



Community involvement in the implementation of the
National Policy on Public-Private Partnership: a study of
infrastructural development in Lagos State, Nigeria

by

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DECLARATION

I, Oladimeji Abiodun Ashade declare that this thesis is my original work.

Where text, graphics, pictures or illustrations are derived from other sources, I affirm that I have duly acknowledged the source and have provided detailed information about the source in the reference section.

I also declare that this thesis has not been submitted, in part or whole, for any examination or any academic award at any other institution of learning.

The work is produced in strict compliance with the ethical standards of the UKZN research code of conduct guiding social research.

.....

Ashade Oladimeji Abiodun

December 2020

.....

Prof. Sybert Mutereko

December 2020

DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to my jewel of inestimable value,

Late Mrs Maria Oluwayemisi Ashade.

Mum wished to see me complete this programme in her lifetime; she was fervent in prayers, encouraging me during those trying times but God called you home amid the storm, June 3, 2020.

I could sense your fulfilment wherever you are this day that all ends well after all.

‘TO GOD BE THE GLORY’

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ABSTRACT

Undoubtedly, public-private partnership (PPP) has emerged as a policy tool for infrastructural financing, optimisation and maintenance through an appropriate policy framework. The policy framework of PPP is expected to promote collaborative governance through democratic values in the partnership agenda. These ideals have positively impacted on design and implementation of PPP policy in the developed nations. Ironically, a series of resentments, public outbursts, complaints and agitation that followed the implementation of the National Policy on PPP in Nigeria heightened the need for this study. These unwholesome developments usually arise from the host communities over claims to certain rights or due to their exclusion in certain critical decisions connected to the PPP projects implementation agenda. Using Lagos State, Nigeria as a case study, the researcher draws substantially from the themes of collaborative governance theories among others to examine how the National Policy on PPP in Nigeria aligns with the state's policy to accommodate the host communities in the infrastructural policy implementation framework (PPP-IPIF).

The multi-theoretical approach adopted is premised on the researchers' pragmatic philosophical orientation to evaluate theories or beliefs in line with practical applications. Hence, data were sourced, presented and analysed using different statistical tools. Conclusions were drawn based on the combined strength of both qualitative and quantitative data using a triangulation/nested method. The major finding of the study suggests that the existing PPP implementation framework has not effectively incorporated the host communities by creating an institutionalised function for them. Therefore, their involvement or non-involvement in project implementation was left to the discretions of private project handlers. The study also established that, beyond compensation, the host communities desired to take an active part in the PPP policy implementation framework. Before this study, our knowledge of PPP infrastructural project governance was sketchy. It is against this background that this study employs the theoretical viewpoints of collaborative governance and participation theories, to advance the knowledge of host community stakeholding in PPP implementation. The study analyses the framework upon which the projects were established and the extent to which participatory values were institutionalised in the collaborative arrangement. The study concluded that PPP is a collaborative governance model whose implementation is still at the experimental stage in Nigeria; the researcher, therefore, develops a workable model as part of the recommendation based on the study's experiential findings.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND MEANING

ADB	-	Asian Development Bank
AfDB	-	African Development Bank
APPC	-	Annual Public-Private Partnership Conference
BID	-	Background Information Document
BOO	-	Build- Own-Operate
BOOT	-	Build Own Operate & Transfer
BOT	-	Build-Operate-transfer
BTO	-	Build-Transfer-Operate
CBA	-	Cost-Benefit Analysis
CBO	-	Community Based Organisation
CBPR	-	Community-based Participatory Research
CCBI	-	Community Capacity Building Initiative
CDA	-	Community Development Association
CDC	-	Community Development Committee
CGM	-	Collaborative Governance Model
CRS	-	Corporate Social Responsibility
DBF	-	Design-Build-Finance
DBFM	-	Design-Build-Finance-Maintain
DBFMO	-	Design-Build-Finance-Maintain-Operate
DBFO	-	Design- Build-Finance- Operate
DBFORM	-	Design-Build-Finance-Operate-Rehabilitate-Maintain
DCMF	-	Design-Construct-Manage and Finance
DGT	-	Democratic Governance Theory
EIA	-	Environmental Impact Assessment
EOI	-	Expression of Interest
EPSR	-	Electric Power Sector Reform Act
ESD	-	Exploratory Sequential Design
ESIA	-	Environment Social Impact Assessment
FGD	-	Focus Group Discussion
ICRC	-	Infrastructure Concession Regulatory Commission
ICRCA	-	Infrastructure Concession Regulatory Commission Act
IPP	-	Independent Power Project
IPIF	-	Infrastructural Project Implementation Framework
LASG	-	Lagos State Government
LBS	-	Lagos State Bureau of Statistic
LCC	-	Lekki Concession Company
LCDA	-	Local Council Development Authority
LEEDS	-	Local-level Economic Empowerment Development Strategy
LFZDC	-	Lekki Free-Trade Zone Development Company
LOPPP	-	Lagos State Office of Public-Private Partnership
LSR	-	Lagos State Roads bridges and infrastructure (Private sector participation)

LTIC	-	Long Term Infrastructural Contract
LUA	-	Land Use Act, 1978
LWC	-	Lagos State Water Corporation
LWIL	-	Lekki Worldwide Investment Limited
MDAs	-	Ministries, Department and Agencies
MDG	-	Millennium Development Goal
MoU	-	Memorandum of Understanding
NEEDS	-	National Economic Empowerment Development Strategy
NEPAD	-	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NEPZA	-	Nigeria Export Processing Zones Authority
NERC	-	Nigerian Electrical Regulatory Commission.
NG	-	Network Governance
NGO	-	Non-Governmental Organisation
NGT	-	Network Governance Theory
NIAF	-	Nigeria Infrastructural Advisory Facility
NP4	-	National Policy on Public-Private Partnership
NPM	-	New Public Management
OBC	-	Outline Business Case
OECD	-	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PFI	-	Private Finance Initiative
PHs	-	Project Handlers
PPP-PIF	-	PPP policy implementation framework
PPIAF	-	Public-Private infrastructure Advisory facility
PPP	-	public-private partnership
PSP	-	private sector participation
PSP	-	Private Sector Participation
RBOT	-	Rehabilitate build operate and transfer
RFP	-	Request for Proposal
SEEDS	-	State Economic Empowerment Development Strategy
SERAC	-	Social and Economic Rights Action Center
SOE	-	State-Owned Enterprises
SPV	-	Special Purpose Vehicle
SURE-P	-	Subsidy Re-investment & Empowerment Programme
VfM	-	value for money

CHAPTER ONE

BROAD OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

In this introductory chapter, the researcher presents a general overview of what the entire study entails. The chapter begins with the background information about the broad issue of infrastructural governance through the National Policy on Public-Private Partnerships (NP4) and the imperatives of community involvement in the implementation of the National Policy. Subsequent sections provide details of the statement of the problem, the purpose and the objectives of the study. The chapter also offers information regarding the research questions, the scope and factors that place some limitations on the study. The last two sections present the significance of the study and the structure of the entire thesis consecutively.

1.2 Background of the study

The infrastructural deficit across Africa is not only limiting the continent's growth and development; it is also impeding the attainment of sustainable development goals (SDG) for nations in sub-Saharan Africa (Shen *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, most African governments are opting for policy reforms to address their infrastructural problems (Rana & Izuwa, 2018). PPP thus emerges as a policy instrument for any government with limited resources and has infrastructural development as its core objective. The concept creates the opportunity for financiers, mostly private firms, outside the purview of government circle to invest in infrastructural development due to the huge capital outlay required in that sector (Dickson & Sullivan, 2014; Iboh, Adindu & Oyoh, 2013; Oyedele, 2012; Mafusire *et al.*, 2010).

The involvement of the private sector in infrastructural development has changed the role of government across the globe. This development has bestowed a level of pluralism on a contemporary modern state where multiple actors partner to deliver public infrastructure. Hence, the policy system for infrastructural development and governance has also been significantly impacted (Desai & Rudra, 2019; Zen, 2019; Dickinson, 2016). A pluralised policy environment that transcends the narrow focus of state regulation thus emerged (Euchner & Preidel, 2018). The complexity of the contemporary governance arrangement also demands that those who were hitherto the subject of laws and policies have now become partners and co-owners of policy (Brinkerhoff & Brinkerhoff, 2011; Fung, 2006; Smith, 2018). If the goal of

PPP is to achieve sustainable development in a peaceful environment, a key policy priority should therefore be given to planning and public participation in terms of stakeholder's involvement. Moreover, the policy should be implemented in a manner that will promote sustainable development, encourage public acceptance and guarantees, the limits of practicability, the safety of the communities (Pierobon, 2019; Norton & Hughes, 2018). It, therefore, behoves the government to put in place the necessary institutional and legislative framework towards cooperative governance (Malan, 2012; Neshkova & Guo, 2012).

PPP models are generally seen to be “theoretically appealing” (Jayasuriya, 2016; PPIAF, 2016 Pesoa, 2008:1); however, there are challenges with the implementation of this governance model, especially in the developing nations (PPIAF, 2016; OECD, 2015). Ideally, the measure of PPP success should not be attributed singly to value for money (VfM). It was pointed out that issues of governance, public acceptability, clear policy statement and strong public sector management are also critical (Osei-Kyei *et al.*, 2017; Campbell & Im, 2016; Hodge & Greve, 2014; Yong, 2010). Therefore, its implementation requires a level of financial sustainability and political commitment through a clear policy framework and efficient support institutions that harness public support and legitimacy (Bhoroma, 2018; Jayasuriya, 2016; Amsel, 2016; Li *et al.*, 2005). These are major constraints that make the implementation of PPP in most developing countries appear more theoretical rather than practicable because “PPPs, by themselves are no guarantee of successful policy implementation” (Osborne, 2002: 4).

The design and implementation of PPP projects in developed nations have significantly improved their policy outcomes (Gaventa and Barrett, 2012; Speer, 2012). Through an appropriate policy framework, England and Wales implemented PPP towards urban regeneration successfully. The policy framework accommodates “three-way partnerships between public authorities, businesses and local communities” (Carroll & Steane, 2000: 46). On the contrary, studies have substantially linked the failure of PPPs to lack of support from the citizenry when implementing the PPP policies (Jayasuriya *et al.*, 2016; Hall, 2015). Therefore, social support for PPP policy is an emerging factor that requires a critical consideration as part of governance in the new arrangement (Babatunde *et al.*, 2012). It is therefore incumbent on both the central and the sub-national governments to develop a capacity to engage stakeholders' involvement at the early stages of ‘problem setting’ which action would include “addressing the stakeholders concern” (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 190) Through policy frameworks that accommodate every stakeholder and social partners, PPP has recorded remarkable successes in developed countries like US, UK,

Hong Kong, Canada and Australia (De Schepper, S., Dooms, M. & Haezendonck, E. 2014; Ng, Wong & Wong, 2012; Osborne,2002). Similarly, such a policy framework has also put the BRICS countries like South Africa in the league of successful implementors (BRICS, 2018) while most other developing countries are still fraught with policy inconsistencies and irregularities bothering on governance (Sulser, 2018)

Inspired by the policy outcome of PPP in the developed nations in terms of infrastructural financing, implementation and management, the Nigerian government found collaborations with the private sector a viable option in driving its infrastructural development. It, therefore, imported PPP ideology with the establishment of the Infrastructure Concession Regulatory Commission (ICRC) in 2008. The ICRC oversees the requisite legal, financial, regulatory and institutional framework for all ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) at the national level who desire to partner with the private sector in line with *ICRC Act of 2005*. In line with the Act that establishes ICRC, the Commission also developed the National Policy on Public-Private Partnership (NP4). This policy serves to highlight the broad legal and institutional framework for every aspect of PPP activity in Nigeria thereby placing PPP in the realm of public policy (Verhoest, 2014).

The ICRC superintends all ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) who desire to partner with the private sector in line with the *ICRC Act, 2005* (Onuobia *et al.*, 2017). In the policy document, ICRC proposes collaborative strategies with the states, civil society organisations and the general public to avert undesirable consequences in policy implementation (ICRC, 2013: 3). The public authorities and its private partners are mandated to work with the communities in providing vital services bearing direct impact on the people to “mitigate socially unacceptable outcomes” in the implementation of PPP policy (ICRC, 2013: 12). PPP policy implementors are supposed to ensure adequate communication and consultation with the host communities. The NP4 recognises and empowers the federating units to make extant laws towards effective implementation of PPP in their respective tiers (Onuobia *et al.*, 2017; Soyaju, 2013). The Commission also develops a national policy implementation framework with sub-national governments in Nigeria for policy consistency, global benchmarking and coordination (ICRC, 2013: 7).

The Lagos State Government, in line with the national policy framework, creates a supportive regulatory framework for the implementation of PPP. The state government also enacts the

Lagos State Public Procurement Law (2011) and creates administrative institutions like the Lagos State Office of Public-Private Partnership (LOPPP) in 2011. The implementation of PPP rests on the new public sector management philosophy of governance. However, the policy frameworks for PPP implementation in Nigeria do not seem to capture the whole essence of governance. Based on the literature, governance is seen as those interactions and relationships which give attention and respond to citizen's and stakeholders' interests (Moynihan & Ross, 2014; Hodge & Greve, 2016). A report on an evaluation conducted recently by the Center for Ethics and Sustainable Development (CESD), Lagos, Nigeria in collaboration with the Center for Public Policy Alternatives (CPPA) rates Lagos State very low in the overall assessment of the state's policy environment, administrative processes and policy framework for the implementation of PPP. The evaluation which was conducted with other stakeholders drawn from Ministries, Department and Agencies (MDAs), community-based associations (CBAs), academics, professionals and other practitioners use measuring indices that include: (1) affected community engagement, (2) strategic communication, and (3) PPP project governance variables (Sustyvibe, 2016). The report reflects that the implementation of PPP is still facing some adversarial challenges occasioned by interest representation and non-conformance with due collaborative governance process. However, an array of items in the Literature has demonstrated that the problem is not restricted to Lagos State but that it is common to most developing societies that have embraced PPP as a policy tool for infrastructural development (Sulser, 2018; Osei-Kyei & Chan, 2017; Delmon, 2017). In view of this, PPP implementation and evaluation have drawn the attention of scholars from various fields of study.

This development also points to the need for community-centred strategies in the implementation of PPP policy in Lagos State as highlighted in the national policy White Paper. Although, the national policy advocates the involvement of the community in the PPP implementation process; in practical terms, there seems to be a skill deficit in the broad policy statement being translated into practical social cohesion implementation. Hence, international organisations like the Department for International Development (DFID), Public-Private Infrastructural Advisory Facility (PPIAF), and the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) are committed to assisting developing nations in policy design and rendering other support services to PPP policy implementation (World Bank Group, 2019; PPIAF, 2016; OECD, 2015). However, the major challenge is the limited information on the factors that influence the successful implementation of adaptation in the developing countries.

The policies are drafted using the benchmarks of the developed nations which ignore the peculiar circumstances of developing nations.

Policy authors, at the dawn of the new millennium, expressed concern that scholars in the field of policy are predominantly preoccupied with policy agendas and processes, neglecting themes of policy implementation outcomes (Newig & Koontz, 2014; O'Toole, 2000; deLeon, 1999). Also, writings on infrastructural development have been focusing on process analysis for effective delivery systems leaving out the aspects of project governance and community support. With the widened range of publications on community involvement in public policy, it was observed that the focus has been on specific policy spheres like health and education; negligible attention was given to infrastructural governance. Moreover, scholarly works on PPP policy implementation from the standpoint of community involvement in the developing nations could not be established. Having identified the lacunas in the literature, this study analysed how the institutional framework at the sub-national level aligns with the National Policy on PPP to promote community stakeholding for effective PPP policy performance. The study did not only explore the processes but also analysed the outcome using a community-based participatory research (CBPR) approach.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Public-private partnerships (PPPs) are being promoted as a solution to countries having fiscal constraints to improve public infrastructure and services. It has emerged as a policy tool to the severe infrastructural crisis facing nations globally. The governments of most developing nations see it as a last resort to build their infrastructure while the developed nations consider it as the best option to mitigate the high cost of infrastructural maintenance. PPP defines a variety of arrangements involving the public and the private sector (including other non-state actors) working together in a way to produce public goods efficiently and effectively. The working of PPP is to make private companies, finance, build and operate elements of the public service and the company gets paid over years by charging the end-users (Concession) or by being paid by the government, or by both. However, the policy framework for the implementation of PPP ought to reflect good governance and public acceptance (Osei-Kyei & Chan, 2017; Hodge & Greve, 2014).

Ideally, an effective policy design explores extra-formal interactions within the policy community (Tosun & Treib, 2018; Cahn, 2013; Akintoye and Beck, 2009). Opinion, therefore,

has it that implementation of any PPP policy should strive to promote democratic values of all the stakeholders in the partnership agenda through wider collaboration, the fostering of legitimacy and shared governance (Nederhand and Klijn, 2016; Mehraz, 2016; Hudon, 2011). For instance, studies have berated PPP for information non-disclosure, poor public participation and weak reporting systems (Musawa *et al.*, 2017; Hodge & Greve, 2011). It is reported that 10 to 20% of investors in the development projects fail to consult with their host communities (Norton & Hughes, 2018). Meanwhile, involving communities in developmental projects is an effective approach by which local knowledge is incorporated into project planning, implementation and other intervention areas in the community-driven developmental and participatory process (Norton & Hughes, 2018; Cocciolo & Ghisolfi, 2017).

The provision of a positive and constructive role for the local people in the planning process influences local support for new infrastructure around the local terrains. Any hindrance to the flow of interactions, communication and inclusive governance between stakeholders in the PPP policy implementation tends to create a policy gap. The policy gap, no matter how insignificant, always generates resentments, mutual suspicion, overt and covert conflicts. The conflicts of non-inclusion from the less-privileged community groups do not produce effects that are preemptive and dichotomous but are rather multi-faceted (Capano & Woo, 2018; Dean, 2018). These un-envisioned developments serve as impediments to the attainment of most policy objectives.

Ironically, there have been a series of expressed resentments, public outbursts, complaints and agitation following the implementation of the National Policy on PPP. For instance, the communities around the toll gate at Lekki Epe Road held a series of demonstrations over the introduction of a toll on the highway by the concessionaire private partner. There is also a perceived misconception that the commonwealth is being handed over to private enterprise; therefore, PPP is seen to be elitists with those in charge showing exploitative tendencies (Adama, 2018; Nwogbo, Okoli & Anthony, 2017). Owing to this perception PPP implementation is characterised by several litigations in Nigeria owing to a lack of trust in the governance arrangement (Opawole & Jagboro, 2017). These resentments often arise mainly from the host communities where most of the infrastructural projects are situated or otherwise, affected. Such matters have received little or no scholarly attention. The focus of policy analysts and writers has been on the policy process rather than on looking at the impact of the policy in

the social context of Nigeria (Erumebor, 2017; Opawole & Jagboro, 2017; Bamidele, Adenusi & Osunsanmi, 2016; Esia & Yusuf, 2013). A few works of literature that have attempted to study the challenges facing the host communities concerning the location of megaprojects focus more on the socio-economic exploitation and environmental degradation of the community in which the projects are being implemented. Far too little attention is paid to the project governance at it concerns the host communities (Arimoro, 2019; Lawanson & Agunbiade, 2018; Tagliarino, Bununu, Micheal, De Maria & Olusanmi, 2018). The only study found to have conducted a structured research into community participation in PPP (Mehraz, 2016) restricts itself to the narrow process of local-level planning and evaluation based on the recognized metrics of quality practices in a developed nation using a qualitative approach. Therefore, infrastructural governance in the context of policy initiatives and community involvement in developing nations has received scant attention in the literature. Hence, this study shifts from measuring the success of PPP projects in terms of vfm, impact assessment and social responsibility to analysing project performance using its governance arrangement as a yardstick. It is believed that PPP will be better appraised if its infrastructural policy implementation framework (IPIF) does not place the host communities in any form of socio-economic disadvantage although, Markantoni *et al.* (2018) have demonstrated that the causes of community resilience are oftentimes beyond economic whys and wherefores. This study, therefore, applied the constructs that emanate from collaborative governance theory to analyse the variables that serve as inducers or inhibitors to the host communities taking part in the implementation process of the NP4 in Nigeria.

1.4. The aim of the study

Using the CBPR approach, this current study draws from collaborative governance theorists to analyse how Lagos State PPP-IPIF aligns with the NP4 to promote collaborative ideals that could earn public trust and promote shared governance with the host communities to achieve PPP policy objectives and a workable infrastructural governance system in Nigeria.

1.5 Research questions

This study is guided by the following research questions:

1. How has the institutional framework for the implementation of NP4 facilitated community participation in the execution of PPP infrastructural projects in selected communities of Lagos State?
2. How does the involvement or non-involvement of the communities at the outset of the implementation impact trust and community support for the NP4 in Lagos State?
3. How have community leadership activities and attributes impacted community involvement in the implementation of NP4 in the selected communities?
4. How have the existing participatory mechanisms fostered the collaborative involvement of the host communities in the execution of PPP projects in the selected communities of Lagos State?

1.6 Research objectives

1. To investigate the extent to which the institutional framework for the implementation of the National Policy on PPP facilitates the involvement of the host communities in the execution of PPP infrastructural projects in the selected communities of Lagos State.
2. To ascertain the impact of early involvement or non-involvement of the communities in the implementation of the Policy on Public-Private Partnership on trust and community support for NP4.
3. To find out the influence of community leaders' activities and attributes in facilitating participatory governance in the selected communities in the implementation of NP4.
4. To analyse the existing collaborative process and mechanisms at the sub-national level and their effectiveness in fostering inclusive governance concerning NP4 implementation in the selected communities of Lagos State.

1.7 Significance of the study

This study should advance the knowledge of community participation in infrastructural development and governance. The study empirically addressed the issue of inclusive governance which has always posed a serious threat to the implementation of PPP in Nigeria. Usually, both the government and key parties to policies seek to alter or influence each other's priority which often leads generate conflict. The study is considered desirable because it

critically examined infrastructural governance through a PPP policy framework and the host community's effective involvement as one of the determinants of successful implementation or otherwise. While the issue is addressed in this study is contemporary, surprisingly, there seems to be a dearth of literature that has given empirical attention to it.

The findings and knowledge that emerged from this study should be beneficial to stakeholders within the PPP framework - policymakers, bureaucrats and scholars. The study also created an opportunity for the host communities to speak their minds and to share their expectations of the infrastructural development policy as it affects them. The findings that emanated from this study should assist policymakers and administrators to ascertain the feelings of the people about PPP policy and to develop an efficient framework that is all-inclusive. Based on experiential findings, the researcher developed a community-centric model that creates an institutional role for the host community to reduce tendencies for antagonistic posturing that always creates considerable tension in the polity.

Moreover, this study should make a key contribution to the existing research undertaken by project managers on the need to recognise certain stakeholders to avert problems that are linked to feuds with the project host. Lastly, the researcher believes that this study has made a significant contribution to the existing body of knowledge in collaborative governance as well as community participation by developing a community-centric model of collaborative governance for PPP implementation. Lastly, this dissertation should, no doubt, serve as resource material for scholars in advancing the theory of 'collaborative policy networks' concerning community participation in project governance.

