal status and that the terms of any cooperation are set by the more powerful party.

Donaldson and Preston (1995) distinguish three uses of the stakeholder theory: descriptive, instrumental and normative. First the theory can be used as a description of the corporation that can enable us to understand the corporation better.

Second the stakeholder theory can be used instrumentally as a tool for managers to manage stakeholder relationships well, may lead to greater profit. Third the stakeholder theory can be used as a normative account of how corporations ought to treat their various stakeholder groups.

In the contexts where varied set of organisational stakeholders, engagement practices exist in many areas of organisational activity, such as public relations, customer service, supplier relations, management accounting and human resource management.

Greenwood (2007) states that engagement may be seen as a mechanism for consent and for control, as a mechanism for co-operation, accountability, as a form of employee involvement and participation, and as a method for enhancing trust, as a discourse to enhance fairness, and as a mechanism of corporate governance.

According to Donaldson (2002) despite the ubiquity of the stakeholder and stakeholder engagement activities, the engagement of stakeholders is an under theorised area.

When companies are merely seeking to publicize and communicate information, to presume that a company can actually engage in a one-way process of communication may be misleading in itself. As explained further by Crane & Livesey (2003), that though messages by other stakeholders provide them with an active role that often was not perceived by the companies themselves.

Therefore any process of communication to stakeholders is interactive by nature as the fundamentally dialogic nature of meaning-making is in fact implicit in every act of communication, whether it is explicitly recognised or not.

2.4 Stakeholder Dialogue

In consequence, terms like “participation,” “inclusion,” “voice,” “involvement,” “collaboration,” “partnerships,” and “engagement,” have always been present in CSR literature. Pedersen (2006) uses “stakeholder dialogue” to describe the involvement of stakeholders in the decision-making processes that concern social and environmental issues.

Calton and Payne (2003) state that stakeholder participation in decision-making “cannot be discarded as just another management fad” and is not “a utopian alternative to existing practices [but is] a promising next step toward conceiving, discussing, and taking action on actual (if messy) problems that occur in creating and sustaining stakeholder relationships”

In line with the stakeholder theory referring to social projects by multinational oil companies Jawahar and McLaughlin (2001) claim that some firms will listen

primarily to those who pose the greatest threat to their operations, not those best placed to contribute towards developmental aims. Hence aligned to what Greenwood (2007) claimed, that not all stakeholders are of equal status.

The stakeholder dialogue may presume different forms—from information ,about the company’s conduction to an open dialogue on a wide range of issues—and the quality of the dialogue process differs significantly(Harris, 2005).

The table 2.0, “Stakeholder Dialogue: Levels of Engagement” outlines the five dimensions of stakeholder dialogue and their equivalent levels of engagement pertaining to each dimension.

Table 2.0 Stakeholder Dialogue: Level of Engagement

Dimension	Level of Engagement	
	Low	High
Inclusion	Only few privileged stakeholders are included in dialogue	All relevant stakeholders are included in the dialogue
Openness	Dialogue is structured around a fixed set of questions/problems/issues	Dialogue is structured around open questions/problems/issues
Tolerance	One position has priority over all others	New alternative and critical voices are respected
Empowerment	One stakeholder dominates the dialogue decisions	Freedom and equality in dialogue as well as in decisions
Transparency	No access to information about the process and outcomes of the stakeholder dialogue	Full access to information about the process and outcomes of the stakeholder dialogue

Source: (Torfing, 2004; Young et al., 2003)

The relevance and significance for each dimension for the stakeholder dialogue is explained as follows:

- **Inclusion**: This concept recognizes the whole range of groups and interests in engagement. Specifically stating that” engagement must not only be with the ‘formal’ representatives of communities, but also with the whole range of groups and interests”(Hashagen, 2002)

- Openness: The relevance of the stakeholder dialogue and its impact will be limited if the problems and issues are fixed and pre determined by one stakeholder. A requirement for the participatory dialogue is open problems or issues that allow stakeholders to pass their own decisions and voice their opinions(Torring, 2004). When certain participants are allowed to eradicate potentially controversial issues before or during the stakeholder dialogue, the level of engagement is limited (Lukes, 2005)
- Tolerance: The dialogue must be tolerant to all views, if some rationales take priority over others, the dialogue will apparently favor the stakeholders that hold these positions. For instance, if arguments based on “efficiency” and “profit” is considered to be more legitimate than arguments referring to “fairness” or “the public good,” the results of the dialogue will be obvious from the start and biased(Young et al., 2003).
- Empowerment: This concept calls for freedom and equality in dialogue as well as in decisions, low levels of commitment and imbalances of power in participation will lead to low levels of freedom and equality in the dialogue point. For instance, if only some participants have decision-making authority or if rules and procedures favor one participant over the others, the stakeholder dialogue moves away from the participatory ideal to inequality in the engagement process.(Pedersen, 2006).
- Transparency: The degree of transparency is an important element in the stakeholder dialogue because neither the involved parties nor outsiders are able to hold the company (or the stakeholders) accountable without access to information about the process and outcomes of the dialogue. If there is no information available on the implementation of the decisions from the

stakeholder dialogue, it is not possible to evaluate whether it has been a participatory approach to problem solving or just a public relations exercise (Young et al., 2003).

2.5 The Community

The stakeholder “community” is thought of in different ways it is one of the most difficult of a firm’s stakeholders to identify (M. R. Greenwood, 2001). Community can be defined as combining elements of ‘locality’, ‘arrangement of interests’, and ‘collective action’ (Taylor, Wilkinson, & Cheers, 2006).

Furthermore communities consist of several actors interacting within a ‘field’ where socially created expectations and practices are generated and reproduced (Silverman, 1970).

Whereas in the dictionary the word ‘public’ refers to ‘the community or the people as a whole’, there are many ‘publics’ to consider. ‘Community’ may mean groups of people and may be relevant to a geographic location, shared interests or identity (CEN, 2005; Falk & Surata, 2008; Hashagen, 2002).

Falk and Surata (2008) state “a community of place is more complex than a single network; it consists of members with numerous identities and roles, whom belong to a number of networks within their own community and others”

The CTSA (1997) outlined four of the most relevant perspectives which provide different insights into the process of community engagement; systems perspective, social perspective, virtual and individual perspective.

First from a systems perspective, a community is similar to a living creature, comprising different parts that represent specific functions, activities, or interests,

each operating within precise boundaries to meet community needs. For instance, schools role in education, the transportation sector in moving people and products around, economic organisations provide an enterprise and employment, and health care agencies focus on the prevention and treatment of diseases (Henry, 2011). According to B. Thompson and Kinne (1990) healthy community has well-connected, interdependent sectors that share responsibility for recognizing and resolving problems and enhancing its well-being and successfully addressing a community's complex problems requires integration, collaboration, and coordination of resources from all the parts.

Secondly a social perspective ,like tracing social ties among individuals may help engagement leaders to identify a community's leadership, understand its behaviour patterns, identify its high-risk groups, and strengthen its networks (Minkler & Pies, 1997). Hence a community can also be defined by describing the social and political networks that link individuals, community organizations, and leaders these networks are critical to planning efforts in engagement.

Thirdly, social groups or groups with a common interest that interact in an organized fashion on the Internet are considered "virtual communities" (Rheingold, 2000; Ridings, Gefen, & Arinze, 2002).

The fourth and last perspective by the philosopher and psychologist William James suggest that individuals are thinking about themselves in more complex ways than was the norm in years past. The multiple communities that might be relevant for any individual including families, workplace, and social, religious, and political associations .Moreover, they may have a sense of belonging to more than one

community .In addition, their sense of membership can change over time and may affect their participation in community activities (Minkler & Wallerstein, 2004).

Previously before outlining these insights, the discussion of ‘community’ was rightly criticised as a ‘spray-on solution’ for a range of social and economic issues Bryson and Mowbray (1981), they claimed the term ‘community’ is notoriously vague and value-laden. It is often a euphemistic term which glosses over the social, economic and cultural differentiation of localities or peoples and often implies a misleading sense of identity, harmony, cooperation and inclusiveness.

2.6 Community Engagement

A subset to stakeholder engagement, Hashagen (2002) states that the use of the word ‘engagement’ as a “need for those within a community to plan to think clearly about the communities they are working with, to understand their history, culture and nature of their current existing organisation and networks, in addition to their scope of local needs and the issues that arise and how the community encounters them, strengths of the community that may be built on, and the nature of existing dialogue and participation in the community”.

Community engagement generally comes out as people obligate to taking action in various context such as in education (Vickers, Harrisa, & McCarthy, 2004) health(Nakibinge et al., 2009) and in sustainability (A. Nelson & Pettit, 2004) .Various existing organizations over the years define community engagement

objectively. Table 2.1 presents some of the various definitions of community engagement.