1.8 Scope and delimitation of the study

This current study focused on the host community as a critical element in the PPP infrastructural project implementation whose neglect may have detrimental effects including incessant crises and ultimately, project failure (Erumebor, 2017). The study recognised many of the factors that contribute towards community involvement and that give social support for NP4 as a national policy. The scope of this study was restricted to Lagos State, Southwest Nigeria. This is the commercial capital of Nigeria and it was selected for the study because the state remains the foremost and the most thriving in the implementation of PPP in Nigeria. The problems of accessibility in terms of road network, financial constraints, and limited time makes it difficult to involve the entire five divisions (IBILE) of Lagos State. More importantly, the study was

carried out in three divisions with community-based PPP projects, viz: Badagry, Epe and Ikorodu. Though the findings of the study provide some sort of insight into many areas of the study viz., community participation, stakeholder management, governance, and public policy, the major limitation of the study, however, lies in its lack of scope which was restricted to the local context. This precludes generalisability of the findings.

As earlier pointed out by academics, the attitudes of community leaders towards researchers, especially in the CBPR are usually negative (Wang, Ray & Berg, 2017; CDC, 1998). The researcher, in line with this observation, experienced some challenges in the course of conducting this research among which was getting the cooperation of some community leaders in terms of appointments for interviews (some of which were rescheduled for one reason or the other), trust and reticence to indulge in information-sharing. Other challenges were related to time, finance and to moving around the cosmopolitan city of Lagos with its heavy traffic. Man-hours lost in traffic in the course of this research would be difficult to quantify.

Furthermore, the study was conducted at a time when some communities were doubtful about sharing their experiences on the PPP projects being implemented in their communities due to the mistrust engendered by possible political insinuations, threats to security and possible blackmail. Some communities had already instituted legal action against the mapping out of their land for PPP developmental projects, Hence, some community members and leaders were reluctant to participate in FGD or to express willingness to grant interviews or to make comments on the theme of this study. Language was another barrier. Some traditional rulers, interviewees and participants at the grass-root level preferred to express themselves using their local languages. Interpreting the exact expression sometimes posed a challenge.

1.9 Structure of the thesis

The overall structure of this study involves nine chapters including this introductory chapter that presents the general overview of the entire work. Chapter Two reviews scholarly works relative to this study. The chapter also outlined the conceptual and theoretical dimensions of the study. Related concepts like PPP, public participation, collaborative governance, and public participation were broadly explained with reference to the related literature. In the same way, issues relating to theories, models and the various themes of the study were carefully illustrated and explained. The researcher presents an overview of the PPP and community involvement in a Nigerian context in Chapter Three. Also, the analysis of PPP background, structure and

legislation in Nigeria formed the key aspect of the chapter. Moreover, Chapter Four concerned itself with the details of the research methods of the study and the various methodologies through which data were gathered and analysed. In Chapter Five, the analyses and discussions based on the findings of the study were presented to explain how the institutional design of the policy framework facilitates community involvement. In Chapter Six, the researcher analysed how early involvement of the communities in the implementation processes promotes trust and builds community support for the projects and PPP policy in general. More analysis and a discussion were carried out in Chapter Seven. Here, the researcher investigated the role of community leadership in facilitating public involvement in the collaborative arrangement while analysis and findings on how collaborative mechanisms and strategies impacted community involvement through participation or collaboration were also presented. Shared governance through empowerment and learning also forms the content of Chapter Eight. By convention, the last chapter, Chapter Nine summarises the findings of the entire thesis. It concluded and made recommendations for further research.

1.10 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter offered general insight into the subject matter of this study which commenced with detailed background knowledge about the entire study. The researcher, here, problematised the issue of community involvement as a major challenge facing the implementation of the National Policy on PPP in Lagos State, Nigeria. The major research questions which the study addressed were highlighted. The chapter also demonstrated that the study had four objectives. The four objectives were encapsulated in one objective which aimed to find out how the Lagos State PPP-PIF aligns with the NP4 to promote collaborative ideals that earn public trust and promote shared governance between the public-private project promoters/collaborators and the host communities. In all, the chapter offered the justification for the study and offered a retrospective summary of the nine chapters that make up the entire study. The next chapter (Chapter Two) presents the conceptual and theoretical framework that underpinned the study.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

A preliminary review of scholarly works in respect of this study is presented in this chapter. The focus of the chapter is to find a place for this study in the existing literature. The researcher explained the theories, models, concepts and various constructs upon which the study was framed. To begin with, this chapter presents the various multi-theoretical frameworks that underpinned the study as found in academic journals and related material. Then, the next section explores the various constructs that emanate from collaborative governance. These constructs were explained as an operational framework upon which the researcher developed his conceptual analysis for each of the objectives of the study. The framework provided the basics that connected the study to the existing knowledge and gave justification for the study. Subsequently, attention was given to the analysis of certain concepts which bore a relation to the study. In the process of concept analysis, the researcher examined a considerable number of scholarly works and unified them to build consensus between the concept of PPP policy implementation and community participation and to identify the gaps in the existing literature. The chapter concludes with a summary.

2.2 Theoretical framework and models

The theoretical framework of this research study connects the outcome of the study to the existing generalisable philosophical knowledge and it should thereby create meaningful and logical support for the study outcome (Grant & Osanlo, 2014; Imenda, 2014). Models, on the other hand, are powerful tools in the hands of policy analysts by which arguments are clarified and values and beliefs from which they are drawn are effectively communicated (Parson, 1999). This study employs a multi-theory approach and draws on the different theoretical models of governance, citizenship participation and institutional analysis and development (IAD). This section is dedicated to the explanation of the theory's models. It begins with the theoretical background of theories of governance, and then it moves on to explain the collaborative Policy network theory, the network governance theory, IAD and Arnstein's ladder theory.

Theoretical Background of Governance Theory

To start with, it is important to point out that there have been massive transformations in all spheres of public governance since the dawn of the 20th century. Owing to this transformation, new concepts are emerging that seem to mirror new governance philosophies and thinking in the public arena which also reflects in the management of public utilities and policy processes and practices (Radnor, Osborne and Glennon, 2016). Some scholars have extolled the pluralists' ideology as that which spark-off these reforms. The development invariably results in the emergence of various public administrative models after years of dominance by Weber's ideal bureaucracy from the 1920s to the 1970s (Hughes 2012; Kettl, 2000; Wanna, 2008). Part of this was due to the emergence of the New Public Management (NPM). The NPM emerged as an alternative approach to public administration. It aims to forestall the bureaucratic element that typified the public-sector administration from the 1940s to the 1980s (Radnor *et al.*, 2016) and replaced it with an organisational society. Invariably, the transformation has resulted in the fragmentation of the state with so many constituents i.e. the local government, the state, the international arena, the business concerns and the non-profit entities. The fragmentation of the modern society along the lines of the institutions of the state, private and the general public (the people) results in a new system and a new operation and creates a new governance system that is based on networks and collaboration (Macmillian & Kendall, 2019; Osborne, 2010).

The idea for inter-organisational cooperation and networking was instigated for wider participation, shared risk, sustainability and efficiency in governance which can only be made possible through *collaboration*. Bang & Kim (2016:213) claim that "leading countries combine governance with collaboration", Governance is a descriptive term which describes the 'inter-jurisdictional relationship' in the PPP. This entails running public affairs in a way that reduces the dichotomy between the private and the public administration (Frederickson *et al.*, 2012: 290). Therefore, governance de-emphasises the dissimilarity between the former and the latter and suggests cooperation that promotes greater efficiency in the conduct of public affairs through "ordered rule and collective action" (Ewalt, 2001: 9). Moynihan and Soss think that governance is interactions and relationships that give attention to and respond to citizens' and stakeholders' interests (Moynihan & Ross, 2014: 3). Therefore, collaborative governance describes the transformation of modern states from the traditional administrative structure to a new governance model (Torfing and Ansell, 2016). The following concepts are relative to

collaborative governance and they are often used interchangeably; ‘partnership, collaboration, network governance, co-production in public management, hollow-state and cooperative governance (Wiewora, 2016; Frederickson *et al.*, 2012; Newman *et al.*, 2004: 6; Milward & Provan, 2000: 362).

Public policy writers have recognised the place of governance as a concept in the literature of public policy. Still, collaborative governance confers on the public administrator, the discretion of the sharing of governmental function with third party actors in public funding, and asset management (Kettle, 2000; Donahue & Zechkauser, 2006). The focus of collaborative governance in public policy processes stems from the recognition that contemporary society is extremely diversified in nature, comprising multiple actors who are entwined and interdependent. Therefore, the interdependency of the various groups calls for interactive dialogue, deliberations and broader collaboration that should promote co-existence. There is also the need to build a network by which they share knowledge and resources that will enable them to optimise decisions and policies that affect them (Raab & Kennis, 2007; Innes & Booher, 2003). Therefore, collaborative governance is increasingly commanding the attention of scholars in the field of public policy (Hill & Varone, 2017; John, 2016). Osborne (2002) reports that PPP, as a collaborative governance arrangement produces good policy outcomes through local communities’ engagement, more extensive consultation, and community involvement. The study indicates that, in the US, PPP was used as a strategic policy tool towards crisis management and the regeneration of urban communities in some American communities (Osborne, 2002). The concept is also entrenched in the “European Union policy development as an integrative mechanism to combat social exclusion and to enhance local community development” (Osborne, 2002: 2). Several other authors have concluded that the design and implementation of PPP projects and programmes in developed nations have significantly improved their policy outcomes (Ng, Wong & Wong, 2012; Gaventa & Barrett, 2012; Speer, 2012).

It is important to note, for emphasis, that most discussions on the governance model in relation to policy implementation demand different manifestations in terms of “theory and practical relevance” (Newig & Koontz, 2014:249). The researcher was motivated by the work of Christopher (2010) on governance to adopt a multi-theoretical approach. The author argues that different theories may be incorporated into a single study to augment the key theory especially

when the scope in terms of ‘governance paradigm’ is extended. Based on this, different theories and models were applied for theoretical illustration. The theories include the collaborative policy network theory, the network governance theory, the institutional analysis and development (IAD) and Arnstein’s ladder theory. As mentioned already, the conceptual framework for this study stems from the collaborative governance model. The theories are models that are highlighted and explained in the subsequent sections.

2.2.1 The Collaborative Policy Network Theory

The emphasis on PPP has always been on the two principal stakeholders; the public agency and the private firm. Authors have proposed that considerable attention should be paid to the analysis of others who are stakeholders “embedded in various degrees of the institutionalised structure” (deLeon & Verda, 2009: 60). Networks are described as a means through which resources are allocated and coordinated in a modern state (Hughes, 2012); hence, the authors advocate for a shift in focus from the disaggregated participatory policy network literature to a generalised theory. They, therefore, propose a collaborative policy network that derives its source from Harrold Lasswell’s “democratization of the policy science” (deLeon, 1992: 126) and public choice philosophy. This is because analysts and theorists are beginning to realise the “sophistication” and “complexities” that are evolving in the governance system through “multiple strategic players” and “multi-stage policy process” (Farber, 2018: 183). Therefore, the collaborative policy network theory attempts a solution to complex public policy problems arising from the failures of the “bureaucratic hierarchies” and “marketisation” (Klijn & Koppenjan 2016: 157). The network policy empowers institutions and structures of authority to allocate resources, coordinate and control joint action across the network (Hughes, 2012; Provan & Kennis, 2007: 231). It advocates “bridging social capital” and strengthening social relationships (deLeon & Verda, 2009:4) especially in the era of government collaboration.

Looking at the existing works in this subject area, including DeLeon & Verda, 2009, it is important to create a structural foundation in the policy sphere for the effective functioning of the networks that will give aid to policy implementation as well as policy outcomes. This deficiency was pointed out by Krischbaum (2019) in its conceptual paper. The author concedes that network analysis is structurally deficient. It can also be added that the advocates of the theory only viewed the network social systems using myopic lenses because its application seems to be oversimplified and relatively confined to the management organisations. They seem not to envisage

that government may soon require social interaction and ties to build social capital through a PPP network. Secondly, “the theme of temporariness” that characterises the network analysis is another challenge in a way (Kirschbaum, 2019: 544); because the emphasis has been on structural determinism without recourse to individual struggle within the social system to “attain his/her feat by establishing social ties” (Kirschbaum, 2019: 547). Hence, a researcher who intends to apply this theory, particularly, to the study of public participation or stakeholder involvement should not ignore the complicated processes of developing a workable model for stakeholder-involvement to suit the circumstance.

However, the researcher draws on the theory to illustrate how the network relations between the public and the non-state actors in the policy arena and how this affect the implementation of *National Policy on Public-Private Partnership* in Lagos State. The theory provides the template that described the various formal and informal structures of policy processes in respect of collaborative arrangement through PPP. The collaborative network theory which was more contemporary allowed the researcher to view the policy process from the horizontal perspective. Therefore, the collaborative network policy theory offers new insight to the researcher on how public policies emerged from the collaborative process involving the state and non-state actors. This author has advanced the scope of investigation particularly in the field of policy network through empirical study using mixed method of analysis.

2.2.2 The Network Governance Theory

Network Governance Theory (NGT) has emerged as a solution to contemporary public policy problems which could not be solved through the erstwhile New Public Management system which is based on a hierarchical structure and on market orientations (Sorensen & Torfin, 2016). Governments around the world are looking at actors who have the wherewithal and resources to handle development and societal issues rather than government straining itself to solve problems for which it is incapacitated (Klijn and Koppenjan 2016: 157). The NGT is an arrangement that coordinates activities of different firms characterised by organic or informal social systems. These activities are coordinated in a harmonious contractual relationship by breaking their bureaucratic structures for solving complex cooperation problems beyond organisational boundaries (Koliba, *et al.*, 2018; Laher and Botha, 2012). Network relationship centres on how to ensure that a range of collaborative interactions exist between the stakeholders. Through NGT, “institutions and structures of authority allocate resources, coordinate and control joint action across the network as a whole.” (Provan and Kennis, 2008:

231). This study intends to bring the NGT to the fore to justify that public policy process perspective, involving a wide range of institutional actors which is a deviation from the positivists' approach. Due to the financial deficit facing most economies, governments have switched to governance by involving various actors (implementers, target groups, intermediaries) (Frederickson *et al.*, 2015). Implementing bodies mostly have limited resources; therefore, interdependencies are inevitable (The World Bank Group, 2019; Keast & Mandell, 2013).

NGT describes public policy-making processes, implementation and service delivery through a web of relationships among autonomous yet interdependent government, business and civil society actors (Blanco, Lowndes & Pratchet, 2011). In Network Governance, authoritative decisions are no longer made by elected politicians and government but by fluid networks of civil servants, business representatives, professionals, knowledge producers and stakeholder that cut across the horizontal and vertical boundaries of traditional jurisdiction (Klijn & Koppenjan, 2016, Ansell & Gash, 2008). This study drew on this theory for both normative and empirical analysis, particularly to illustrate how the network relations between public and non-profit actors shape the implementation of the *National Policy on Public-Private Partnership* in Lagos State. The theory is relevant because it provides the template for the study to be able to describe the various formal and informal structures of policy processes with regard to the collaborative governance arrangement in the form of PPP. As rightly pointed out by deLeon & Vogenbeck (2017: 11), the earlier works in public policy had focused “on the hierarchical process”; however, the network approach is more contemporary. Specifically, the Network Governance approach allows the researcher to view PPP policy implementation processes in Nigeria from a horizontal perspective. This perspective offers new insight into the study of policy implementation, especially in a network in a public-private collaborative environment. More so, the NGT creates the basis to argue that PPP, as a policy tool emerges from the collaborative process. While this is the case, it is incumbent on the government at the centre to organise its implementation efforts in network systems that incorporate other tiers to have a coherent policy implementation process.

2.2.3 Institutional Analysis and Development (IAD) Theory

From the perspective of policy research study, every policy design should operate within a framework by which policy implementation will be effective and efficient (Sidney, 2017). Studies have established that the institutional framework is a *sin qua non* for a successful

implementation of public policy. In a study that shows the policy framework as a guide to policymakers, Delmon (2015) demonstrates that the institutional framework is very instrumental if the aims and purpose of PPP are to be attained (Sabir, Rafique & Abbas, 2019). Polski & Ostrom (1999: 14) contextualise the word ‘institution’ in a formal and in an informal context. The formal context refers to laws, policies including procedures. The informal context, on the other hand, connotes norms, standard operating procedures or habits (Polski & Ostrom, 1999). Writers have maintained that the fundamental issues of inclusivity and the development of participatory governance are embedded in the institutional framework (Emerson & Nabatchi, 2015; Verhoest *et al.*, 2014). The institutional framework, therefore, gives an insight into the categories of people that should be involved, their decision-making powers and functions to be performed by them especially when policies are to be implemented (Oliviera & Miranda, 2019; Delmon, 2015). However, Wiewiora *et al.*, suggest that it is essential to establish policy institutions through which the policies are to be implemented. The authors maintain that it is only when policies are created in an established institution that collaborative governance can be positioned as described in their “public-policy paradigm” (Wiewiora *et al.*, 2016: 4).

The central idea of the institutional theorists is that all policy situations, good or bad, are governed by institutional arrangement (Constantio *et al.*, 2019; Oliviera & Miranda, 2019, Gualini, 2018). IAD theory which was developed by Polski & Ostrom in 1999 provides an institutional analysis and development framework which serves as a diagnostic tool for the analysis of a well-established public policy. This framework is illustrated in Figure. 2.1

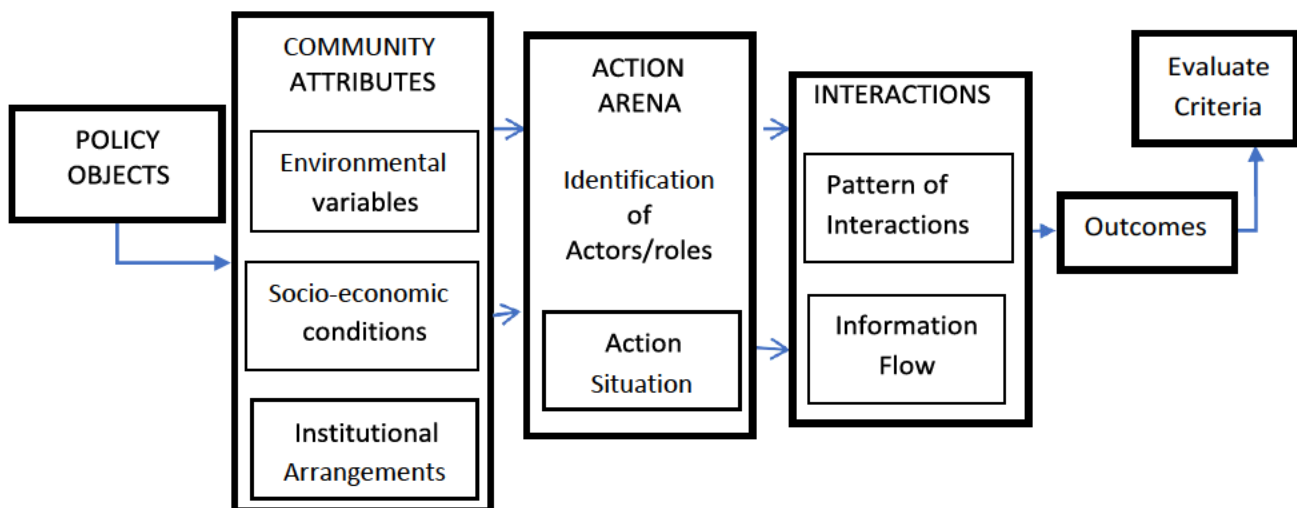


Figure 2.1: Institutional Analysis & Development Framework

Source: Polski & Ostrom (1999: 17)

The processes of IAD as illustrated in the diagram (Figure 2.1) are explained by the authors as follows:

STEP 1: To define policy objectives and the analytic approach in this regard will include happenings in the policy arena and the evaluation of observed outcomes with initial policy objectives;

STEP 2: To analyse the physical and material conditions: these include the projects being executed; goods and services being produced and how they are being distributed. The analyst generally looks at the economic nature of the policy activities;

STEP 3: To Conduct and analyse community attributes: these involve communication, knowledge and information which the participants have and share; their values, beliefs and preferences in the community. Other factors include their disposition about strategy preference and outcome, in line with the homogeneous or heterogeneous nature of the community;

STEP 4: To analyse the existing rules-in-use within the local institution's arrangement: This refers to the "minimal but necessary set of rules" that are required for policy-related actions, interactions and outcomes (Polski and Ostrom, 2009:15). These rules have different manifestations within the policy environment. The efficacy of the rules depends on the incentives attached to compliance. One central question for a researcher is to find out how the rule-in-use solves any dilemma regarding the implementation of government policy that bears a direct impact on the community;

STEP 5: To integrate patterns of interactions and outcomes: Studying the pattern of multiple interactions and among various roles occupied by actors over a period of time that could predict possible outcomes. Analysts would have to determine the actions that participants can take viz-a-viz their level of control to ascertain actions and outcomes that are possible in the situation;

STEP 6: To analyse the patterns of interaction involving the structure of economic and political participation and information flow; and

STEP 7: Lastly, to analyse the outcomes for efficiency and effectiveness of the policy.

The relevance of IAD as a framework for this study is that the model gives a deeper insight into

the context in which the host communities interact or do not interact with the policy actors and partners within the public-private partnership implementation network environment. Such interactions were meant to build an institutional collaboration that shapes policy decisions of individual or group action. Irrespective of the static or dynamic nature of policy at the national and sub-national level (state); the outcomes are still felt in the local context. Therefore, the local actors, in this case, include community resource users, public officers, political representatives including members of the corporate partners, societies and NGOs who work for the development of the infrastructural projects. The actors need to interpret the NP4 jointly within the contexts of social, legal, economic, political and technological attributes that are prevalent in the policy environment (Cahn, 2013).

2.2.4 Ladder of Participation

Public participation theorists have celebrated Sherry R. Arnstein's work titled *A Ladder of Citizen Participation* developed in 1969 as the most cited literature in the discourse of public participation and public involvement in policy implementation (Radtke *et al.*, 2018; Ohno, 2013; Fung, 2006). Arnstein's model posits that participation is based on levels with a host of inconsistencies and window-dressing public participatory designs. She proposes a 'ladder of empowerment' with eight steps referred to as 'rungs' which the ladder in Figure 2.2 illustrates.

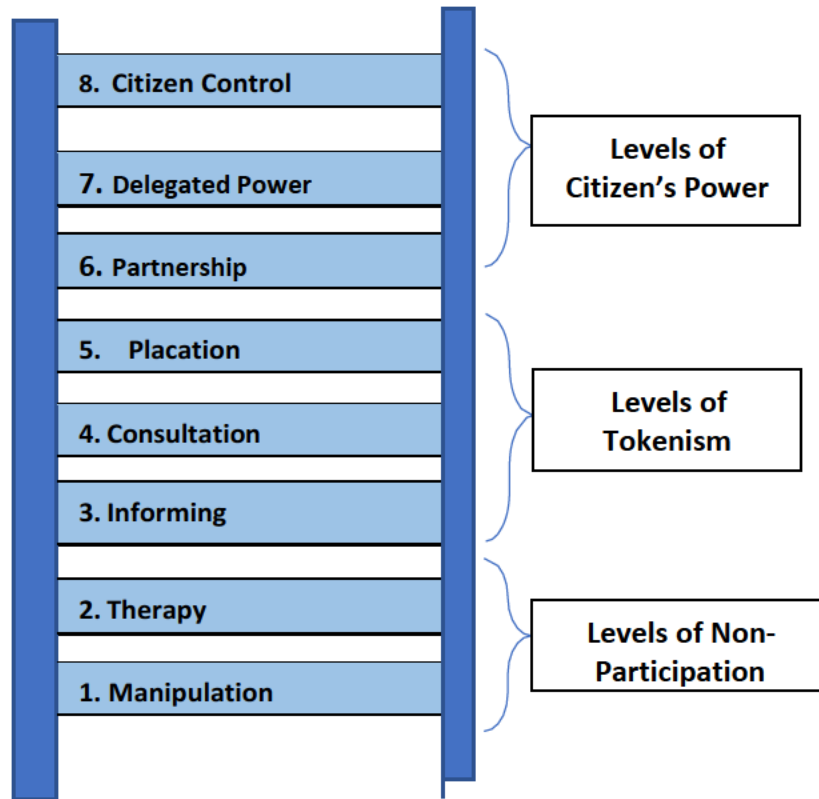


Figure 2.2: Arnstein's Ladder of Participation

(Source: Arnstein, 2015: 203)

Although Arnstein's analysis was based on the United States city-based programme, the model has a wider application to any participatory framework. At the base of Arnstein's ladder are rungs of manipulation and therapy which she groups as 'non-participation'. At these levels, the public is merely informed and educated about the intent of public programmes they are to 'listen' to without any form of input or suggestion (Arnstein, 2015: 284). The third, fourth and fifth levels on the ladder represent the rungs of Informing, Consultation and Placation which she described as 'tokenism' – a stage where an opportunity is created for the citizen to hear and to be heard. However, the power of decision lies with the policymakers or administrators. The stages have a one-way, top-down flow of information. Authors have applied the ladder theory to demonstrate that what is obtainable in most policy environments is a consultation which is better described as 'tokenism' (Jo & Nabatch, 2018; Mapfumo & Mutereko, 2020; Norton & Hughes, 2018; Liu et al., 2018). These authors argue that tokenism, as a stage, is characterised by surveys, public enquiries, consultations and advocacies. While all these are part of participatory mechanisms, they do not connote real participation in the real sense (Carpentier,

2016, Hanna, 2000) According to Choquill (1996), the flow of information at this level is one-way; from the policy officials to the community. It is a typical top-down policy initiative where rights, responsibilities and options are communicated to the community without allowances, either for feedback or for negotiation.

Lastly, at the further end of the ladder is a group classified as ‘citizen power’, the three levels in order of magnitude is ‘partnership, delegated power and citizen control’ where partners are involved with a degree of contributory roles, empowerment and stakeholding. Public Participation is a “framework of policies, principles, and techniques which ensure that citizens and communities” are meaningfully engaged in the decision-making process on “issues that affect them or in which they have an interest” (Smith, 2003: 34). Many recent studies have examined the relevance of public participation to decision-making and policy using Arnstein’s analogy (e.g. Radtke *et al.*, 2018; Blair, 2018; Mapuva, 2014). These authors demonstrate that an unambiguous relationship exists between the effective public participatory system and good policy outcomes.

Tritter & McCallum (2006), note that there are variations in the pattern of participation along the continuum which Arnstein over-simplified. It is, however, important to note, from Arnstein’s theory, that citizen empowerment starts with the partnership. Partnership at the citizen’s power stage represents a stage of collaboration and citizenship stakeholding. This represents what the partnership in PPP should naturally depict. Arnstein’s model is significantly useful to this study because it measures the degree of community involvement in the collaborative process in line with the central objective of this study. According to Choguill the application of Arnstein’s ladder concept to a developing country like Nigeria may be “far from perfect” (Choguill, 1996: 3). He concludes that issues of finance, technical expertise and motivation are major constraints impeding community involvement in development projects particularly in the under-developed nations, unlike the developed nations. Scholars pointed out that the tacit opposition of the elite and the political class to the idea of sharing the decision-making power with the people continues to make Arnstein’s theoretical postulation a mere illusion (Mapfumo & Mutereko, 2020; Carpentier, 2016).

To this end, Arnstein’s conceptualisation of ‘partnership’ based on the ladder spectrum is generative for grasping the contexts in which citizenship involvement as a partner is highly desirable over consultation. It is at the rung of partnership that “power is redistributed through negotiation between the citizens and power holders” (Arnstein, 2015:225) at the stage of the

partnership. While the study concedes that “citizens control” remains elusive especially when viewed in the context of PPP framework, the partnership can work most effectively where there is an organised power base in the community through which community representatives in the partnership are called to account (Arnstein, 2015:289). The highlight here is that ‘partnership’ is key in the public participation process.

This study draws on the work of Arnstein to show the level of citizenship power and involvement in policies that have a direct impact on them. It further explains the argument that communities should be involved as partners in any collaborative governance framework like the PPP. Recent studies have also corroborated this assertion (Blair, 2018; Radtke *et al.*, 2018). Arnstein’s emphasis on citizenship empowerment is useful to this study because it allows the researcher to think through the position that whilst ‘citizen control’ remains elusive, active involvement beyond ‘mere consultation’ is desirable for ‘authentic participation’ in the collaborative governance framework. The researcher agrees with the thoughts expressed by Emerson (2012, 2015), King *et al.*, (1998) and Ansel and Gash (2008). These authors maintain that communities are oftentimes ‘manipulated’ or ‘merely consulted’ in the implementation of policies that directly affects them. They are hardly involved. This places them on the lowest rung of the ladder that Arnstein described as the ‘rung of ‘non-participation’ or ‘tokenism’ (Arnstein, 2015: 287). The partnership rung in the ladder offers a good ground to analyse the formalised role of the host communities in the PPP policy implementation process which is the focus of this study.

2.3 Justification for the adoption of a multi-theoretical approach

From the description of theories and models which apply to this study, it implies that the researcher’s approach to this study is multi-theoretical. This approach is motivated by the works of Christopher (2010). The researcher considers it necessary to employ different theories of governance and models of citizenship participation due to the ‘wider influencing forces’ of concepts and themes that are multi-faceted and need not be subjected a narrow focus on a single theory of governance (Christopher, 2010: 690). Therefore, the study incorporates two governance theories (the collaborative policy network and the network governance) as highlighted and discussed above to justify the position of collaborative policy and network governance thinkers (Michel, 2017; Kiljn & Koppenjan, 2016; Howlet, 2014; Blanco *et al.*, 2011; Koliba *et al.*, 2010). These thinkers advocate that policymakers, implementers and analysts need to empower institutions and structures for coordinated and joint action of actors across

policy environment for better policy performance. Further, the interactions among the theories with the models of citizenship participation have some sort of complementary effect and help to further give a philosophical analysis to express the real and the ideal situation.

The application of multiple theory to a single study is uncommon in public policy study but Christopher (2010) saw the need for a multi-theoretical approach to the investigation of governance and developed a model of multi-theoretical governance in a study that investigates governance in corporate organisations. Drawing inspiration from the study, the researcher can establish a case for the application of 3 theories (Collaborative Policy Network, Network Governance and Institutional analysis & Development) and 2 models (Collaborative Governance Model and Model of citizenship participation) to offer a practical explanation of the problem of exclusion in the implementation of NP4 in Nigeria. Using collaborative governance model as illustrative model, this study draws substantially from the ladder of citizenship participation during the theoretical discus of findings.

2.4 Conceptualisation of a collaborative governance model

The discussion in this section is framed around certain important themes. The section begins with the conceptual analysis. Concepts are general knowledge about constructs that form the basis of academic or scientific research (Imenda, 2014). The major concepts of this study are constructs that emanate from the collaborative governance model. Following the discussion of the collaborative governance model and its constructs, some sections highlight and explain other themes that are central to this study. They are community and community involvement, PPP and infrastructure.

The collaborative governance model (CGM) represents a conceptual map in which components of governance systems, deriving from policy or programme-based inter-governmental co-operation, are situated. This may be applied in the place or the community in which the collaboration is taking place to accommodate various stakeholders in the collaborations (Kim, 2016; Quick & Bryson, 2016; Emerson *et al.*, 2012). The model creates a framework that integrates knowledge about starting conditions, institutional design, leadership and collaborative processes (Ansell & Gash, 2008). CGM according to Emerson *et al.*, (2012: 1) is a general framework for analysing “different scales, in different policy arenas, and varying levels of complexity”. Ansell and Gash’s Collaborative governance in Theory and Practice and Emerson *et al.*,’s (2012) Integrative Framework for Collaborative Governance popularised collaborative governance as models of analysis. These two authors also advanced Freeman’s

proposition by developing a model-type framework for collaborative governance. Through a meta-analytical study, the authors developed a contingency approach to collaboration by identifying critical variables that influence the application of collaborative governance as a tool for policymaking and public management.

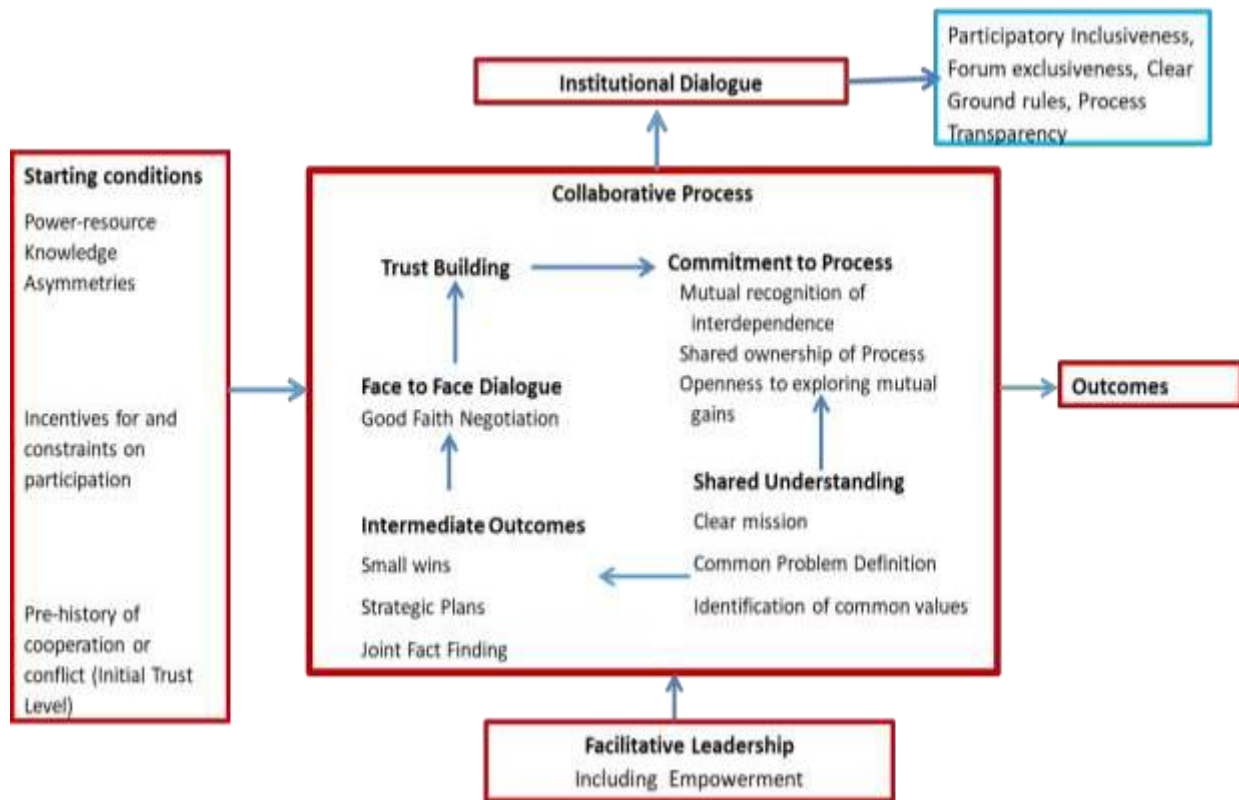


Figure 2.3: Collaborative Governance Model (Ansell & Gash, 2007: 550)

The variables for determining successful collaborations are identified as prior conditions, institutional design, facilitative leadership and collaborative processes (Ansell and Gash, 2008: 533). Based on the literature, the model accommodates diverse variables emanating from different models like the ecological model (Roussous & Fawcett, 2000; Yoo *et al.*, 2004), political opportunity structure (POS) in stakeholder analysis (Wu *et al.*, 2016; Newman, 2004) and the institutional analysis and development (IAD) in policy analysis (Oliviera & Miranda, 2019; Gualini, 2018; Amsler, 2016; Zhang *et al.*, 2014). A recent study by Gualini also points out that there is a need to harmonise the technicalities in institutional governance, regulation and policymaking. Hence, the collaborative model has emerged as an integrative model of analysis to harmonise these varying themes to strengthen cooperative governance (Kim, 2016; Emerson *et al.*, 2012, 2015), and its adoption by the researcher. Several authors of collaborative

governance have drawn up models to analyse collaborative governance as a system of policy implementation especially when collaboration with stakeholders is involved. Figure 2. 3 is an illustration of the collaborative governance model developed by Ansell & Gash (2008).

The study recognises the possibility of variations in line with the nature of the sector, or the project under study. Other variations may stem from the specific issues and problems to be addressed and whether the framework is applied as part of a scoping or design process or as part of the evaluation (Norad, 2013). However, the model, in this study, is applied ex-ante for systematic understanding and analysis of people involved in the collaborative arrangement. The application of the framework is primarily to establish baseline indicators for the component analysis for each of the objectives. The four key variables in the model are the key constructs upon which this study is built. They are identified as starting conditions, institutional design, leadership and collaborative process and are explained as follows:

2.4.1. Institutional Framework/Design

Institutional framework for policy implementation is a key factor that determines the success of any policy in the governmental or corporate arena. The institutional design addresses the ways through which agencies, state and non-state actors are used to promote orderliness in policy implementation (Colebatch, 2018; Capano & Woo, 2017) Therefore, PPP policy is a strategy that requires the pooling of resources from different sources, knowledge and expertise from different institutions in the form of collaboration that is orderly and effective. The private firms, for example, design, finance, build and maintain the infrastructure. The onus, therefore, lies with the government to design an institutional arrangement through which skills and resources are harnessed effectively for the project's success (Nwafor-Orizu et al., 2018; ICRC, 2013). Conventionally, it is the relevant government Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) that are responsible for implementing PPP to harmonise all that each institution brings to the table. In this regard, this study strives to ascertain the extent to which the institutional framework for the implementation of the National Policy on PPP facilitates the involvement of the host communities in the execution of PPP infrastructural projects in the selected communities of Lagos State. Hitherto, policy analysts have not paid due cognisance to the strategic role that institutions play in public policy implementation (Cahn, 2013; Polski & Ostrom, 1999). Although an institution is difficult to conceptualise due to its various applications and usage, therefore, the concept connotes different things under different circumstances depending on the context of usage. Over the past decades, writers perceived policy in the light of structural

arrangements or established institutions. The perception is changing. Much of the recent works of literature are beginning to see institutions as abstract and may be explained as “invisible elements” of the policy environment (Polski & Ostrom, 1999: 3). These invisible, ‘non-institutional’ elements are making policy process cumbersome and complex (Cahn, 2013; 4)

Authors in recent times have examined the relationship between institutional design and policy outcomes (Oliviera Cruz & Miranda Samento, 2019; Constancio *et al.*, 2019; Gualini, 2018). All these studies share a common denominator i.e. the development of an interactive approach to policymaking in the light of institutional design and harmony through an appropriate policy framework. Recent authors and researchers have expressed the need for members of a policy environment to make their input into the policy design and implementation through a formally established law, policy or procedure or informally, through rules, norms or mechanisms that offer incentives to stakeholders and actors in the operating policy environment (Mapfumo & Mutereko, 2020; Oliviera Cruz & Miranda Samento, 2019; Norton & Hughes, 2018). This point is valuable when one considers the view expressed by Tosun & Treib (2018), Capano & Woo (2017) and Bryson *et al.*, (2012) that the final design of any institutional framework of any good policy should address community problems in terms of power relations and social dynamics. In support of these views, the National Council for Public-Private Partnerships in the United States (2013) advocates that to be a meaningful PPP, an open communication system must be institutionalised. In the new project infrastructural governance, the flow of information and its processes are critical (Norton & Hughes, 2018; Musawa *et al.*, 2017; and Ismail *et al.*, 2019). Hence, Greve & Hodge, (2012) earlier maintained that the institutionalised framework for PPP implementation should reflect transparency and ease of information dissemination among implementing institutions.

In light of the foregoing, therefore, the study analysed the National Policy on Public-Private Partnership and activities of LOPPP in various communities of Lagos State to discover the extent to which the institutions help shape policy outcomes of NP4. Policy outcomes are the by-products of institutional and non-institutional influence (Cahn, 2013). Therefore, the researcher shares Cahn’s view that calls for a unified role “by both institutional (congress, courts, executives, judiciary and NGOs) and non-institutional actors (media, parties, interest groups etc.)” (Cahn 2013:199). However, much uncertainty still exists about the relationship between the actors as studies have demonstrated (Oliviera Cruz & Miranda Samento, 2019; Gualini, 2018; Scott & Thomas, 2017). This study also attempts to examine these uncertainties about NP4

implementation in Lagos State, Nigeria.

A plethora of studies have examined the institutional arrangement of PPP and have theorised that PPP performance is related to its institutional environment (Oliviera Cruz & Miranda Samento, 2019; Delmon, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2015). In an article titled *PPP application in infrastructure development in China: Institutional analysis and implications*, the authors, Zhang, Gao, Feng & Sun (2015) maintain that in the implementation of policies, emphasis on the policy document would not guarantee the sustainability of PPP projects and that administrative structure can also pose a constraint for PPP development. In the past few decades, several authors have maintained a strong position that a sound institutional framework enhances policy outcomes (Gualini, 2018, Cole & McGinnis, 2017; Sidney, 2017). Although the authors present their argument forcefully on how institutions induce the successful implementation of policy, their views are theoretical.

Zhang *et al.*,’s well-crafted article which concluded that the performance of PPP has a positive correlation with its institutional environment, seems to lack empirical support due to the methodological approach used. These authors did not substantially identify the institutions and how they impact PPP policy outcomes in a pragmatic sense. This gap in policy studies was later pointed out by Dean (2018); Wiewora *et al.*, (2016) and Verhoest (2014) in their separate articles. That notwithstanding, the framework developed by Zhang *et al.*, (2015) in the article is extremely relevant to this study because it provides the required template that was used for theoretical analysis of a PPP institutional framework in Nigeria.

The researcher diagnosed the challenges of the ‘non-institutional’ actors within the IPIF of NP4 as policy outcomes are typically a result of the combined efforts of institutional and non-institutional actors (Polski & Ostrom, 2016; Cahn, 2013). However, the emphasis over the years focuses on the institutional actors i.e. the institutional policy bureaucrats (Cahn, 2013:199). In this era, the policy process evolved in a network of relationships involving organised citizens, political consultants and analysts and other professionals. Therefore, the researcher’s diagnosis was done with the motive of drawing policymakers’ attention to the fact that institutional analysis should not revolve around institutions but should integrate non-institutional actors in this era of inclusive governance. Therefore, policy objectives need to align with people’s aspirations to give legitimacy to the policy process. Hence, it can be deduced that the role of the state through its MDAs is to promote the empowerment of every stakeholder by assigning roles to each one of them within the policy framework (Scott & Thomas, 2017; Cahn, 2013; Haynes

& Nembhard, 1999). Lack of preliminary discussions and lack of participation in the creation of the institutional design are highlighted as a source of “excessive dependency on a particular communication mode, an opaque system of representation and asymmetrical development of relational resources” (Kim, 2016: 3551). Earlier authors in Nigeria have pointed out some theoretical incongruency in the institutional framework for PPP implementation regarding the role of the key players as structured in the Act that established the ICRC (Erumebor, 2017; Opawole & Jagboro, 2017; Babatunde *et al.*, 2016). Apart from the structural-functional challenges in the existing framework which were identified by the authors; this current study examines whether or not the existing framework accommodates other secondary stakeholders in the policy implementation communities. The question this raises for the researcher is: “To what extent does the existing institutional framework accommodate the host community and its active members in the entire process?” In a bid to find an answer to the research question, the researcher conducted a documentary analysis and field study. The analysis of the investigation and details of findings are reported in Chapter 5.

2.4.2. Community involvement at the initial stages

Prior consultation and the right to informed consent on issues affecting the local inhabitants in any development in their area or domain was enshrined in the *UN Declaration on Right of Indigenous People (RIP)* in 2007. Considering this, the implementation of an infrastructural development project or programme is more effective when free, prior information and consultation commences with the host communities in the early phase of the project cycle (The World Bank Group, 2019; Leifsen *et al.*, 2017). As illustrated in Chapter Three (Section 3.7.3), the procurement phase is a stage when the business case for the project is developed. This is a stage for climate setting for the environmental assessment which includes advocacy but goes beyond this. The Association of Accredited Public Policy Advocates to the European Union sees advocacy as the first step that any organisation, especially the government MDAs can take to translate policy goals (either business-oriented or end-result oriented) into goals that make sense to those affected by these goals (AALEP, 2020). Advocacy is seen by Cullerton, Donnet and Gallegos (2018:3) as the “process of undertaking active interventions with the explicit goal of influencing government policy” The author summarised this into the statement that no policy should deliver results on its own, processes are involved. The more coordinated the processes and strategy involved in a dynamic policy process the more the effectiveness of policy advocacy will be the first step towards collaborative governance climate setting. This is because the PHs

and implementing MDA administrators need to negotiate on certain starting conditions. These conditions revolve around the imbalance in the power relations between the collaborators, incentives and disincentives for participation and the initial level of trust. As mentioned in the previous section, the government sets the institutional framework for implementation of PPP through appropriate MDAs for the infrastructural projects. However, there are theoretical shreds of evidence that show that most of these MDAs lack the full range of knowledge or experience needed especially during the initial stages of project implementation (The World Bank Group, 2014:82- 83). Hence, extensive stakeholders' early engagement plays a crucial role in the identification and implementation of PPP projects because distrust and suspicion usually characterises PPP implementation in the initial stages as Oluwasanmi & Ogidi (2017) observe. Therefore, collaboration, negotiation and consultation are required especially in the initial stages.