Table 2.1 Community Engagement Definition

Definition	Source
Community engagement: “ongoing interactive process characterized by commitment to ever changing community needs and interests.”	(Industry Canada, 2002)
Community engagement is about members of a community participating in the decisions and actions that help to shape their community.	(Fraser Basin Council, 2003)
The purpose of community engagement “is to involve the public in decisions that will ultimately affect their lives”.	(Robinson et al., 2006)
“Community engagement is the process of working collaboratively with and through groups of people affiliated by geographic proximity, special interest, or similar situations to address issues affecting the well-being of those people	(Fawcett, Paine-Andrews, & Francisco, 1995)
Community engagement: the process of getting the community involved in local efforts and activities. This provides another alternative approach to community engagement, which enables Tamarack to decide how they fit into the mix of organizations using community engagement.	(Malheur Commission on Children and Families, 2002)

<p>Community engagement: “a process, not a program. It is the participation of members of a community in assessing, planning, implementing, and evaluating solutions to problems that affect them. As such, community engagement involves interpersonal trust, communication, and collaboration. Such engagement, or participation, should focus on, and result from, the needs, expectations, and desires of a community's members”</p>	<p>(Minnesota Department of Health, 2002)</p>
<p>Engagement: in active sense: That which engages or induces to a course of action; an inducement, motive</p>	<p>(Townshend, 2002)</p>
<p>Community engagement: “a wide range of practices suited to different situations or purposes, guided by a common set of values, principles and criteria.”</p>	<p>(Bureau of Rural Sciences, 2002)</p>
<p>The term community engagement broadly captures public processes in which the general public and other interested parties are invited to contribute to particular proposals or policy changes.</p>	<p>(Department of Planning, 2003)</p>
<p>Community engagement: “activities designed to give the local community an opportunity to contribute to decision making on [drug-related issues]”</p>	<p>(Effective Interventions Unit, 2002)</p>
<p>Community engagement: “the whole span of activities that support the involvement of residents, community groups, service users,</p>	<p>(Kirklees Metropolitan Council, 2002)</p>

<p>carers, and businesses, in decision-making processes, shaping and informing the way services are delivered, and working with the council to improve their communities.”</p>	
<p>Community engagement: “the process of working collaboratively with groups of people affiliated by geographic proximity, special interest, or similar situations to address issues affecting their well-being.</p>	<p>(Community Engagement Unit, 2002)</p>
<p>Community engagement: “refers to arrangements for citizens and communities to participate in the processes used to make good policy and to deliver on programs and services.”</p>	<p>(Community Engagement Division, 2001)</p>
<p>defines engagement as being “predicated on creating the necessary conditions to support a new relationship between expert and lay understandings of an issue, one that promotes learning about different perspectives, views, and knowledge and that designing and delivering an engagement process does not just involve transforming expert or technical information into a publically accessible form, but also involves “translating practical questions and public problems into an expert discourse”</p>	<p>(Petts, 2006)</p>

In spite of the variance of the defining sources nature of operation little difference exists but there appears to be some affiliation or a common ground between them all. That as a result, comprehends the overall concept of community engagement that includes the usage of terms such as “process”, “collaboration”, “participation”

and “involvement”. Basically we can conclude from the various definitions above that it is a process that basically involves the terms collaboration, participation and involvement.

2.7 The Typologies for Community Engagement

Forms of community engagement vary according to the level of engagement an organisation attempts to achieve. The previous literature that has been narrated relates to community engagement with a focus on participation as a form of community engagement however as the levels of engagement range from informing to empowerment, different community engagement strategies will be applied. Therefore, community engagement can be functional in a number of ways.

The International Association for Public Participation (IAPP) has summarised and advantageously categorised the ‘scale’ of public participation, it distils to five main types of the process: informing, consulting, involving, collaborating and empowering citizens. These constitute an ascending spectrum of participatory forms, from weaker to stronger forms as shown in Fig 2.1.

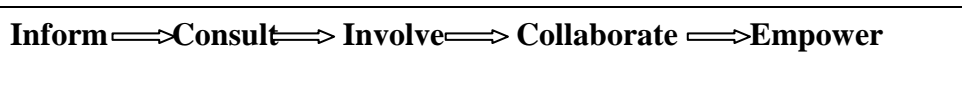


Figure 2.1 The IAP2 Public Participation Spectrum *Source:*(IAP2, 2007)

Thus community engagement is typically defined along a scale of participation, ranging from the passive recipients of information, to self-empowered communities that initiate actions independent of external agents L. Thompson, Stenekes, Kruger, and Carr (2009).