To further design a collaborative governance model, Kim (2016) developed an integrated framework of collaborative community governance. Kim's framework added that the government's mandate and institutional support facilitate collaborative initiation in the localities. In line with this thought by Kim, authors have proposed that increased community participation in the decision about intervention components at the "early trial of the project reduces later conflict and improved implementation" (Roussous & Fawcett, 2000: 5). Osborne and Murray in a study of PPP in respect of voluntary and non-profit organisations in Columbia reported that the "initial level of trust established during earlier contact" makes the subsequent collaborative process easy and beneficial to all concerned stakeholders (Osborne & Murray, 2000:77). Rowe & Frewer (2004) identify early involvement as one of the nine criteria for the evaluation process and outcomes in any local participation. The submission of these authors is that the conditions present in the earlier stages of collaborative governance can either make or mar the collaborative process (Wiewora *et al.*, 2016; De Schepper *et al.*, 2014; Ansell & Gash, 2008). The scholars made notable remarks on the need for early involvement of communities in governmental decisions or projects as a factor that distinguishes a collaborative governance framework and other community participatory systems (Kiljn & Nederhand, 2016; Inne & Booher, 2003). A considerable level of consensus was also observed that conditions present in the earlier stages of collaborative governance can either make or mar the collaborative process (Wiewora *et al.*, 2016; De Schepper *et al.*, 2014; Ng, Wong & Wong, 2012). For instance, the

initial level of trust established during earlier contact alongside the creation of the right incentives for participation makes the subsequent process easy and beneficial to all concerned stakeholders (Kim, 2016; Ansell & Gash, 2008). To draw up a conclusion on the theme of initial stage involvement by drawing on the concept of collaborative governance, Luke has been able to show that it is important that leaders should pay adequate attention to and “invest considerable time and energy ... in the initial process” especially to the bringing together of the right stakeholders from the community to the table (Luke, 1998: 81).

Quite a number of items in the literature on community involvement in project planning and development were found that show that there are a number of procedural problems, and that window-dressing and politically-motivated involvement usually exist. Preliminary investigation reveals that most models of participation logically show that the degree of involvement in issues of public concern is directly proportional to the effort invested by the planning agencies (Swapan, 2016). Such involvement, however, fails to give legitimacy as well as necessary coordination for effective community involvement in preliminary decisions regarding the project (Dean, 2018; Leifsen, 2017). The knowledge demonstrated by these scholars yields a partial view that is not adequate for an empirical evidence-based position. However, the researcher was able to draw inferences based on existing works to address the research question which aims to find out how the involvement or non-involvement of the communities at the outset of the implementation impacts the trust and community support for the NP4 in Lagos State. In the light of the foregoing, this study found the need to analyse the commitment of the Nigerian government, particularly the Lagos State Government to its policy statement of shared governance and participatory planning principle (LSG, 2020) in its PPP drive for infrastructural development. Moreover, there appears to be no systematic study that has addressed the involvement of the community solely at the early stage of the PPP policy implementation process in Nigeria. This current study holistically analysed how the LOPPP has secured the trust and confidence of the community at the early stages of the projects through advocacy, information-sharing and inclusive governance in line with NP4.

This current study hopes to determine the real situation with regard to the extent to which the support institution, LOPPP, has promoted shared jurisdiction and democratic ideals in the development of the infrastructural project from the initial stages across various communities in Lagos State and the extent to which this has impacted on the process. The study shall analyse

the policy framework in the context of a developing nation like Nigeria as the focus in the literature has concentrated on the developed nations where PPPs are firmly rooted, although the challenge is not peculiar to the third world (Mehraz, 2016; Delmon. 2015). The focus of this study shall be on analysing holistically, theoretically and empirically how the agencies have secured the trust and confidence of the community during the early stages of the projects and on the impact that this has had on the projects.

2.4.3 The facilitative role of community leadership

Leadership is an instrumental factor in any human activity. Leadership mobilises resources and human beings for orderliness, coordination and resourcefulness. The activities of governance and democratisation revolve wholly around leadership (Sørensen, Hendriks, Hertting, & Edelenbos, 2020) Hence, writers have inexhaustibly examined the strategic role that leaders play in facilitating collaboration in any governance framework (Sørensen et al., 2020; Behrens, 2014, Silvia, 2011; Page, 2010; Ansell & Gash, 2008). Together, these authors' perceptions were set on the facilitative role of public officials as leaders to develop the necessary competencies beyond their managerial functions. Tavares & Sobral (2017) described facilitative leaders as those who build trust and who facilitate dialogue and mutually beneficial relationships. To be able to discharge their duties effectively, the first systematic study on collaborative leadership was carried out by Morse in 2008, in the same year that collaborative governance theory was popularised by Ansell & Gash (2008). While Ansel & Gash construct a model with a facilitative leader, Morse (2008) highlights the attributes that are required for a leader to facilitate collaborative governance through an empirical analysis. The highlights of the attributes are (1) a collaborative mindset (2) system thinking (3) openness (4) risk-taking (5) feelings of mutuality and connectedness and (6) humility. The leader is a facilitator and not a director (Ansell & Gash 2012). Much of the available literature on collaborative leadership focuses more on leadership skills and competencies of the public officials (Taveres & Sobral, 2017; Mathias 2016; Behrens 2014; Sylvia, 2014). The aspect of leadership from the perspectives of other stakeholders within the collaborative framework, like the host communities or the NGOs, is yet to receive considerable attention in the literature.

Any collaborative governance arrangement, like PPP, requires different roles to be played by different leaders in a different scope of operation. Many authors have claimed that leadership

has a pivotal role to play in the public-private partnership network (Behrens, 2014; Ansel and Gash, 2008; Hataya, 2007). Mathias (2016) highlights that some leadership traits required for PPP implementation. He identifies areas of manifestation of these traits in the following skills areas: convening, mobilisation, facilitation, mediation, and policy advocacy. Community leaders, group leaders and other stakeholders were expected to manifest abilities in the identified areas. Munro *et al.*, (2008), in an article entitled *Partnership Governance and Democratic Effectiveness* attempt to recognise the role of community leaders in facilitating the design, evaluation and implementation of public policy goals, particularly, PPP. The authors conceptualise community leadership and public managers as ‘dual intermediaries’ owing to the enhanced mutually exclusive roles both play in policy governance. The author presents a shift in focus from the discussion of leadership as a variable in broad public participation processes with great emphasis on public sector leadership in collaborative governance, which dominates the literature, to the analytic role of facilitative leadership at the community level. The perception that the function of community leaders can be institutionalised for wider public inputs towards enhanced transparency and legitimacy has wide support in the literature (Singaravello, 2010; Skelcher, 2005; King *et al.*, 1998). Singaravello (2010: 164) suggests that local government leaders should be involved in concession negotiation to “increase their trust and spirit of leadership”.

Nigerian authors have pointed out that community leaders hitherto derived their power from the established traditional institutions and customary practices; hence community leaders may be regarded as traditional leaders (Alli, 2019; Williams, 2019; Adeleke, 2017). In his article, Alli (2019) draws our attention to the administrative power of traditional rulers in the past. He extols their managerial power and how they were used to run governance in the pre- and post-colonial period. The bulk of the administrative works of the colonialist rests on the traditional rulers. They rule indirectly. The colonial master used the community-established institutions to implement their administrative power. Therefore, the local community heads were considered to be strategic and they made a positive impact on the development of administrative governance. Drawing on the works of Zekele (2011), the functions of community leaders were explained: they contribute to development administration; they facilitate the relationship between grassroots and central administration. They extend national identity by conferring traditional titles on certain personalities, they resolve conflicts at a lower level and provide judicial gate-keeping, they act as ombudsmen and provide leverage for the legal system and

institutional safety, and they act as sub-apportioned bureaucracies (Famakinwa & Adisa, 2020; Williams, 2019; Alli, 2019, Martiskainen, 2017). The writers point out that the role of community leaders has declined in Nigeria despite the role played in the pre- and post-colonial era. Unfortunately, the traditional leaders have lost the substantial power they once had and their influence has declined over time. Hence, they are struggling to achieve relevance in modern-day governance in Nigeria. Authors in their various studies, which are predominantly descriptive, call for the re-integration of the traditional leaders and their institutions in the new governance system. Previous research has indicated that various attempts at policy implementation have failed in Nigeria because the government is yet to connect the nexus between policymakers and other bodies that have roles to play in the policy network (Phillip & Peter, 2013). Considering this view, Martiskainen (2017) and Williams (2019) concluded that community leaders and traditional rulers, if embedded in the social network, should make a meaningful contribution and could facilitate the socio-political transformation of the society.

However, the extent to which the community leaders can carry out the roles is a function of their technical capacity which some writers found to be limited at the community level (Fung, 2006). Therefore, scholars in the latter group advocate for community capacity building and empowerment before any meaningful involvement can take place (Nabatchi & Jo, 2018; Bhoroma, 2018; Kim .2016; King *et al.*, 1998; Skelcher, 2005). Unfortunately, the authors fail to take cognisance of these facts in their study. This research study shall build on the works of Munro *et al.*, (2008) to investigate the extent to which community leaders play the roles that were identified in the implementation of privately funded public projects based on National policy on the PPP framework vis-à-vis the administrative framework. The researcher empirically analysed how the leaders at the community level influence their community involvement in the project governance and also, the facilitative role they play to promote community participation in the collaborative governance framework.

2.4.4 Collaborative process and mechanisms

Collaborative governance manifests itself in various forms and processes. The form or process is what describes the entire mode of interaction and relationship that should build consensus among key stakeholders in the collaboration. The processes usually take a vertical approach which may be top-down in a state or private corporation-led initiative or bottom-up in a community-led initiative (Leifsen *et al.*, 2017). The processes involved in a top-down approach include prior consultation, compensation practices, participatory planning, and affected

population involvement in social and environmental assessment. On the other hand, communities could initiate participatory processes using mechanisms such as community-led consultations, community groups using a FPIC initiative and calls for an impact assessment process (Leifsen *et al.*, 2017). Whichever form it takes, it is paramount for key stakeholders to initiate a collaborative process that builds trust, promotes face-to-face communication, commitment, shared understanding, that prevents group domination and that improves inclusion (Dean, 2018). Collaborative governance scholars have pointed out that any community-based collaborative process should be based on network arrangements with a horizontal relationship which will place the entire stakeholder on an equitable level (Michel, 2017, Kim, 2016). Newig *et al.*, (2018: 273) believe that the involvement of stakeholders should reflect

Processes and structures of public decision making that engage actors from the private sector, civil society, and/or the public at large, with varying degrees of communication, collaboration, and delegation of decision power to participants.

It is obvious from Newig's submission that representatives from various stakeholders' forums would have to be engaged for a holistic collaborative process. The issues that arise from the author's definition above are consistent with the position of other contributors (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2005; Osborne, 2000), who ask: "Who are the actors that needed to be engaged? How are they to be engaged and what is the extent of the power they possess to make a meaningful contribution?" Bearing these questions in mind, the ideas derived from collaborative governance literature suggest that collaborative processes refer to the participatory mechanisms that are symbolic of the governance policy instrument (Boussaguet, 2015). From existing studies, the implementation agency needs to develop an effective participatory mechanism by which the problem can be addressed through various approaches. According to Leifsen *et al.* (2017: 1044), the collaborative governance process does not just give legitimacy to the action of government or promote collaboration with other stakeholders; rather, it should empower marginalised groups within the policy community.

However, the application of collaborative process is viewed by most scholarly works as a mere "formal participatory processes in practice" which has little or no impact in taming dissention (Leifsen *et al.*, 2017:1044). Nevertheless, this is a symbolic policy instrument through which participatory governance is promoted (Dean, 2018; Michel, 2017; Boussaguet, 2015). This implies that putting a participatory process in place does not prevent conflict. However, the consistent conflict has been attributed to the top-down approach (Leifsen *et al.*, 2017). However,

the bottom-up approach is also required to mollify the usual contestation from the local populace. The conclusion, therefore, is that the relationship between the key stakeholders and the local inhabitants is described as “potential partners and potential adversaries” (Dean, 2018) due to its fragility regarding exclusion.

A study that analyses public participation in the UK policy programme claims that community participation processes are better understood when viewed in the public policy arena (Newman *et al.*, 2004). The authors’ sole focus on deliberative forums as a process of engagement not only places a sort of limitation on their study; it also confines the policy climate to a social context viz-a-viz how policies are interpreted and enacted to accommodate local involvement. Although, the study suggests a process of incorporation whereby citizens are involved in institutional practices through “repeated cycles of exchange” but the emphasis is laid on the conventional participatory processes (Newman *et al.*, 2004: 214). Lately, there are new models like system dynamics and computer simulations which are being introduced into the field of public participation in public policy. The new participatory approaches offer a comprehensive solution for wider stakeholder involvement (Andersen *et al.*, 2017). Despite the wider collaborative spectrum of the modern participatory mechanisms, the literature on the collaborative process has exhibited an open preference for face-to-face dialogue. As these stakeholders discuss solutions, they were also interested in looking for ways to create a road map for implementation (Kinzer, 2016: 303). Drawing from the above, the researcher investigated the participatory mechanism employed in the implementation of NP4 and how effective it was in creating a sense of belonging for the community in the implementation of NP4. Moreover, contributors to collaborative governance models like Kim (2016), Bang & Kim (2016) and Emerson *et al.*, (2012: 19) advocate for a *collaborative governance regime* (CGR) with “flexible, involuntary and ‘soft-wired’” horizontal network management system. This study will examine the extent to which the process allows for a vertical, horizontal or hybrid participatory mechanism within the governance framework.

2.5 Conceptualising Public-Private Partnership

Opinions vary about how authors conceptualize PPP. While some scholars highlight its considerable benefits in terms of effectiveness and efficiency (Cruz & Cruz, 2017; Hodge & Greve, 2016 and Collin & Smith, 2008); others fear that the model contravenes democratic ideology using inadequate public participation and involvement (Hudon, 2011; El-Gohary *et al.*, 2006; Denhardt & Denhardt, 2000; Hodge & Greve, 2007 and Skelcher, 2005). The latter group identifies the transfer of governmental functions to private hands as a major challenge of network governance. The scholars in the group argue that the process in PPP arrangement often grossly undermines democratic principles like transparency, accountability and public participation. PPPs are part of a larger network in which various stakeholders are to be involved for inclusivity and wider participation. Numerous criteria exist upon which PPP successes are measured rather than focusing on egotistic parameters such as effective delivery, efficiency and economic viability (Nederhand & Kiljn, 2016; Esty, 2016).

The common feature in the description of PPP from literature is that the concept defines a variety of arrangements involving the public and private sectors working together (Hodge & Greve, 2016 and Cruz & Marques, 2013). The agreement between the government and one or more private partners sees the private partners deliver the service in such a manner that the service delivery objectives are aligned with the profit objectives of the private partners and where the effectiveness of the alignment depends on a sufficient transfer of risk to the private partner (OECD, 2008). Hodge and Greve (2016) argue that PPPs especially, the Long-Term Infrastructure Contract (LTIC) model, the most common popularised in the U.K by the Conservative government in the early 1980s is now prominent around the world (De Vries and Yehoue, 2013; Osborne, 2002; Whitfield, 2001 and Payne, 1999). Liu *et al.*, (2014), point out that the need to reduce budgetary debt deficit has made private sector collaboration attractive to many governments in both developed and developing nations globally. Cruz and Cruz (2017) argue that given the extreme polarisation of the two classics; public goods and services delivery models – public ownership and full privatisation and their associated benefits and pitfalls, public-private partnership arrangement emerged as an intermediate model through which public goods can effectively be financed and public services efficiently delivered and maintained (Osborne, 2002 and Hudson, 2011).

Lagos State policy document on PPP describes the concept in section 8 subsection 19 as a

“contract whereby the private sector is engaged by the public sector to manage public services and/or to design, build, finance and operate infrastructure to enhance efficiency, broaden access and improve the quality of public service”.

The above definition tends to demonstrate the source of the problem facing PPP implementation in Lagos State. A cursory look at the definition reveals a paternalistic conceptualisation of any government initiative PPP in Nigeria. The definition ‘somehow’ ascribes supremacy to the government rather than seeing PPP as a mutual arrangement and the symbiotic relationship among networks of actors and stakeholders. Therefore, the definition is seen to be narrowly conceived. Some authors have argued that the definition of PPP should not exclude stakeholders like NGOs, civil organizations, trusts (in the case of the church, schools etc.) and the communities. Bearing this in mind, McQuaid (2000: 11) provides a more working definition when he defines the concept as “cooperation between actors where they agree to work together towards a specified economic development objective.” The partnership based on this definition draws the key distinction between generalised policy communities that develop a broad local vision for the local economy and the specific networks (or partnerships) that are necessary to support individual projects. Subsequently, authors have also expressed the view that the definition of PPP should not exclude the NGOs, CBOs who represent stakeholders directly linked to the project or affected by it (Akpoghome & Nwano, 2020; Skelcher, 2010; MQuaid, 2000; ADB, 2008).

Generally, certain criteria give definite insight into the conceptualisation of PPP. Firstly, PPP is a long-term relationship and not a one-off affair between a public and a private actor - a form of synergy. Secondly, there is the involvement of delivery strategy through which the project is executed, and that the relationship is not entirely towards financial reward due to the public element involved. (McQuaid, 2000). Thirdly, PPPs are inherently complex due to the high level of political support, political expectations, finance and technicalities involved. Although the concept combines the value of governmental interference with the qualities of a market-oriented party (Kiljn & Teisman, 2000); political support is a sine qua non for its successful implementation (Zhang *et al.*, 2016; Quaid, 2001). When viewed from a policy perspective, it is a subset of the tools of government which should be designed with appropriate governance mechanisms that protect the public interest. Therefore, despite the “delegation of authority of public concern to the private” sector, the question of governance is particularly important (Skelcher, 2010:1).

Therefore, this study agrees with the perception of authors who have viewed the concept of PPP from the standpoint of governance (Jensen, 2019; Hodge & Greeve, 2016; Quick & Bryson, 2016; Esty, 2016). Authors have perceived collaborative governance as a policy ‘toolbox’ through which broad policy objectives of PPP can be promoted (Jensen, 2019; Scott & Thomas, 2017). In this light, PPP is perceived as any form of collaboration involving the public sector and a range of actors such as the private, voluntary sector, and local community organisations in the delivery of infrastructural policies through appropriate sharing of risks, resources and skills that are of benefit to each partner involved, the community as well as other stakeholders. It is not impossible to argue against the definition. However, such will only emerge if there is a long-standing arbitrary use of the concept. There are wide varieties of PPPs but they are categorised into two major types: a PPP of a purely contractual nature (where the private party acquires the use of state/municipal property for its commercial purposes) and a PPP of an institutional nature (where the private party performs an institutional/municipal function). Although, most of the literature is concerned with contractual PPPs (Zhang *et al.*, 2014), some literature do not wish to consider concessions and joint ventures as PPP, a dichotomy that is baseless. Nevertheless, most of the projects that constitute this study are mega-projects of commercial infrastructure jointly owned by the public and the private partners, located in specific communities in Lagos State. Other models of PPP agreement in Lagos State, as well as the project, itself will be highlighted in the next chapter.

2.6 Conceptualising community and community involvement

The conventional practice in any study is to define concepts and to conceptualise the same in the context of the subject of the study. However, this process is usually circumvented in most recent literature that focuses on community studies and development. It is observed, with a level of concern, that the most recent authors in the field of community participation and development consistently neglect the definition of community in their recent publications. Historically, authors have pointed out that some controversies and debates surround the term ‘community’ (Crow & Mah, 2012; De Beer & Swanepoel, 1998). They also remark that most dictionary definitions are vague and outdated, therefore, making the conceptualisation of the term more problematic amid modern developments. de Beer & Swanepoel (2005) pointed out that most orthodox scholars relate communities to a locality or spatial relationship in terms of their prevailing culture, religion and ethnicity. The perception of these scholars is usually mirrored

in concepts like deprivation, inequality, denial, limitations, social class or divisions (Crow & Mah, 2012). To some extent, this perception permeates the average mindset. Therefore, the community continues to be poorly perceived and viewed in the light of a 'socio-spatial definition' in the context of villages, districts and the down-town, up-town divide. Unfortunately, to date, the term community is still persistently and wrongly perceived by scholars (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2005: 18), although in the '70s, this perception changed when authors like Roberts declared that "the community exists when a group of people perceives common needs and problems, acquires a sense of identity and has a common sense of objective" (Roberts(1979) Quoted from De Beer & Swanepoel, 2005: 18)

21st-century researchers, like Crow and Mah, declare that there were problems with the study of community problems due to the conventional methodological approaches being used. The authors, in their recent review of the literature remark that the perception is changing due to the change in trends (Crow & Mah, 2012). Modern authors perceive the term 'community' to express positive connotations like social belongingness, collective well-being, solidarity and support (Crow & Mah, 2012). Community researchers are employing a more participatory method which results in community-based participatory research. Therefore, recent authors use different methodological approaches like mixed methods, historical, archival, case studies, survey and others. They triangulate the methods to capture the whole essence of the term 'community'. For instance, a study carried out by Macqueen and her colleagues in 2001 found the need for consensus in the perception of the term community, particularly, in the era of community collaboration (Macqueen, Mcllellan, Metzger, Kegeles, Strauss, Scotti, Blanchard & Trotter, 2001). The study which attempts to examine the potential local as well as historic experience of how people perceive the word "community" to find coherence in the diversity of local experience. The study which conducted 118 interviews found, through a cluster analysis, that location, sharing, joint actions and social themes are the most common themes that are frequent in the definition of participants. Based on the authors' articulation of various 'core elements' in the participants' definition, he describes the community as:

..... a group of people with diverse characteristics who are linked by social ties, share common perspectives and engage in joint action in geographical locations or settings. (Macqueen et al., 2001)

This definition shares some similarities with the one made earlier by De Beer & Swanepoel (2005: 18) which says that community exists once a “group of people perceives common needs and problems, acquires a sense of identity and has a common sense of objective.” The important components of the two definitions are the issue of ‘commonality’ which connotes cohesion and common problems, common goals, common objectives and a common pursuit. These themes are found to influence most authors’ descriptions of the community. While definitions appear to be similar, there is a fundamental disparity regarding the location which is central to this study. Therefore, this study draws significantly from the definition made by MacQueen *et al.*, (2001). Although, the view expressed by de Beer & Swanepoel shifts attention from spatial dimension to shared interest and common identity. It is nevertheless important to state that implementing effective community representation for joint action or collaborative efforts is another issue that has generated heated debate in the literature. This debate impacts negatively on how to mobilise the community members and groups towards addressing emerging common issues (Sally & Rosemary 2019; Campbell & Im, 2016)

Needless to say, the hierarchies that characterised the delivery of public services in times past have given way to market orientation and efficiency in public service delivery. This new orientation towards public service delivery has resulted in ‘fragmentation’ of public sector service delivery. This fragmentation does not exclude community organisations in infrastructural governance (World Bank, 2019; Sally & Rosemary, 2019; Mehraz, 2016). Community involvement could be made contractual as Dickinson (2016: 43) pointed out. Some strategies can be applied for effective community involvement in infrastructural governance. These are identified as:

- a. Local coalitions: the concept of coalition revolves around ‘alliances’ of diverse organisations working together. The process of the coalition is formal and multi-faceted. It involves “planning, design, policy development, organisation and advocacy” functions between organisations, groups, governmental and non-governmental agencies and the communities in the implementation of the project (McCloskey *et al.*, 2013: 48). Such alliance involves seeking commitments from community rulers, influential individuals, forum leaders and interest groups to create a process for community mobilization and engagement. They should source and explore resources within the community for mutual benefits before outsourcing.

- b. Cultural and ecological influences: there is a need for the joint partner and MDAs to see themselves as part of the community and to blend with the cultural values of the community. In line with Gaus' ecological theory. The ecological approach assumes that organisational behaviour is an outgrowth of the interaction of cultural traits, an extension of the higher social culture in line with Gaus ecological theory to policy implementation and public administration (Cerna, 2013). Recent studies have endorsed the strategic importance of ecology to multi-level policy environments (Bassey, 2020; Sagrestano, Joy & Finerman, 2018; Sun & Ren, 2017). The authors advanced the need for policy implementers to recognise the social, political, geographical as well as cultural factors prevalent in any policy community. McCloskey remarks that sensitivity to cultural elements in a community impacts the "landscape of information and ideas in which the policy operates" (McCloskey et al., 2013: 6)
- c. Social harmony: Mobilising the community to be aware of and to become involved in the policy project is bound to yield a good result (Braithwaite *et al.*, 1994). Community involvement will also help in curbing misgivings, reduce crimes at project sites, facilitate harmonious relationships, improve social conditions and interactions between sections of the community, PHs and other stakeholders (Blair, 2018; Radtke et al., 2018)
- d. Local clientele workforce: a good community engagement positively impacts the cost of doing the project. For instance, by sourcing manpower from the community through a community recruitment initiative. The practice has formed part of the recruitment policy of some private firms, which has brought about some new concepts in the recruitment process, like service-learning which involves engaging people within the community for community action. Service providers like suppliers and contractors could be contracted out to members of the community.
- e. Support scheme: To further the above, suppliers and other client service providers could also be sourced from within the community for small-scale supply services. The suppliers could be empowered by granting them local purchase orders in advance or by issuing part-payment in advance.

- f. Community capacity building: This enhances dignity and self-esteem, promotes education and helps to shape values and beliefs. Burton (2009) wrote that it is only through participation that the citizens find their identity and that; “social integration, social cohesion or social solidarity” is built when the public is involved in the governance of their domain (Burton, 2009: 29). Smith (2018) identifies three fundamental questions which capacity building should answer in the sphere of policy;
- How can public policymakers tap into community experience at all levels of the policymaking process?
 - How can citizens and communities move beyond lobbying as special interest groups to become engaged as partners with government officials and policymakers in meaningful dialogue and problem-solving?
 - How can public policy processes help to build the capacities of all sectors to work together for more credible and inclusive policymaking and governance? (Akhakpe, 2016; Smith, 2003)
- g. Community Empowerment: Empowerment through representation and participation is one of the political principles of good governance (Bhoroma, 2018; Mavee, 2014). Empowerment according to Harrison & Waite describes “the development and implementation of mechanisms to enable individuals or groups gain control, develop skills and test knowledge” (see Jo & Nabatchi, 2018: 232). The zenith of community involvement in governmental activities is the aspect of community empowerment. Before residents can make any meaningful contribution or influence decisions that affect them, they require “more than power alone” – there is a need for them to be empowered (Choquill, 1996:433). Perhaps, the spectrum of public participation developed by the International Institute of Public Participation (IAP2) gives an insight into the roles the community plays in the decision-making process (IAP2, 2017). Empowerment is considered strategic to community participation due to the nature of the society which has the under-privileged, less-advantaged and less-endowed who must not be left out of the policy implementation process (Bhoroma, 2018; Imparato & Ruster, 2003; Desai, 2002). However, from the graphical illustration which was developed from the model analyses (see figure 2.4) it can be seen that community capacity building

which results in community empowerment is a gradual process. It further explains the gradual level of engagement from the level of providing the community with necessary information about the programme or project to the level at which they are empowered through the different levels of involvement and activities as highlighted and discussed below.

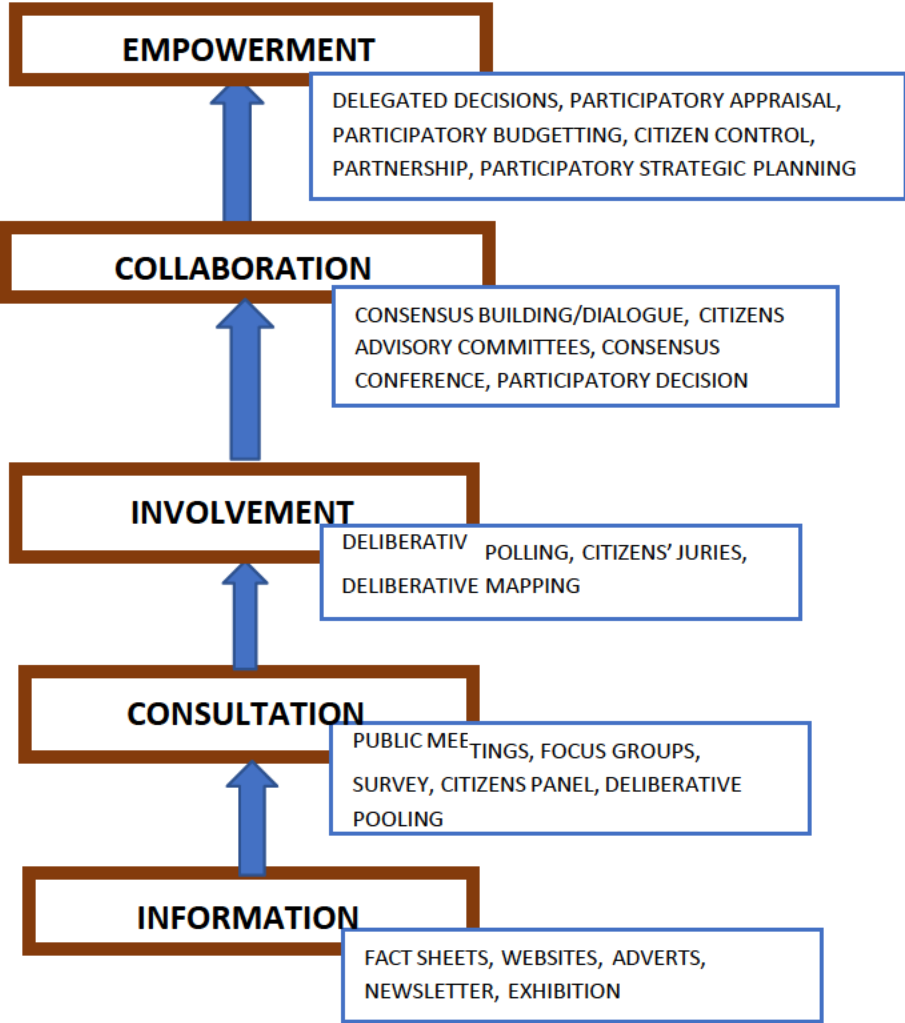


Figure 2.4: Spectrum of Participation

Adapted from IAP2 (2018:1)

- Information: This plays a critical role in any participation process. Empirical studies have shown that PPP is characterised by problems of information disclosure (Musawa *et al.*, 2017; World Bank Group, 2014). Ismail, Musawa & Ahmad identified factors responsible for the lack of information as the technicalities involved in PPP deals, use of SPVs, lack of corporate governance, poor risk reporting and commercial

confidentiality clauses (Ismail, *et al.*, 2019: 4). However, without adequate information and necessary education, the communities are not empowered to be involved meaningfully and to see the alternatives to problems and opportunities that are involved in the project or policy (Hanna, 2000). For PPP to work as an institutional model for infrastructural development in Nigeria, the existing trust between the stakeholders has to be strongly built. The citizenry must be conversant with the basics of PPP. The legal framework has to be sound because the concept involves some complexities in terms of duration, cost and other contingencies (PPPLRC, 2016). From the literature, leaders in the public domain and managers, due to complexities involved in PPP alienates from public glare during negotiation. They hold the misconceptions that “PPP model is not accountable” and that PPP’s framework evolved with a level of accountability, particularly to stakeholders, but with “limited transparency”. Therefore, “transparency” issue in PPP negotiation is seen as “management” affair (Mukhopadhyay, 2016, Para. 7). It is the role of the Office of PPP which is a government agency or department to provide the necessary information that the public needs in respect of PPP. Andrew (2007: 167) identified how public information is conveyed through advertisements newsletters and exhibitions. Although information-sharing does not connote participation or empowerment in the real sense, it is a necessary step towards community empowerment (Landgren & McMakin, 2018; Musawa *et al.*, 2017; Hanna, 2000).

- Consultation: This is a one-way process to obtain public feedback on analysis, alternatives and/or decisions. It is described as a ‘token’ of community involvement in a policy project (Arnstein, 2015); however, there is little room for meaningful interaction using surveys, deliberative pooling, public hearings and meetings.
- Involvement: At the level of involvement, policymakers and implementers see the need to work directly with the public community throughout the process to ensure that the communities develop their stake in any project development in their domain. The organisation and or government agency should ensure that the aspirations of the community in the project are consistently addressed (Albert & Passmore, 2008).
- Collaborative: At this level, a level of partnership with the community takes place. This gives recognition and power to the community as a stakeholder. The strategy

of collaboration includes consensus building/dialogue, citizens' advisory committees, consensus conferences, and the participatory decision to partner with the public in each aspect of the decision.

- Empower: In most developing nations, the community lacks the wherewithal to make much input into the policy implementation process especially with regard to delegated decisions, participatory appraisal, participatory strategic planning and budgeting. Therefore, "empowerment at the community level has a limited application" (IAP2, 2017). Despite the community's limited capacity in making a meaningful contribution to the high-levelled decision-making process or policymaking, they can be empowered to contribute their local expertise through different support schemes and community capacity building initiatives (CCBI). Arnstein (2015) describes the stage of community involvement in decision-making at the level of community control which is still quite elusive in the real sense of the word. At the level of policy implementation, a 'bottom-up approach' seems to create a level of empowerment for the community in the implementation process.

Here in this section, various strategies that can lead the way for the key stakeholders to build trust, partnerships and community support were discussed. The bane of the problem is the misconception by the vast majority that PPP is a two-partner arrangement between the government and its private investors. The introductory remark drew attention to the fact that amongst the indices for measuring the performance and success of any PPP was the meaningful and sustainable involvement of every stakeholder, including the host communities as reflected in the statement of the problem. Further to this, there may be a question as to why the community must be involved in the two-way partnership as the name suggests. Moreover, one might wish to question the agitation of the host community for inclusion as an unnecessary intrusion. The next section attempts to address the legitimacy of the host community's involvement in the PPP policy implementation.

2.7 PPP and the local community: the question of legitimacy

The process of change which follows the introduction of PPP in most developing nations has resulted in structural amendments and has called for the democratisation of the policy process. To fully democratise the process and make people's involvement a reality, Lah (2010)

opines that greater engagement with a broader policy community is a prerequisite in PPP policy implementation. This invariably means that interest groups in the community must be represented to determine issues regarding the projects. Bhoroma (2018), while stressing the relevance of the local communities points out that PPP has lots of benefits when measured in terms of local economic empowerment; therefore, the old command and control structures in the public sector are paving ways for new governance collaborations and interrelationships which attracts mixed feelings and reactions from the communities. Authors, therefore, call for change in the policy cycle in line with the trend of the new governance system (Liu *et al.*, 2015). In the past, the emphasis had always been on policy analysis as it relates to the policy domain where we have elected representatives or policymakers or at the subsystems level, where we have the bureaucrats, policy implementers. However, in recent times, PPP is seen to be useful for high- cost projects involving social and technical complexities with a practical framework. Authors have therefore identified community involvement as a requirement to boost policy legitimacy and this can result in effective policy outcomes. As noted by McQuaid (2000; 21),

“... where many policy-implementation decisions are being made by employed officials of elected members of national, state or local authorities or even by unelected quasi-autonomous non-governmental organisations, then the legitimacy of the policies as seen at the local level can be enhanced through community participation.”

The core of the above remark by McQuaid is that, with the involvement of non-elected local community members in the conceptualisation of PPP, there is a likelihood of building a strong incentive for local authorities to be involved in PPP processes. Their involvement will thus create the opportunity for communities to make input towards the success of the project in furtherance of legitimacy and representation. It is important to state that the advocates of PPP for the developing nations, mostly major donor agencies, often over-value the usefulness of PPP in terms of value creation and effectiveness without considering the governance framework which is often a bane to the network arrangements. Given this, there are significant studies that have established that active involvement of the public is key in giving legitimacy to public policy initiatives (Hodge & Greve, 2016; Kim, 2016, Blair *et al.*, 2010; Rowe and Frewer, 2000) and communities are usually active participants when they are involved in public initiatives (Kim, 2016). Similarly, Mansuri & Rao (2012: 10) unequivocally state that “communities tend to

express greater satisfaction with decisions in which they participate”. Despite this, Callahan (2007) has observed that public programmes which focus on effectiveness and economic rationalities tend to overlook or ignore wider public participation in most cases (Callahan, 2007). It is however pointed out that stakeholders are sometimes “not properly consulted or engaged in governance processes” (ADB, 2008: 20) which accounts for most PPP failures (Jayasuriya *et al.*, 2016). As it is incumbent on private partner’s in PPP to use their expertise in running the project; on the other hand, the government has a responsibility to create “environmental awareness, local knowledge and ensure that the public is mobilized for political support” (ADB, 2008: 7). It is remarked that most public institutions [in most developing nations] lack participatory governance frameworks and required capacities for inclusive governance, hence, they only treat issues of public involvement in governance in abstraction (Pessoa, 2008; Bang & Kim, 2016). Of particular interest to the researcher is the PPP policy initiative in Lagos State which researchers have perceived to be ‘elitist’ based on the nature of projects and contractual agreements entered into in the bid to achieve its mega-city vision (Adama, 2018; Opawole & Jagboro, 2017; Oluwasanmi & Ogidi, 2014). A study that examined the infrastructural challenges that Lagos State Government is facing and how the state gives priority to PPP in funding its mega project pointed out that there is a “socio-spatial exclusion and confirmed persistent inequalities” in the network relations due to the multiplicity of actors involved (Adama, 2018: 14). More importantly, the international support agencies who designed the existing framework for PPP implementation in most developing societies have suddenly realised the overwhelming influence the host communities have on the survival of PPP. For instance, The World Bank Group in 2019 released a draft for a discussion entitled the *Guide to Community Engagement for Public-Private Partnership*. The new guide, according to the International Finance Corporation (2019) highlights the details of how the communities affected by the PPP project implementation, can be engaged in meaningful partnership as well. This initiative further lays credence to the strategic importance of the community as a constituent stakeholder in PPP policy implementation.

Essentially, a growing body of literature has generally looked at PPP implementation in various economies alongside themes like collaborative governance, public participation, community engagement projects and infrastructural governance. The researcher deemed it necessary to conduct a review of these works as part of the patch work that should

be assembled to create a base for this study in amongst the existing literature. Therefore, the next section reviews scholarly works related to this study.

2.8 Broad review of the literature

In this section, the researcher reviews the works of scholars in relation to various themes of this study, viz; community participation, infrastructural governance, policy implementation, and PPP. This review becomes necessary to compare, avoid superfluous duplication and identify gaps in the existing studies that the current study will address.

Quite recently, a few systematic studies have emerged across sub-Saharan African countries to address the problems of stakeholder involvement in the new governance arrangement. In line with the subject of this thesis, scholars now focus on infrastructural governance with special emphasis on local participation (Mapfumo & Mutereko, 2020; Bekele, 2019; Di Maddaloni & Davis, 2018; Stammier & Ivanova, 2016; Jordhus-Lier, 2015). While these studies centre on the need for the government to allow contributions from stakeholders; community stakeholding receives scant attention. Moreover, there are findings in a recent study by Bekele (2019) that suggest that governments in realisation of the importance of involving communities in infrastructural governance are beginning to engage the communities in a window-dressing sort of arrangement in urban projects in Ethiopia. Bekele further noted that the communities were involved simply to fill financial gaps and that their involvement was not institutionalised which has led to other problems like poor communication and relationships. A similar finding was reported in a study carried out earlier in post-communist Romania where local communities were seen to be moderately involved in decision-making (Haruta & Bianca, 2010). The exposition in Haruta & Bianca's study is limited to local public institutions and public officials and top civil servants. The study did not include the local populace who were said to be involved in the process. The existing accounts fail to resolve the contradiction between interaction with the local community groups and involving them in project or policy implementation.

A very large number of studies have recently been published in project performance and management journals (Sally & Rosemary, 2019; Di Maddaloni & Davis, 2017; Mehraz, 2016; Jordhus-Lier, 2015; Eskerod *et al.*, 2015). For instance, Di-Maddaloni & Davis, in their exploratory study, investigated how the local community stakeholders are perceived, defined and categorised by the project handlers (PHs) in major public infrastructures and construction projects. These authors identify a lack of understanding of the various groups and the motivation

behind their actions as major factors impeding infrastructural development. They conclude that responding to stakeholders' interests and concerns as major factors that could help project handlers (PHs) to "maximize stakeholders' positive inputs and minimize the negative impact" (Di Maddaloni & Davies, 2018:544). In another study, Jordhus (2015) argued that the encounter between the state and the business interests, as they strive to realise mega projects, oftentimes results in an asymmetrical power relationship that produces community disempowerment and divisiveness. Jordhus further contends that the problems are occasionally created by the government artificially for manoeuvring and, in the process, this makes it more problematic as it gives PPP a bad name. Therefore, the growth of interaction between large project managers and communities should be re-awaken in the minds of project managers of the need to further advance the knowledge of communities to facilitate participation.

In a doctoral dissertation, Mehrnaz (2016) narrowed the focus of community involvement to a PPP project through an evaluative study of a PPP project in Manhattan as a case study. The study evaluates community participation opportunities using a Community Engagement Attribute Evaluation System (CEAES) in line with public participation metrics. One significant feature of Mehrnaz's work is its profoundly rich conceptual and methodological framework which is in line with the subject matter of this research study. However, her exposition is quite unsatisfactory because the study fails to give reasonable attention to project governance neither did she recognise PPP as a policy tool. Aside from the fact that the study did not study community involvement from the perspective of the policy framework, the experimental data and analysis were not structured, hence, her findings were loosely presented. The evaluation, therefore, fails to align the objective of her study with her findings. The study therefore rarely addresses community engagement beyond the superficial definition of concepts. Overall, all these studies are methodological; nevertheless, they are narrower in scope due to the authors' inclinations and their ethnographic orientation. The afore-mentioned literature suggests therefore that community involvement in project execution has become an issue that is being addressed increasingly by researchers in many fields.

Significantly, some scholars have maintained a strong position that a sound institutional framework enhances policy outcomes (Sabir, Rafique & Abbas, 2019; Gualini, 2018, Sidney, 2017; Polski, 2016). In a well-crafted article by Zhang *et al.*, they conclude that the performance of PPP in fostering infrastructural governance depends substantially on its institutional environment (Zhang *et al.*, 2014) Although these authors base their argument on how

institutions induce successful implementation of policy, their views are commonly theoretical. Polski & Ostrom contextualise the word 'institution' in a formal and an informal context. The latter is highly relevant to this study. The authors contextualise institutions in a formal context as laws, policies and procedures. Further, they say that institution, in an informal context, connotes norms, standard operating procedures or habits (Polski & Ostrom, 1999:14). The institutional framework, therefore, gives an insight into the categories of people that should be involved in decisions, powers, functions and interactions during policy implementation (Oliviera & Miranda, 2019; Polski, 2016; Delmon, 2015). Using the analogy in the 'managerial governmentality' concept, Hudon (2011) explained that democratic governance cannot be applied to implementation due to the technicality involved in implementation. The extent to which the position of Hudon is supported in literature was not apparent to the author.

Ismail *et al.*, (2019) in a very recent study, demonstrates that the technicalities involved in the PPP infrastructural governance explain why information is not made public. The act of information hoarding by community stakeholders in PPP implementation has added to the growing concern of authors in the field. For instance, Ismail *et al.*, (2019) Musawa, 2017; Norton & Hughes, (2018) and Delmon (2015) claim that the problem contributes to the lack of transparency, trust and accountability in PPP infrastructural governance. Some writers, for instance, Bekele, (2019) have attempted to conclude that without effective communication, community participation cannot be institutionalised for better impact. Wieviora *et al.*, in what they described as a public policy paradigm suggest that it is essential to establish policy institutions by which policies are implemented; else, policy implementation will be driven without focus. Furthermore, scholars have dwelt on the relevance of policy evaluation and appraisal through an appropriate feedback mechanism to ascertain policy impact and to promote a relationship of reciprocal empowerment between the community interest groups and policy implementers (Sanni 2016; Moniyan & Soss, 2015; Jacob & Weaver, 2010). Collectively, these authors outline the critical role that a good collaborative governance framework will play in the establishment of workable infrastructural governance that will promote community interests. Drawing on the contributions of these authors, this study intends to find out how the policy framework for PPP implementation in Lagos State safeguards the interest of the host communities and how it impacts the PPP infrastructural governance in Lagos State in a pragmatic way.

In Nigeria, numerous published articles have examined PPP as a tool for physical infrastructural development. However, factors that influence PPP implementation and performance have been the centre-piece of most of these studies (Omoriegbe *et al.*, 2019; Owolabi, 2018; Sanni, 2016; Erumebor, 2017; Nwagu, 2016; Bamidele *et al.*, 2016; Esia & Yusuf, 2013). For instance, Omoriegbe *et al.*, in their recent research study analysed the 24 factors that contribute to the failures of PPP projects in Benin City, Nigeria. Using a scale of severity index, their analysis ranks corruption as the 1st with a severity index of 87% and insufficient competition among private parties is ranked 24 with a severity index of 47%. Factors relating to poor governance and lack of social support and partnership skills featured prominently within the ranking. The result reflects the findings earlier made by Sanni (2016). While both examined the same issue; the scope, the approach and methodology were different. Both findings recognised the place of a good governance system that attracts social and political support as an important factor for successful PPP implementation in Nigeria. Both studies focus mainly on PPP project sustainability paying scant attention to issues of public support and involvement. However, Omoriegbe *et al.*, (2019) and Sanni (2016) recognise factors such as poor institutional framework, absence of social support, lack of partnership skills and poor governance as impeding factors. The author's emphasis on project feedback as a dominance variable in the Success factor model developed by Sanni (2016) is significant as shall be seen in the course of this research study. Conclusively, the researcher's objective evaluation of the empirical articles discussed in the Nigerian context indicates that all the authors employ different analytical methods but oftentimes arrive at similar findings. Owolabi (2018) carried out an appraisal of public participation in the infrastructural provision in Nigeria and reports a correlation in a way. The author's regression analysis demonstrates that a significant relationship exists between community group activities and sustainable infrastructural provision in Nigeria. Nevertheless, the scope of the study and its methodology makes it impossible to generalise the findings.

A single empirical study found to have attempted to look at how community-based organisations (CBOs) contribute to the provision of physical infrastructure was published by Owolabi in 2018. Using regression analysis, Owolabi found a significant association between CBO activities and infrastructural provisions. The author attributes the result of the finding to public involvement in decision-making. While it is difficult to fault the outcome of the study, the scope did not accommodate the host communities' involvement in infrastructural governance particularly from a policy perspective. While the arguments in favour of community

involvement has been supported substantially by literature, some writers maintain a contradictory position. Nwezie (2016) in a study that investigates why infrastructural projects fail in Nigeria concludes that community interference, among others, is a major factor. The author claims that the host communities consistently make impossible demands from the organisation or project handlers. He identifies the demand for unmerited employment and the inclusion of certain influential community leaders on payrolls which adversely affect the operations of the firms. In conclusion, the author demonstrates that when these demands are not met, the communities resort to disruption of work, equipment vandalism, abduction of expatriate workers by groups within the community. Related to this was a study that links community empowerment to the survival of the infrastructural project in their domain (Eja & Ramagowda, 2020). The authors maintain that the impact of project failures is borne more by the communities because of the resultant effect which leads to low community empowerment socially and economically occasioned by the loss of employment and other opportunities. The studies presented thus far provide evidence that suggests that the host community and the project in their domain have some sort of symbiotic relationship. Both need each other for survival.

The generalisability of much of the published research work on community involvement in project governance examines the subject from the perspective of land governance, customary property rights, expropriation and compensation (Arimoro, 2019; Lawanson & Agunbiade, 2018; Tagliarino *et al.*, (2018). The studies employ a fact-finding analytical method to analyse descriptively the socio-economic and environmental problems of customary landholders viz-a-viz community deprivations, marginalisations and agitations. Their findings centre on the need for government and PHs to ensure that the host communities get adequate compensation as stakeholders to avoid protracted disputes in the implementation of projects in their domains. The objective review of the works of these authors shows that their investigations were narrowed to the problems associated with unpaid compensation and agitation. Far too little attention is paid to the generic problem of project governance. Therefore, despite there being a great deal of literature on PPP and public participation, a wide gap still exists because no empirical study has addressed community stakeholding infrastructural policy implementation especially in the context of Nigeria.

There is also the need to do a quick review of the works of the few authors who have analysed the state of PPP in Nigeria but their approaches were theoretical. (Erumebor, 2017; Bamidele *et al.*, 2016; Arimoro, 2015; Esia & Yusuf, 2013). Both Erumebor (2017) and Esia & Yusuf (2013), for instance, conducted comparative reviews of PPP practices. They reveal that Nigeria still has a lot to learn from other nations including South Africa in the implementation of PPP. The study identifies the fault with the existing institutional framework which still impairs the self-sustaining potential for PPP. The studies demonstrate that the institutional framework for the implementation of PPP is too fragmented, the authors, therefore, expressed the need for institutional framework restructuring using the proposed model of “horizontal enablers” and “vertical building blocks” (Esia & Yusuf, 2013:10). In contrast to the conclusion of the last authors, Bamidele *et al.*, (2016) and Nwagu (2016) demonstrate that the decentralised system has assisted Lagos State Government to thrive beyond other states in the implementation of PPP. This study found a sparing theoretical discussion on host community stakeholding on PPP through an article published by Arimoro (2015). The author wrote on the impact of community stakeholding drawing his conclusion based on information gathered from secondary sources on the Lekki Epe toll crisis, which was that community involvement is critical to PPP successful implementation. Along with the growth of private sector collaborative networks in Lagos State, there is still an increasing concern over the wave of overt and clandestine agitation in respect of PPP projects implementation and policy decisions by the host communities.

From the review above, it is evident that a good number of scholarly works on collaborative governance focus on the process of conceptualization i.e. advancing the understanding of concepts and improving on the abstract simplified view of previous works. In the process, some authors have developed new working methods and models that will promote stakeholders’ involvement. Most of these works provide theoretical explanation perhaps due to the “newness” of infrastructural governance in the discipline of public policy. Empirical studies in real application are lacking. Furthermore, much uncertainty still exists about the hostile relationship between the project handlers and their host communities in the community-based project governance which existing literature has not exhaustively cover. Considering the foregoing, an empirical study that analyses community participation in the implementation framework of PPP in the context of Nigeria should be worthwhile. This study is an attempt to fill this lacuna using the multi-theoretical perspectives of collaborative governance for an ex-post analysis.

2.9 Summary of the chapter

This chapter defined concepts and reviewed works of scholars relevant to this study. The researcher examined various theoretical frameworks underpinning the study of PPP as policy tool and community participation. The chapter illustrates that a network system alleviates the problems of bureaucratic or market-oriented arrangements that are prone to anarchy and a top-down policy approach. The researcher carried out his investigation from the theoretical perspective of governance theories. Other theories and models that were considered useful for theoretical explanations included ladder of citizenship participation; network governance theories and Institutional Analysis and Development (IAD) theories. Each construct of collaborative governance viz., institutional design, early involvement, facilitative leadership and lastly, participatory mechanisms were used as the basis of analysis in line with the emergingsub-themes. Moreover, highlights of the multi-theoretical approach that offers a philosophical and logical explanation for the study outcomes constitute an integral part of this chapter. The highlights of theories, models and concepts create a solid framework upon which the entire thesis draws its strength. A review of the relevant literature, as well as the conceptualisation of major constructs that are relevant to the study, were presented in this chapter while the next chapter presents the overview of infrastructural development as a precursor to the discussion of PPP infrastructural development policy in the context of Nigeria focusing on Lagos State.

CHAPTER THREE

A CONTEXTUAL PERSPECTIVE OF INFRASTRUCTURAL GOVERNANCE IN NIGERIA

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented definitions of concepts and reviewed earlier works of scholars that set out to refine our understanding of these concepts. This chapter presents an overview of PPP, policy tools and implementation issues in Nigeria. The study considers it essential to present a historical background to policy intervention in infrastructural development to understand clearly the National Policy on Public-Private Partnership. Therefore, this chapter will attempt to provide an in-depth understanding of PPP infrastructural governance in Nigeria in the fourth republic. Since the focus of this study is community involvement in the implementation of National Policy on PPP in Lagos State, the emphasis was placed on Lagos State PPP development and management. The chapter begins with a historical overview of PPP policy and infrastructural intervention in Nigeria. The overview provides background information that offers insight into the genesis of infrastructural development, infrastructural deficit and the efforts that were made through successive governments at the dawn of the new millennium when the Nigerian government began a serious move towards collaboration in the development of its infrastructural space.

3.2 An historical overview of PPP policy and infrastructural intervention in Nigeria

During the oil boom era (1971-1977), the Nigerian government participated massively in the establishment of corporations, state-owned companies, and mixed-economy enterprises. The situation created an opportunity for the existence of state monopolies. The government thus became the largest single employer even in the business sector and had under its direct ownership various highly profitable foreign exchange-earners like the monolithic Nigerian National Petroleum Corporations (NNPC), Nigeria Airways and others. It was argued that government involvement in some of these enterprises was for ideological, political, sociological and developmental reasons. It is important to note that the government's intervention in these enterprises goes beyond the provision of social goods and services. The government also had a deeper interest in profit-oriented businesses that should ordinarily operate in a competitive market. The provision of public goods and services is predominantly a public affair.

With time, bureaucracy, lethargy and other factors like wastages of public funds and corruption, these enterprises were rendered inefficient and they made record annual losses. According to Adebayo (2000:167)

“The problem of inefficiency in Nigerian public-sector performance is far more complicated to value and determine than in a commercial organization where the criterion of efficiency is largely guided by the profit objective”.

It is worthy to note, however, that in the face of the inefficiencies and losses being recorded by the public enterprises, massive public funds were still being sunk into them in the form of subventions in the annual budgets until dwindling revenue sets in as a result of an oil glut in the 1980s. It was at this point of the oil glut that the Nigerian government realised that it had not been a good manager and that it lacked the financial and technical capacity to provide the required infrastructural needs to deliver efficient service to the people. The Federal Government, therefore, saw the need to create opportunities for the private investors in some areas which it had hitherto monopolized; hence, they resorted to policies like commercialisation, deregulation and privatisation.

In pursuance of the above objective, Nigeria government enacted the *Privatization and Commercialization Act of 1988*. The Act established the Technical Committee on Privatization and Commercialization (TCPC) that privatised some government establishments and, by 1993, concluded its assignment. The Committee recommended the establishment of a *Bureau for Public Enterprises Act of 1993*, which repealed the 1988 Act to implement the privatisation programme in Nigeria. In 1999, the Federal Government enacted the *Public Enterprise (Privatization and Commercialization) Act*, which created the National Council on Privatization (NCP), the highest policy-making body for privatisation and commercialisation. The Act also established the Bureau of Public Enterprises (BPE) with the major objective of implementing the NCP’s policies on Privatisation and commercialisation.

However, privatisation and commercialisation failed to yield the desired result perhaps due to the overriding fiscal policies of the government and other issues like a defective policy framework, currency devaluations, unilateral changes to tariffs and social policies. Another contributory factor to the failure of Privatisation and commercialisation was the link to the long reign of the military which appeared to lack the skill of governance (Akhakpe, 2016). Therefore, there exists the need for a revived infrastructure as the existing infrastructures were grossly decayed. Hence, the basic question facing the nation is how to generate the required capital to

finance investment in infrastructural development and maintenance? In the '90s, Nigeria saw the need to shed the weight of the infrastructural burden, therefore, it saw the need to bring in the private sector with capital and expertise required to grow the sector. The government of the fourth republic saw the need to enact the *Infrastructure Concession regulatory (Establishment etc.) Act (ICRCA)* in the year 2005. This was enacted to provide a requisite regulatory and institutional framework within which all MDAs could effectively enter into a partnership with the private sector for financing, development, operation and maintenance of infrastructure utilising concession or contractual arrangement (Onuobia, 2017). Although, there had been a series of legal, regulatory and industry-specific Acts before the promulgation of ICRCA; Soyaju (2013) highlights the notable ones as follows:

- The highway Act, 1971;
- Utilities Charges Commission Act, 1992;
- Bureau of Public Enterprise (Privatization and Commercialization) Act, 1999;
- Nigeria Export Processing Zone Authority (NEPZA), 2004;
- Public Sector Reforms Act, 2005;
- The Infrastructure Concession Regulatory Commission Act, 2005;
- Fiscal Responsibility Act, 2007; and the
- Public Procurement Act, 2007.

The Infrastructural Concession Regulatory Commission (ICRC) was subsequently inaugurated in 2008. The Commission thereafter developed the National Policy on PPP which provides the institutional framework for public-private collaboration in Nigeria (Chima & Ekegbe, 2017; ICRC, 2013). Nigeria is a federation comprising a central government, 36 state governments, and 774 local government authorities. Each federating unit is empowered to exercise some constitutional rights in its infrastructural development which has created room for the proliferation of infrastructural development laws, each state enacting its PPP laws to suit its infrastructural development plans. Most governments have realised the need to partner with the private sector as the best way to fund and manage infrastructure in the best interest of the populace. The concept of public-private partnership is still relatively new in Nigeria (Onuobia, Okoro & Mimiko, 2017). Although the groundwork for private collaboration in public provisions and services had started in the 1980s, NP4 was initiated about two decades ago. However, successive governments have demonstrated a lack of commitment and the political will to implement the policy in Nigeria (Esia & Yusuf, 2013: 115). The situation changed

drastically in the recent decade with full NP4 implementation. Recently, Prof. Yemi Osinbajo, Nigeria's Vice President at a workshop organised by the Global Infrastructure Hub in collaboration with ICRC, in a bid to promote the concept said that "PPPs are imperative in government's quest to finance, build and manage infrastructure" because the government lacked the resources to do same (Vanguard, October 17, 2018 p.8). Some incidences suggest that the implementation of the NP4 has been yielding positive output; nevertheless, the process is still fraught with so many challenges and irregularities (Fadeyi, Adegbuyi, Agwu & Ifeanye, 2016). NP4 empowers states to create their own implementation framework. However, most states are yet to develop the framework for PPP implementation. It is noteworthy that Lagos State has emerged as the foremost state in the implementation of PPP in Nigeria (Onuobia, 2017: 157). As the embrace of PPP is increasing amongst the various levels of governance, there is the need for an inter-governmental framework like South Africa's Department of Cooperative Governance for policy coherence through an established inter-governmental framework (Malan, 2012).

The World Economic Forum (WEF) in its 2016/2017 global competitiveness Index (GCI) ranks Nigeria 132 of 138 countries (Bello-Schünemann, & Porter, 2017). This clearly shows the sorry state of Nigeria in terms of infrastructural development. Nigeria is said to require about 3 trillion USD yearly for the next 26 years to close its infrastructural gaps which is about 100 billion USD annually (Vanguard, 2018; Bello-Schünemann, & Porter, 2017). This indicates that Nigeria is, indeed, trapped in an infrastructural deficit. Hence, concerted efforts are being made by various governments in Nigeria since the emergence of the fourth republic (1999 up to the present) to turn the situation around. The government, at various tiers of governance, has developed a series of initiatives, reform agendas and policies towards infrastructural development, majority of which are PPPs. However, writers have identified loopholes in the legislative and enforcement framework of PPP in Nigeria (Erumebor, 2017; Nwogbo *et al.*, 2017; Opawole & Jagboro, 2017; Babatude *et al.* 2016; Arimoro, 2015; Oluwasanmi & Ogidi, 2014, Onyemaechi & Sammy, 2016). Most of the authors extol PPP as a solution to poor infrastructural financing and the inadequacies of infrastructural governance. They do, however, point out that there are so many issues bedeviling PPP initiatives in Nigeria such as lack of public acceptance, an unstable socio-economic environment, political influence, corrupt practices, a poor legal and institutional framework and poor stakeholder involvement.

This study will take a critical look into the aspect of stakeholder involvement with attention being

paid to community stakeholding. The attention which has been given in the literature concerning community stakeholding in PPP policy implementation in Nigeria is considered by the researcher to be insufficient both in content and in the soundness of methodology.

3.4 The evolution of a National Policy on PPP in Nigeria

All successive governments in Nigeria especially in the fourth republic have had infrastructural development as one of their cardinal objectives. They always attempt to put in place an effective framework for the public-private initiative. Therefore, the ICRC was inaugurated in 2008. The commission's major achievement was the development of the National Policy on PPPs (NP4). The policy objective was to provide clear and consistent processes and procedures for all aspects of PPPs in Nigeria. Nigeria is yet to experience the dividends of PPP policy (Oyedele, 2012). Much has not been achieved by the policy rather the process is "vulnerable to disputes" due to the lack of synergy required by the private sector in areas in which they participate in infrastructural development in Nigeria (Iboh *et al.*, 2018: 2)

The Infrastructural Concession Regulatory Commission, which was inaugurated by the late President Musa Yar'Adua on November 27, 2008, developed the National Policy on Public-Private Partnership. The PPP National Policy document sets out the operational, regulatory and institutional framework for PPP implementation in Nigeria. It highlights the federal government's commitment to the PPP programme (ICRC-NP4 Policy Paper, 2013). The purpose of the policy document is to ensure that the policy runs in line with PPP global standards. The policy document is intended to promote legitimacy, accountability and transparency. The policy objectives are also highlighted by the ICRC in the National Policy on Public-Private Partnership (2013). The policy objectives are classified as economic, social, environmental and value for money (ICRC, 2013). For this study, it is necessary to do a synopsis of these objectives from the policy document (ICRC-NP4 Policy Paper, 2013: 1-3). This is necessary for better understanding and for reference in succeeding chapters of this research study.

Economic objectives of NP4

As highlighted in the policy document, the policy aims to accelerate investment in new infrastructure and to promote the upgrading of existing infrastructure. Through NP4, quality and efficiency of essential services (power, water, transport and other public services) should be boosted. The government intends to create an opportunity for small and medium-scale investors through PPP. Also, Nigeria intends to use NP4 to increase the capacity and diversity of the private sector by providing opportunities for Nigerian and international investors and contractors in the provision of public infrastructure, encouraging efficiency, innovation and flexibility

Social Objectives

The Federal Government of Nigeria intends to achieve a balanced regional development through NP4 and to increase access to the quality public services for all members of society. The policy aims to ensure that user charges for new or improved public services are affordable, qualitative and offer value for money. The policy also protects employee rights; provides job security and better opportunities for Nigeria's large working population to alleviate redundancy and guarantee health, social safety and a better life for Nigerian workers and for the entire public. The interests of Nigerian entrepreneurs; small and medium-scale investors are also safeguarded in the policy framework.

Value for Money

The objective of the government for embarking on any project is to create value for money. Most early writers expressed the view that the major reason why PPP is increasingly becoming the preferred choice of many governments in both developing and developed economies is because the traditional infrastructural procurement system places less emphasis on value for money (Burger & Hawkenworth, 2011; English, 2005). However, this opinion is changing as recent authors argue that PPP is a shared governance system with a broader network of collaborators, hence, there are critical factors to its successful implementation ranging from an all-encompassing policy implementation framework, public acceptance, stakeholders' interest and so on (Opawole & Jagboro, 2017; Babatunde, *et al.*, 2012). In adopting NP4, the Nigerian government is not only focusing on relative effectiveness and efficiency but also better value and more affordable services (ICRC-NP4, Policy Paper, 2013; Esia & Yusuf, 2013).

Environmental Objectives

NP4 has protection and enhancement of the natural environment as its core objective. PPP thrives in a conducive and enabling environment. A study amongst commonwealth nations shows that while some countries have more supportive environments; others are struggling to provide a facilitative environment. Enabling environment for PPP infrastructural development systems varies significantly between the developed nations and the developing ones (Osei-Kyei & Chan, 2017). Some African countries are poorly ranked. Nigeria, unfortunately, is one of the poorly rated in terms of provision of a conducive environment for investors. South Africa, until recently, topped the list of countries with a diminished risk for investors in sub-Saharan Africa (The Economist Intelligence Unit, 2014). However, a recent report ranks South Africa 82nd globally behind countries with lesser infrastructural facilities like Mauritius (20), Rwanda (29), and Kenya (61) due to its volatile business environment and hostility towards minority investors (World Bank Report, 2019). Nigeria is ranked 146. An enabling environment is critical to PPP implementation and it is not limited to the peaceful atmosphere but comprises a good policy, legal and regulatory framework amongst others (Osei-Kyei *et al.*, 2017; ICRC-NP4 Policy Paper, 2013; Yong, 2010). The ICRC Act was thus promulgated to create a legal, financial and institutional framework for PPP policy implementation in an investment-friendly environment for private investors. However, the heterogeneous nature of the Nigerian state which induces mutual suspicion and fear of domination makes the country prone to an atmosphere of rifts, rancour and criticisms which has been undermining effective policy implementation. Other factors militating against Nigeria's policy environment include weak institutional framework, over-politicisation, over-bureaucratisation, ethnocentrism and corruption (Forrest, 2019; Thurston, 2018; Nwagu, 2016). Constitutionally, Nigeria is a secular state, however, the heterogeneous nature of Nigerian society is a factor that oftentimes gives ethnic, tribal, cultural, and religious colouration to every good policy as Ukpere & Ugoh (2011) rightly observed.

Land tenure system has been identified to be among the major challenge facing NP4 implementation in Nigeria (Nwangwu, 2019; Arimoro, 2018). It has been the major source of conflict between the host communities who seem to have a derivative freehold on the land and the government who is constitutionally empowered to expropriate lands to private partners for developmental purposes. Therefore, the researcher shall examine the land governance system in relation to NP4.

3.5 Land governance policy and the NP4 implementation in Nigeria

Infrastructural development revolves around land appropriation, expropriation, location and acquisition. The understanding of land administration and governance system is instrumental to the successful implementation of the PPP policy agenda (The World Bank, 2020; Arimoro, 2020). Land governance, based on literature, refers to those policies and processes through which government administers land and its allocation for development. It describes the interactions of formal and informal rules, mechanisms, processes and institutions by which land is accessed, owned and controlled. It also involves the land disputes management process or grievance control (Lawanson & Agunbiade, 2018; Enemark, 2014). The focal point of land governance is about sustaining effective land policy. Such a policy should be locally responsive as well as sustainable (Enemark, 2014). In the same vein, Anthonio & Griffith-Charles (2019) maintain that land governance should concern itself with land reforms that conform to equity, fairness and socio-culturally acceptability since PPP centres on public infrastructural optimisation and maintenance through private financing and management; government is better positioned to implement an effective land policy that will make land available for infrastructural development. Because of this, a due analysis of land use policy is therefore critical in the study of infrastructural development.

The acquisition of land for infrastructural projects involves a wide range of inter-relationships between the government and private investors and government and the community. This oftentimes results in land expropriation empowered by the *Land Use Act (1978)*. For this analysis, this Act will be referred to as ‘the Act’ or ‘LUA’. The *Land Use Act* refers to the regulatory framework that highlights procedures, methods and approaches of government to regulate and control acquisition, allocation, distribution, methods, management and utilisation of land for the overall interest of the people. The LUA was promulgated by the military government of General Olusegun Obasanjo and incorporated into the 1979 Constitution. The Act was a child of necessity owing to the recommendation of a minority report of a panel set up by the FG to consider the existing land tenure system and to take advice for future land policy (Adisa, 2020; Ako, 2009). The Act aims to facilitate economic as well as infrastructural development by rescinding absolute and disparaged freeholding or withholding of land by individuals, families or communities at the expense of the benefits that such land could offer the generality of the people. The LUA, (1978) was sternly enforced by the Military Government

amidst widespread criticism, skepticism and public outcries. The theme of the Act revolves around land expropriation for developmental purposes. Section 1 of the Act provided that

“.....Subject to the provisions of this Act, all land comprised in the territory of each State in the Federation are hereby vested in the Governor of that State and such land shall be held in trust and administered for the use and common benefit of all Nigerians in accordance with the provisions of this Act.”

Given the above clause, the Act vests all expropriation power in the Governor and by extension, the Chairmen of Local Council for lands in a local jurisdiction. However, this power is given to him to exercise trust. Although the ‘trust concept’ is alien in the African context; people accept and abide by it because the Act was made through decree and it was a supportive factor in the long military rule in Nigeria. Since the emergence of a democratic system of government in 1999, there has been a resurgence of land disputes; physical and legal battles, confrontations and protests by the customary landowners especially when such land is to be expropriated (Otubu, 2014; Nuhu & Aliyu, 2009). Occurrences of this nature have, in the past, resulted in bloodshed and death. A case in point is the deadly protest staged by the 9 communities whose lands were expropriated for the LFTZ that resulted in the death of Mr Tajudeen Disu, Managing Director of the Lekki Worldwide Investment Limited (a major investor in the LFTZ) on the 12th of October 2015.

It might be erroneous to conclude, as many practitioners and scholars have done, that the *Land Use Act* was meant to withdraw every right and privilege of the customary people who had been title holders over the land for generations. It is important, at this point, to bring to the fore that the LUA still recognises communal ownership of lands i.e. communal title rights over land subsist, despite the hullabaloo over the LUA (Nuhu & Aliyu, 2009). The rights of the community over land ownership of the land they occupy are strengthened under Section 34 of the Act. This section confers the *deemed grant* in favour of individuals and people who had freehold rights and had been exercising the same before the promulgation of the 1978 Land Use Act. The customary rights of the community were captured under Customary Rights of Occupancy highlighted in section 51 (1) of the Act. This is a “right of a person or community lawfully using or occupying land in accordance with the customary law”. However, now that we are in what Chimhowu (2019) described as a neo-liberalised customary tenure system, such rights are revoked when they stand in the way of “overriding public interest” (LUA Section

28(3)). Owing to this, many legal battles over land tenure have been ‘fought and won’ in various communities across the federation. Invariably, host communities to PPP projects still have certain inalienable rights under the law to seek compensation for their expropriated lands. Rights to compensation are highlighted in Section 29 of the Act which provides as follows:

“Section 29 (1): If a right of occupancy is revoked for the cause set-out in section, 28 (3) (a) or (c) [the former occupant] will be entitled to claim compensation for (i) the land, for an amount equal to the rent, if any, paid by the occupier during the year in which the right of occupancy was revoked; (ii) buildings, installation or improvements thereon, for the amount of the replacement cost of the building installation or improvement, that is to say, such cost as may be assessed based on the prescribed method or assessment as determined by the appropriate Officer (LUA, Part V, section 29)

The excerpt simply implies that, despite the expropriation power bestowed on the Governor and, at the local levels, the Chairman, no authority is empowered to forcefully or compulsorily take over land from its titleholder without adequate prior notice, appropriate compensation and the purpose for such acquisition should be for the “public purpose”. Scholars and legal luminaries have attempted to contextualize the interpretation of the term “public purpose” (See Section 29(1) above) about land expropriation (Madumere, 2019; Nuhu & Aliyu, 2009). To these authors, it is a strategy by the government to withhold absolute rights to land and to undermine the customary land rights. Therefore, a new arrangement of land reforms is sweeping across sub-Saharan African nations - a system of privatisation, commoditisation and de-regulation of land which is replacing the communal rights to land. Chimhowu (2019:899) describes the new arrangement as “neo-liberalization of customary tenure”.

Tagliarino *et al.*, submit that land expropriation practices in Nigeria, to all intents and purposes, both in law and in practice fall short of global standards because of its legalised framework that confers rights of arbitrary expropriation from the original title holders (Tagliarino *et al.*, 2019). They further describe the Act as arbitrary; besides, it contains legal gaps, ambiguity and grants broad discretion to the Governors. Otubo in his study on land reforms and the future of the LUA pointed out that the administration of LUA in Nigeria is undemocratic, economically unproductive, exploitative and conflict-ridden (Otubu, 2014). In the same way, Ako (2009) argues that the Act hampers the local people from exercising their land freehold rights and has remained one of the most fundamental causes of violent conflicts in the Niger Delta region.

Numerous other scholars have analysed the adverse effect of the Land Use Act concerning crises it has generated between investors and the communities (Tagliarino, 2018); communities versus communities (Agheyisi, 2019); and even intra-communal i.e. conflicts between various groups within the community (Tanimu & Akujuru, 2018). Even in the implementation of NP4, some hiccups have been generated by the LUA regarding, acquisition, appropriation, expropriation and compensation. A large and growing body of literature has identified land as an important factor in infrastructural development in Nigeria and has concluded that Nigeria's land governance system remains a major challenge to infrastructural development (Adisa, 2020; Madumere, 2019; Lawanson & Agunbiade, 2018; Tanimu & Akujuru, 2018; Ako, 2009). These authors call for urgent land-use reforms.

Jeremy Bentham (1748-1932), a foremost utilitarian believes that every state's legislation should aim at "providing greatest happiness for the greatest number of people" (See Crimmins, 2020 para. 4.2). Therefore, the government should not be pursuing its PPP policy programmes or happiness for its private partners at the expense of the host communities. PPP projects are created for public purposes; hence, concerned MDA should define the purpose in clear terms to the customary landowners and the entire public. The media and appropriate agencies like the National Orientation Agency (NOA) should carry the masses along with them through public sensitisation, awareness and education. Article 17 of the Universal Declaration on Human Rights declares that *no one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his/her right to own property*. Because of this, the way to go is to ensure adequate compensation for the communities whose customary rights were revoked and all their valuables on the land including economic crops are compensated for. By this, the communities should be happy and willing to support the relevant project. The payment made as contained in the MoU is a one-off payment. This is considered not good enough. It has been suggested that such payment should be made based on market value and a rental basis as Tagriano *et al.*, (2018) recommend. Government has to ensure that every agreement entered into the memorandum of understanding is fulfilled. Oftentimes the terms of agreement and issues relating to compensation, resettlement and other matters are jointly agreed upon in the MoU.

Arimoro (2019) pointed out that land acquisition and mode of acquisition constitute a critical part of the PPP policy agenda. Because of this, the private investors/partners have roles to play as well. They need to find out the background and the status of the land they intend to use for the project. It is also incumbent on them to ensure that the relevant MDAs fulfil their obligation

about compensation on expropriated lands for the project. There are responsible land governance models which international organisations have put forward like the FAO Voluntary Guideline on the Governance of Tenure (VGGTs) and the World Bank's Land Governance Assessment Framework (LGAF) developed in 2013. These Land governance systems recognise the fact that communal people are emotionally, socio-culturally and spiritually connected to their land (Anthonio & Griffith-Charles, 2019). They, therefore, make a substantial investment plan to pursue the *Land 2030 Global Initiatives*. The objective of this initiative is to ensure the security of land tenure and property rights by 2030. Good land governance is also key to achieving sustainable development goals because goals 6,7,11,12,13 and 15 of the SDG focus on land and the environment. The African Union, in 2009 launched its Framework and Guidance on Land Policy in Africa to advocate for customary tenure in land governance to reduce the rate of poverty due to land evictions and displacement. The extent to which the framework has achieved its objective is not the focus of this study which should be on the problem statement.

3.6 The institutional framework for NP4 implementation

A clear policy framework is a prerequisite for PPP implementation across the globe. The policy framework is meant to reveal the institutional structures and processes involved, including the roles of the different MDAs that are involved in the various stages of PPP implementation from conception to maturity as explained in section 3.6.3 of this chapter. PPP revolves entirely around institutions. PPP involves private parties that perform an institutional function on behalf of the institutions. The private party assumes financial, technical and operational risks on behalf of the institution and receives the benefit for performing the institutional functions (National Treasury, South Africa, 2001). Perhaps, these incidences may explain the reason why Yong (2010) concluded that the type of institutional arrangement for infrastructural regulation and practice in most developing nations is tailored to be in line with the operation of their former colonial masters or with the dictates of their foreign benefactors.

The national framework for PPP implementation in Nigeria is structured in such a way as to create an opportunity for both the public and the private sectors to take up certain roles and to derive the benefits therefrom. The public roles include the government's contribution through capital investment, asset transfer or other commitment in cash or in kind towards the collaboration agenda. Government is also to provide social security, ensure environmental

awareness, regulates operations and mobilises support for the smooth operation of PPP. Because of this, appropriate machinery needs to be developed and put in place to ensure that public policy goals are fulfilled. The government of Nigeria takes account of standard international practice in developing the institutional framework in the PPP policy statement. For instance, MDAs in consultation with the Office of Public-Private Partnership (OPPP) identify where PPP offers better value for money (vfm) over other forms of procurement. The MDAs are guided by the Ministry of finance and the state's Ministry of Budget and economic planning. Other MDAs that work in collaboration with the national implementation agency, ICRC is as follows:

- i. The Infrastructure Concession Regulatory Commission;
- ii. The PPP Resource Centre;
- iii. The Contract Compliance Centre;
- iv. The National Planning Commission;
- v. Line Ministries and their Agencies;
- vi. The Bureau of Public Enterprises;
- vii. The Ministry of Finance;
- viii. The Debt Management Office;
- ix. The Office of the Accountant General of the Federation; and
- x. The Bureau of Public Procurement.

There could be a slight difference in the MDAs at the state levels when it comes to the above due to the 'nature of federalism in Nigeria. Nevertheless, the National Policy guidelines apply to all infrastructural projects contracted by the Federal Government of Nigeria, and to any state or local government projects that are partly funded or in some way guaranteed by the federal government (ICRC, 2013)

For every state that wishes to use PPP as a tool for infrastructural development it is important to stress that any PPP project requiring state financing must seek the support of a guarantee by the Federal Government. For the Federal Government to give its guarantee to such a project it must have followed the due process and be in line with the best practices exemplified in the NP4 implementation framework. According to the policy document, the ICRC's major objective is to develop Nigerian infrastructure and to accelerate market growth for the PPP project. To achieve this objective, the ICRC collaborates with the states to promote a unity of purpose (ICRC-NP4 Policy Document, 2013: 1).

3.7 Lagos State and PPP

In a bid to actualise the megacity dream for Lagos State its government did not see PPP as an option but as a priority (Filani, 2012). Therefore, the state government developed its regulatory framework with a regulatory body similar to that of the Federal Government's ICRC (Akinjide & Beck, 2015). From then up to today, the state is at the forefront of PPP implementation in Nigeria. Onuobia *et al.* (2017: 157) maintain that "PPP has evolved from the Lagos State Roads, bridges, Highways Infrastructure (Private Sector Participation) Development Board Law enacted in 2004 to the more streamlined Lagos State Roads (Private Sector Participation) Authority Law enacted in 2007 and the subsisting Lagos State Public-Private Partnership (LSPPP) Law which came to force in 2011". The LOPPP Law (2011) established the Office of PPP which;

"has the power to make concessions; negotiate with prospective private partners; inspect and monitor concession agreements; designate a public infrastructure or public asset as a user fee or toll-paying public infrastructure or public asset and specify the condition for the use of such infrastructure or asset" (Onuobia *et al.*, 2015: 3).

PPP procurement in Lagos State is governed by the Lagos State PPP Law 2011 and the Lagos State Public Procurement Act 2011. These are the two main legislative Acts instituted for the smooth conduct of PPP in Lagos State. The illustration in figure 3.1 describes the Lagos State institutional framework for NP4 implementation.

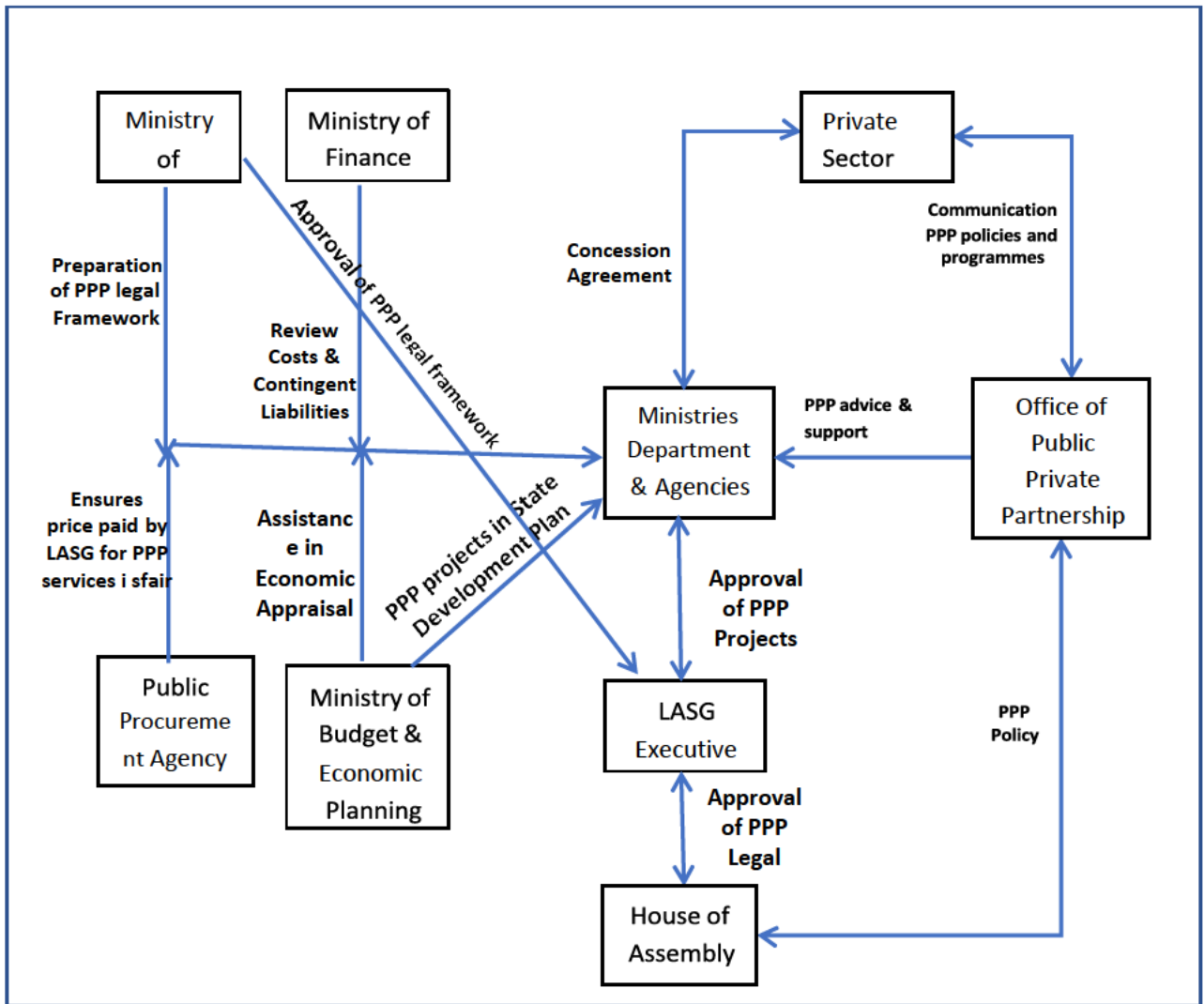


Figure 3.1: Lagos State institutional framework for NP4 implementation
 Source: Lagos State PPP Implementation Manual, 2013: 30.

As demonstrated in Figure 3.1, the state’s Executive Council is also empowered by law to make rules and regulations for PPP processes (Lagos PPIAF, 2012). These laws constitute the legislative framework for PPP in Lagos. They also represent the policy document upon which PPP is being implemented in Lagos State. There are MDAs (Ministries, Agencies, and Departments) through which PPP laws and regulations are implemented - these constitute the institutional framework for PPP in Lagos State. These MDAs that work in collaboration with the LOPPP are the Lagos Ministry of Finance, the Lagos Ministry of Budget and Economic Planning, and the Ministry of Justice (PPIAF, 2013: 31-32). LOPPP is similar to the specialised Contract Management Unit to provide ongoing support and advice to the City of Johannesburg,

South Africa and the Office of the PPP, Arbiter (OPPPA) which was established under the *Greater London Authority Act (1999)* in the UK.

The Lagos State PPP Law gave a signal that the government of Lagos State has earmarked more sectors for development through the PPP framework. They identified those public infrastructures begging for the attention of the government such as “roads, bridges, highways, rail lines, water transportation facilities, public waterworks, housing, electric power stations and hospitals. Others include recreational parks, urban transport system, motor parks, water supply, treatment and distribution, waste disposal facilities, amusement centres, healthcare facilities and any other infrastructure or amenities for public use and public asset includes right of use of the property or economic opportunity of a public nature or arising from the use of public property”.(ICRC-NP4, Policy Paper, 2013). The Governor of the State, Mr Babajide Sanwoolu, on the assumption of office in 2019 declared infrastructural renewal and development as one of the policy thrusts of his administration. Moreover, his policy focuses on good governance and participatory planning for private sector-led growth and infrastructural development (LSG, 2020). This policy thrust of the incumbent governor does not make much difference from those of his predecessors in terms of participatory and inclusive governance pronouncements to private-sector driven infrastructural development. Therefore, this study probes into how the collaborative arrangements of the Lagos State Government accommodate the stakeholders, particularly, the host communities who are at the heart of the PPP project implementation drive.

3.7.1 Overview of PPP Delivery Models in Lagos State

In Lagos State, the PPP type and models are determined by ownership arrangement; the type of stakeholders involved, and risk allocation between the private and public partners. It should be pointed out that the choice in selecting PPP models is dependent on the following variables:

- The need for improved service delivery;
- Investment risk transfer; and
- Infrastructural maintenance and control.

Table 3.1. gives the detail information about the different types of PPP delivery models, especially in Lagos State and their characteristics.

Table 3.1: Table illustrating the different types of PPP delivery models:

Contract Type (Duration)	Characteristics				
	Asset Ownership	O&M	Capital Investment	Commercial Risk	Service & Payment to Private Sector Contractor
Service contract (1-3years)	Public	Public & private	Public	Public	A definitive, often technical service fee paid by the government to the private sector for specific services
Management Contract (3-8 years)	Public	Private	public	Public	Private sector manages the operation of government service and receives fees paid directly by the government
LeaseContract (5-10 years)	Public	Private	public	Private	Private sector manages, operates, repairs and/or maintains a public service to specified standards and outputs. Fees are charged to consumers/users and the service provider pays the government rent for the use of the facility.
Concessions BOT, BOOT DBOM, DBFO, BOOTT , ROO BLT, BLO, ROT etc (10-30 years)	Private & public	Private	private	Private	Private sector manages, operates, repairs, maintains and/or invests in infrastructure to specified standards and outputs. Fees are charged to consumers/users. The service provider may also pay a Concession Fee to the government.
NOTE: B—Build; D—Design; F—Finance; L—Lease; M—Maintain; Op— Operate; Ow—Own; R- Rehabilitate, T-Transfer					

Source: LASG PPP Manual (2012: 12)

In a PPP, a private partner receives a stream of payments from the government for services provided or at least made available, user charges levied directly on the end users or a combination of both. The model entrusts private operators to have the facility and charge the users for a specified period by concession agreement. It is important to state that the legislative Acts which enabled PPP policies in Nigeria (national and state levels) seem to focus on concessions leaving other aspects aside (Adama. 2018; Opawole & Jogboro, 2017). Authors like Erumebor (2017) have made a similar observation in their various articles. Hence, the researcher finds it necessary to offer a brief discussion on the first concession in Lagos State

and how issues bordering on governance militated against it.

2.7.2 Concessions

In a concession, the contract is arranged in such a way that revenues are raised directly from members of the public as user charges. A good illustration is the toll system rather than the government buying in to mitigate the risk of investment for the private operators. In a new project with huge capital outlays, the government transfers substantial risk and allows the private operator to charge users (Yong, 2010). Nevertheless, the concession may be a form of franchising that requires the private operators to rehabilitate, develop, and redesign the state facilities or their operations for some specified charges from the users. The first concession in Nigeria was a Lekki Epe Toll Road under the Lagos State Road Law in 2004. The N50 billion (Fifty Billion Naira) project was a 30-year concession agreement between Lagos State Government and the Lekki Concession Company. Owing to the landmark achievement, the contract earned international recognition, notably from the *Africa Investors Magazine Award* for Transport Deal (2008), and *Africa PPP of the Year* (2008). The contract was rated among the top 40 in emerging markets by the International Finance Corporation (Arimoro, 2015). However, the glory was short-lived. No sooner had the project commenced than it began to experience some complexities that beset its edified image in the form of protests and demonstrations. As reported in the literature, albeit theoretical, one major miscalculation of LCC (the project handling company) that sparked-off the war-like protest was its inability to consult widely in major decisions such as user charges (Adama, 2018; Erumebor, 2017; Arimoro, 2015). The celebrated #NOTTOLA (No Toll on Lekki Axis) protest was championed by various community groups, community leaders, civil society groups, CBAs, CBOs, NGOs and residents along the Lekki-Epe corridor (see illustration in Figure 3.3).



Figure 3.2: Lekki-Epe Road in Epe axis (First road concession Project in West Africa: (An initiative of Lagos State Government finance through public-private partnership)



Figure 3.3: Images of "No Tolling on Lekki Axis Protest"

Protest held by members of Lekki communities on the 17 December 2011 over non-consultation with stakeholders before the introduction of Toll by LCC (Source: O’Karo T (2011). The Lekki Toll Protest: An eye-witness account)

3.7.3 Stages of PPP Implementation (Project Lifecycle)

For collaboration to be meaningful, the community must be deeply involved from the initial stage through all other stages in the implementation agenda. Although opinion differs concerning this view, the knowledge of the various stages does offer an insight that helps further discussion in this regard. In line with the globally accepted standard, the process for developing, procuring and implementing PPP in Lagos State included project development, procurement, implementation and post-implementation described as maturity (LASG PPP Manual, 2012). Figure 3.4 (below) is an illustration of the various stages of PPP infrastructural project implementation in Lagos State.

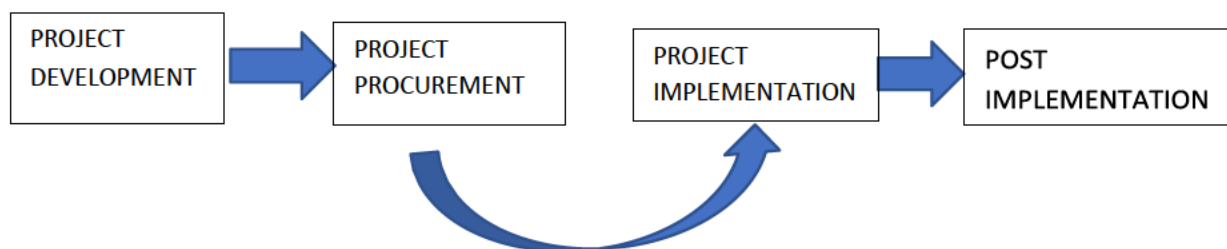


Figure 3.4: Illustration of PPP project life cycle/PPP process

Source: Adopted from ICRC-NP4 Policy Document, 2013 & LOPPP, 2012; Yong, 2010

Project Development: This stage is a stage of project conception when the needs for the project are identified. It is a stage when the economic, social and environmental assessment is carried out and procurement options are evaluated alongside the feasibility and financial analysis. The Project Development phase also includes budgetary allocation in line with MTEF (medium-term expenditure framework). The concluding aspect at this stage is to get the OBC approved by the LOPPP or ICRC, as the case may be, paving the way for the project to advance to the procurement phase. At this stage, the PHs as well as the implementing agency must conduct a community engagement mapping by identifying the status of the community, individuals and households that will be engaged in the project and the different levels of engagement. The process is described as community engagement mapping (The World Bank Group, 2019: 36). At this stage, meaningful collaboration will mean making input into the project preparation process of the business case preparation and feasibility study. Effective engagement of community groups, organisation and citizens, is critical here. Although not every community member can be directly involved in the process, it will amount to a serious

breach for the project handlers to exclude community groups or members that should be involved. Therefore, it is an entry point for real collaboration.

Project Procurement: this is a stage when opportunities are created for competitive and procurement practices through due process. Wider opportunities are created for all pre-qualified bidders for competition and vfm. Four different stages are involved;

- i. pre-qualification of bidders;
- ii. Preparation of bid documents;
- ii. Selection of preferred bidders and negotiations; and
- iii. Preparation of a full business case (FBC) and award of the contract.

The most important aspect of this phase is to ensure that no bidder is denied access to information. Every bidder is provided with information that will create equal opportunities and limit the undue advantage of one bidder over another. Bid documents are prepared and presented (e.g. the Concession Agreement, RFP, EoI) for consideration of the LOPPP. The final approval of FBC is then finalised. Any project involving sub-contracting between the consortium and separate Joint Venture Companies for construction or maintenance services is inaled and SPV is established where necessary. Having completed the aforementioned processes, the preferred bidder will reach financial closure and the project will be ready for the next phase i.e. the implementation stage. By documentary evidence and practices, communities were not involved in the procurement processes in Lagos State. However, if the tenets of governance were to be followed, the process ought to be open and be transparent to every stakeholder including the affected communities. There are support studies that have shown that PPPs in developed environments create opportunities based on resource-dependency within the network environment (Sulser, 2018; McQuaid, 2000; Huxham & Vangen, 2000) through employment contracts bidding and material supply bidding. In other words, the community can also be invited to participate in the bidding process (The World Bank Group, 2019). Public consultation may open-up ideas for other possible viable option at this stage.

Project Implementation: this stage sees to the monitoring of design and construction and subsequent operation and maintenance to ensure compliance with project operation. The operation must conform to the required standard. The project is also monitored to ensure that it fulfils its obligations to the MDA in terms of payment and other contingent liabilities. The project implementation stage is a major responsibility of the MDA whilst LOPPP or ICRC carry

out an oversight function in line with the statutory instrument that established the process. No doubt, the activities of the project handlers at this stage usually affect the hitherto peaceful community life. These include the movement of earth equipments to site, the relocation of the workers to the community and so on. The concern of the community should be identified at this stage through focus group meetings and interactive sections. Of course, there are documentary evidence in both ICPC and PPP Law of Lagos State that risk assessment be carried out in the location (ICPC, 2013, LOPPP Law, 2011). The extents to which the project handlers fulfill this lay-down obligation together with the feelings of the communities about the entire process constitute the focus of this study.

Post-implementation: After implementation, monitoring outcomes and progress becomes necessary. Both public and private activities need different kinds of monitoring and evaluation. Post-implementation support is also significant to deal with any unexpected circumstances which may bring up the renegotiation of the procurement agreement or financial terms and agreements (Yong, 2010). Both ICRC and LOPPP describe this phase as the maturity stage. Later in the stage, the agency carries out an inspection and prepares all handover documents relating to the public asset or to the project in question following specified requirements. Land and other assets are transferred to the MDAs. The agency analyses the service delivery option at its disposal after the termination of the contract whether to opt for further procurement through re-tendering or to extend the project term (LOPPP, 2012: 20; ICRC-NP4 Policy Document, 2013: 14). The feedback from members of the Community, at this stage, assists the government and principal actors to strike a balance between social and commercial interests through “possible accusation of transfer of interest” when feedbacks are being collected (Ng, Wong & Wong, 2012). More so, the report from community residents and professional groups within the community can be used to determine appropriate sanctions and penalties to service providers that hit below the belt in its responsibility. This implies that the communities are used effectively as an as watchdogs to ensure standards are not compromised and that the activities of the project handlers conforms with global best practice (The World Bank, 2019; Ng et al., 2019) .

Table 3.2: Some PPP projects going on in Lagos State

S/N	PROJECTS	PARTIES	PROJECT DESCRIPTION/POTENCY	PROGR ESS UPDATE	PPP APPROACH
1	Lekki-Ikoyi Link Bridge	Lagos State Government (LASG) Lagos Tolling Company (LTC)	The project involves the operation and maintenance of Electronic Tolling system of the 1.358km Lekki-Ikoyi Bridge.	The Bridge was opened to traffic on 1 st June 2013	Concession
2	Island Power	LASG Island Power Ltd (a part of the Negris Group)	The project is the development of the 9.7MW Independent Power Plant	Concession (10 years) Effective October 2019	BOO (Build Own Operate)
3	Alausa Power	LASG Alausa Power Ltd	Alausa powers deliver 91,104,000 kilowatts (KWh) of power to LASG	Commercial Operations (10 years) Effective 13 June 2012	Design, Develop, Finance, Construct, Maintain and Transfer (DDFCOMT)
4	Mainland Power	LASG Mainland Power Ltd (set up by CET Power Ltd)	The project is a partnership between LASG and Mainland Power to construct an 8.8MW IPP	Commercial Operations (10 years) Effective: October 2014	BOOT
5	Akute Power Project	Akute Power Ltd (SPV set up by Oando)	LWC in collaboration with Akute Power Ltd constructed Gas and Power Plc) LASG represented by Lagos Water Corporation (LWC)	Commercial Operations (10 years) Effective: February 2010	BOT
7	Lagos Infrastructure Project (LIP) Concession	Lekki Concession Company Ltd (LCC) LASG LOPPP	A 30-year concession to design, construct, finance and operate the concession Areas of Lagos State	Concession for 30 years Effective: November 2008	Concession
8	Mortuary services at Isolo General Hospital	Farewell Funeral Homes Ltd (FFHL) LASG represented by the Ministry of Health	The project is a 10-year design, build, operate and transfer PPP Concession	10-year concession Effective: November 2011	Concession
9	Lagos-Urban Rail Mass Transit (LRMT)	LASG is to design and build both the blue and red line infrastructure while the concessionaire is expected to operate and maintain the service including provision of the rolling stock.	Lagos State Urban Rail Masses Transit (LRMT) is a network of intra-city rail lines	The design concept of both the rail network has been completed	Concession
10	Odomola Water project	Lagos State Government (LASG)	The project is the development of a 210 MGD Water Supply Scheme in Multi phases starting with a 25 MGD Conventional Water Treatment Plant (WTP)	Procurement modalities have been concluded	Concession

Source: The Office of PPP (LOPPP), Lagos State, 2012

3.8 Description of PPP projects under study

3.8.1 Badagry Deep Sea Project

The economic and population growth has mounted considerable pressure on Nigeria's infrastructure. The transportation infrastructure is the worst hit by this development. Considering this, the Lagos State Government, Nigerian Port Authority, and Federal Ministry of transportation began to advance plans towards developing Africa's largest and most technologically advanced Port in the Badagry division of Lagos State, western Nigeria. The NPA "leveraged on the existing policy framework on public-private partnership for the provision of shipping infrastructure facilities in Nigeria" because the existing port in Lagos State are already overstretched and highly congested (BDPL, 2015: 15). The Greenfield location of the Badagry port is seen to be advantageous for the mega project due to the location's soil conditions, deeper water and expansive potential capacities without much interference on the existing infrastructure in the project area. It was reported that an environmental, social impact assessment (ESIA) for the project had been done following the *Environmental Impact Assessment Act (Act No 86 of 1992)*, not overruling the internationally acceptable standard. One of the key exercises of the process was the stakeholders' consultation. The process, according to BDPL, included identification of stakeholders at the preliminary stages, creation of BID for use in communicating with stakeholders and meetings with some MDAs and groups. Therefore, the NPA and BDPL guided by the NPA Act Cap N126, Laws of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2004 jointly plan to address the infrastructural challenges in the transport sector through the Badagry Port initiative.

The choice of PPP delivery model is the Port Management PPP (BOOT) consisting of a joint venture between private sector partners and government MDAs (see table 3.2 p.81). The port shall operate under concession to Badagry Port Development Limited (BPD) as a public-use facility. When completed, the port will be the largest in West Africa because it will be sited on 620 Hectares of land with an additional 480 hectares for industrial and logistics park zones. It will also be one of the largest in sub-Saharan African being over 4km in length with state-of-the-art facilities for various port activities. Other activities include consultation and focus group meetings with local communities. BDPL has reiterated its commitment to the host communities in terms of site safety and security (BDPL, 2015).

Table 3.2: showing the partners and PPP model of Badagry Deep Seaport Project

Project Manager/Handler	Primary Sponsors	Secondary sponsors	Governmental MDAs involved	PPP Model
Badagry Port Development Ltd.	1. APM Terminals 2. Orlean Invest 3. Oando	1. Macquarie Group 2. Terminal investment Ltd	1. Federal Government & MDAs 2. Lagos State Government & MDAs	Build, own, operate and transfer

Source: Generated by the researcher, 2019

According to BDPL (2015: 52), two broad forces were taken into consideration in the PPP arrangement for the port development in Nigeria which includes; firstly, “external forces of competition and technology from the shipping industry”. The second is the “acknowledgement of the financial and operational benefits of private participation in infrastructural development and service delivery”. The consideration, therefore, informed the recommendation that a hybrid between the landlord and the private service port model be adopted. In this arrangement, BDPL or its designee takes responsibility for the overall Port Administration including the development and operation infrastructure and superstructure, cargo handling and so on while NPA remains the technical landlord and lends its name to it. The Table 3.2 above gives a matrix illustration of the Port Management (PPP) Model



Figure 3. 5: Present State of the project site showing the greatly dispersed affected communities



Figure 3. 6: Artist Rendition of Badagry Port & Free Zone when completed

Source: Badagry Port Development Ltd., 2015. Badagry Port: Outline Business Case

3.8.2 Lekki Sea Port/ Lekki Free Trade Zone (LFTZ)

The Lekki Free Trade Zone is an investment to boost the decayed infrastructure in the Lekki Epe axis. The Trade Zone is a Joint Venture Partnership between Chinese Company and the Nigerian government. The project was established in May 2006 based on the *Nigeria Export Processing Zones Act (NEPZA)*. The FTZ is to take care of the Lekki Free Trade Zone project sited on an area of about 155 square kilometres in Ibeju-Lekki Local Government Area in the Epe division, about 50km distance from the city centre of Lagos, Southwest, Nigeria. The LFTZ is a multi-purpose project that will accommodate the various fields of economic, infrastructural and developmental activities. The objective of a trade zone is to eliminate trade barriers and enhance foreign exchange as well as to create employment and infrastructural development.

The zone will accommodate Lekki Deep Sea Port, the New International Airport, Dangote Oil Refinery, Pan Atlantic University, Eleganza Industrial city, Beach Resorts. LFTZ is presently at various stages of development. The project has space for oil and gas, real estate, amusement parks, gardens for tourists and recreation activities, hospitality industries, finance houses, media organisations, power generating firms, and large/medium/small scale manufacturing industries. The Lagos State Government is proposing the 4th Mainland Bridge to cushion the effect of transportation due to the increase in population. Lagos State Government is engaging the Federal Government to ensure that the zone has its sea and airports to facilitate the movement of goods and personal chattels from the free zone to both regional and international markets. The mega project is a venture between the Lagos State Government, a Chinese Consortium, CCECC, and a Nigerian partner, Lekki Worldwide Investment Ltd. Lekki Free Zone Development Company (LFZDC) was authorised by both the Nigerian Federal Government and the Lagos State government as a legal entity to manage the LFTZ project.

Communities that were greatly affected by the Lekki Free Trade Zone are *Idasho, Idotun, Ilege, Imobido, Itoikin, Okunraiye, Ilekuru, Tiye, Imagbon-Segun Oke-Segun*. According to the LFZDC, EIA Field survey conducted in 2014, the population of the entire community is 32, 280.



Figure 3.7: The Main Entrance, Lekki Free Trade Zone

Source: Lekki Worldwide Brochure, 2014



Figure 3.8: Magbon Shegun Community few metres away from Dangote Refinery Pipes into the Ocean from LFTZ

3.8.3. The Independent Power Project (Egbin)

The Nigerian government in a bid to create an opportunity for a private sector financed infrastructural development in the energy sector developed the Electric Power Sector Reform Act (EPSRA), 2005. The Act established the regulatory body which is the Nigerian Electrical Regulatory Commission (NERC). The EPSRA provides a framework for regulating the generation, transmission and distribution of power in Nigeria. The Independent Power Project referred to as Egbin Power Plc is the largest power generating station in Nigeria. It is located at Ijede/Egbinin Ijede Local Council Development Area in the Ikorodu Division of Lagos State. The project is located 40km northeast of the city of Lagos with a geographical coordinate 6°33'33"N 3°36'54"E. The land for the project was acquired by resettling the people of Ipankan and neighbouring communities. The Egbin Thermal Power Plant has 220MW on each of the independent boiler turbine units which also run on High Power Fuel Oil (HPFO). In all, the facility has an installed capacity of 1, 320MW (220MW X 6). The project which was built through a foreign loan by the Japanese government was commissioned on the 13th May 1985 by Nigerian Former Head of States, General Ibrahim Badamosi Babangida. (Nwogwugwu, 2011)

Due to the privatisation policy, the Bureau of Public Enterprises (BPE) handled the transition from a purely public entity to a private concern. However, the government still possesses a high interest in the company owning 30% of its shares. The 30% share is owned by both BPE and the Ministry of Finance has 24% and 6% respectively. Sahara Power Group and Korea Electric Power Corporation (KEPCO) became the core investor after acquiring 70% share equity through a special purpose vehicle, KEPCO Energy Resource Limited (KERL). KEPCO thus became the manager of the assets with effect from November 1, 2013, up to today. Egbin continues to operate six Hitachi steam turbines, one GE gas turbine and one emergency diesel generator with installed capacities of 1320MW, 24MW and 1.5MW. The company now supplies a 20% share of the national electricity supply emerging as the largest independent electricity generator in Nigeria (Egbin Power Plc, 2018)

According to the 2016 Sustainability Report published by The Egbin Power Plant, the power plant has been communicating its core values to the communities as well as creating understanding and participation in decision-making and governance. According to the report, the plant commits to building a mutual working relationship with its host communities especially, Egbin, Ipankan and Ijede. The plant is ensuring that all stakeholders who are directly and indirectly affected by its operational decisions are well engaged in its operational activities.

The Report has it that the plant had established a working relationship through frequent dialogue. These dialogues have built transparency, trust and mutual understanding between the firm and its neighbouring communities.



Figure 3.9: The Egbin Power Plant

Source: Egbin Power Plc, 2016

“In order to build a solid platform within Egbin Power Plc to support partnerships and capacity development initiatives with the local communities, Egbin invested in several [community] initiatives.” (Egbin Power Plc, 2016)

It was reported that neighbouring “communities’ benefit from our presence on an enduring basis” and their interest are well accounted for. Egbin Thermal plant claimed it invested Eighty Million Naira in community development initiatives (N80,000,000 - equivalent to R 3 210 854.00) and also provides uninterrupted power supply to its host communities (Egbin Power Plc, 2018).

In contrast to the above report, there was a community-wide protest held in 2014 in which the host communities shut down the plant over marginalisation, irregular power supply and demand for return of 7.345 hectares of land which were acquired but “remained unused” (Vanguard, 2014: para. 2). These are developments that show that, despite the claims made by the management of the plant in their report, the communities seem not to feel the impact. For

instance, in May 2019, it was reported that the host communities’ “lament irregular power supply by the authorities of Egbin Thermal Power Plant” (Arowojobe, 2019; Leadership Newspaper, 2019). The host communities through the Community Development Chairman (CDC) and some community heads decried that the presence of the thermal plant had crippled commercial activities and it had brought a lot of disadvantages in terms of ecological hazard and infrastructural degradation. Arowojobe (2019) reports that the CDC placed it on record that the indigenes of the affected communities “have been deprived of their primary means of livelihood of fishing and farming” through land acquisition and ecological problems from the plant’s operations. Yet, no benefit accrued to community members in terms of employment (Arowojobe, 2019: Para 4, 13, 14).

3.9 Summary of the chapter

The chapter presented an overview of infrastructural development in Nigeria highlighting the efforts made by successive governments through their neo-liberalist policies before the launch of PPP. However, the launch of the National Policy on PPP created room for every tier of government to operate PPPs and to create policies for their enforcement. Lagos State has been identified as the foremost state in Nigeria to launch PPP and has initiated many mega-projects in this regard. Central to this chapter was the discussion of the institutional framework for PPP implementation in Lagos State. Other areas of focus include the description of PPP projects and projects under study. The chapter explained that concessional and institutional PPPs were the popular PPPs in Nigeria and, indeed, in Lagos State.

There are emerging problems that showed that the launch of PPP in Lagos State has been facing some adversarial problems occasioned by public outcries due to exploitation, exclusion and cynicism against PPP initiatives. The chapter did a content review of LUA and MoUs as well as other resource materials and found that rights of the community over land ownership were strengthened under Section 34 of the Act. The Act, therefore, conferred certain stake holding rights on them for any project situated within their territorial boundary. This study is set to investigate the extent to which the rights of the host communities were accommodated as stakeholders within the PPP-IPIF. The next chapter highlights and explains the various methodologies used to carry out the investigation.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODS AND METHODOLOGIES

4.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this chapter is to present the various methodological processes employed by the researcher to carry out this study. In the preceding chapter, the researcher presented an overview of infrastructural governance and policy framework for the implementation of the National Policy on PPP in Nigeria. Emphasis was laid on the institutional arrangement for PPP project implementation in Lagos State as a precursor to understanding the systematic processes employed to address the problem of the study. As earlier reiterated, the study aims to analyse community involvement in key policy implementation of the NP4. The chapter highlights and explains the systematic approach used by the researcher to find answers to the research questions scientifically.

Following this introduction is a section that examines the philosophical orientation underpinning the study. The succeeding section moves on to explain the research design using Saunders *et al.*'s (2019) research onion as an illustration of the approach. Sequels to this are sections that defined the participants of the study and the sampling techniques, data collection instruments, methods and interpretation as critical elements of scientific research. The discussions in these sections describe the appropriateness of the sampling techniques and the mixed methodological approach applied to arrive at a reliable research outcome. The subsequent section tests the validity and reliability of the research instrument and discusses issues that give credibility to the research instrument. Lastly, the chapter examines the ethical issues that guided the study in strict compliance with the UKZN research ethics and code of conduct for social science researchers. Finally, a summary of the entire chapter was presented.

4.2 Study site

This study was conducted in Lagos, the commercial capital of Nigeria. The state is cited on the narrow plain of the Bight of Benin in South-Western, Nigeria lying on the approximate longitude of 20 42'E and 32 2'E and latitude of 60 22'N and 60 2'N. Lagos stretches over 180km along the Guinea Coast of the Bight of Benin on the Atlantic Ocean. Lagos State has a land space of 3,577 km² (LASG, 2020). The population of Lagos is always a contentious issue

as census figures never cease to generate disputes. The current figure of 14,368,000 (Populationstat, 2020) was extrapolated based on past trends from the 2006 census figure. There are 5 administrative divisions in Lagos; namely Ikeja, Badagry, Ikorodu, Lagos [Eko] and Epe. These divisions were further divided into 20 Local Governments (LGs) and 37 Local Council Development Areas (LCDAs) in line with the Federal system arrangement. The study was carried out in three of the five administrative divisions of Lagos State viz; Badagry (443 km²), Ikorodu (343Km²) and Ibeju-Lekki axis of Epe Division with 455Km² geographical size (LBS, 2016).

Lagos State is at the frontline of PPP governance network in Nigeria (Nwagwu 2016; Babatunde 2012). The state has partnered with interested private organisations to develop and deliver a wide range of facilities in the state. The research was conducted in three different study locations involving 31 communities. The communities exist under LCDAs viz: Badagry West LCDA in Badagry Division that host Badagry Deep Sea Project (12 communities involved); Lekki LCDA in Epe Division that host the Lekki Free Trade Zone/Port Project (10 communities were involved), and Ijede LCDA in Ikorodu Division that host the Thermal Project where nine Communities were involved. In all, 31 communities were directly involved in this study. These communities are referred to as affected communities, although several other surrounding communities are indirectly affected by the project (See Table 4.1 (p.94) for the detail).

Table 4.1 showing the various communities around projects' and communities affected

PPP PROJECTS	DIVISIONS (Coverage Area)	ALL THE COMMUNITIES IDENTIFIED WITHIN THE PROJECT AREA	COMMUNITIES AFFECTED (THE STUDY TARGET COMMUNITIES/POPULA TION)
Badagry Deep Seaport (Initial Stage)	Badagry (Badagry West)	<i>Agbojetho, Agonvi, Agorin, Aivoji, Akoro, Apa, Asipa, Ganyingbo Oke, Gahingbo Town, Hokedaho, Gbaji Yeke, Gbaji Town, Gberefu, Sakpo, Sito, Tosavi, Yeketome, Yesufu Beach, Yovoyan etc.</i>	<i>Agbojetho, Gberefu, Yovoyan, Aivoji, Okedaho, Agorin, Gbaji Yeke, Gbaji Town, Gahingbo, Gahingbo Town, Akoro, Sakpo Beach (12 communities)</i>
Free Trade Zone (Near completion)	Epe (Lekki LCDA)	<i>Agbon, Ajegunle, Alasia, Araromi, Fowoseje, Idasho, Idotun, Ilege Ilekeru, Imobido, Itoke, Kajola, Lejala, Lekki town. Loore, Magbon-Segun, Moborode, Mosa, Oke-segun, Okeyanta, Okunraiye, Olomowewe, Omisande, Pankere, Tiye etc.</i>	<i>Idasho, Idotun, Ilege, Imobido, Itoikin, Okunraiye, Ilekeru, Tiye, Imagbon-Segun Oke-Segun. (10 Communities)</i>
Ikorodu Lighter terminal/Independent Power Project (Operational/winding up)	Ikorodu (Ijede LCDA)	<i>Abule-Eko, Aledo, Ayegbami, Ebute Olowo, Egbin, Etita, Gbodu, Igbe. Igbodo Jabe, Igbopa, Ilupeju, Ipankan, Ipakodo, Itundesan, Madan, Oju Ayeye, Oju Ogun, Oke Oyinbo, Oke-Eletu, Oko Mabude. Oko Ope etc.</i>	<i>Abule iyen, Ipakun, Ipakodo, Okeletu, Eletu, Egin, Ijede, Abule olowo, Oke eyinbo, Egbin (9 Communities)</i>

Source: Field Survey, 2019

The communities involved in the study were already identified and purposely selected because they are the host communities to the PPP infrastructural projects which have the support of a guarantee by the Federal Government in Lagos State. Due to the topography of Lagos State, most of the communities are coastal and they share similar economic, social and administrative structures. Community governance in various communities is quite similar in each community. At the top of the hierarchy is the *Oba* that supersedes all *Baales* and is considered to be a paramount ruler. There could be more than one *oba* in each division. However, one paramount *Oba* oversees the affairs of most of the study areas. The *Baale* who is the head of the communities takes instruction and reports to the *Oba* whose domain is in the Division's major town. The *Baale* also possesses a considerable level of discretionary power to oversee his domain. He is vested with the power to make, execute and interpret the laws together with his *Chiefs in Council*. The communities have their governance arrangement which manifests through different groups and forums notably; Quarters Chiefs, professional associations

(market women, etc.), religious leaders, gender and age forums. These groups and forums were significant to this study because of the pivotal roles they play in influencing community policies and decisions.

4.3 The onion's illustrative model

A researcher needs to link the research study to philosophy to be able to give a clearer insight into the various paradigms that underpin his research methods and strategies. Consequently, the researcher employed the research onion framework developed by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007) to illustrate the philosophical orientation and designs and methods guiding this study. The onion-like layer framework was employed to explicitly delineate and explain the various processes involved in the methodological construction of this study starting with the research's philosophical orientation. In line with a recent publication by the authors, Saunders *et al.*, (2019), the outer layer of the research onion describes the various philosophical assumptions, viz: ontology, epistemology and axiology. The next layer offers various approaches for theoretical development. Saunders *et al.*, identify the approaches as deductive, inductive and abductive which blend together the first two approaches. Another layer explains the methodological choice in terms of qualitative, quantitative or mixed-method which is a blend of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. In another version of the Onion there is also a multimethod. After this, the next layer is where researchers determine the strategy of the research (Case study, archival, survey or sometimes the blending of this strategy). The next layer is a layer that explains the time-horizon for the study. Time horizon describes the value of the study over time whether it is a one-shot study (Cross-sectional) or a study that is carried out over some time (longitudinal). Lastly, the inner-most layer concerns the various techniques required for data collection, sampling and data sourcing. Figure 4.1 (p.96) represents the research onion illustrating the research processes applied in this study.

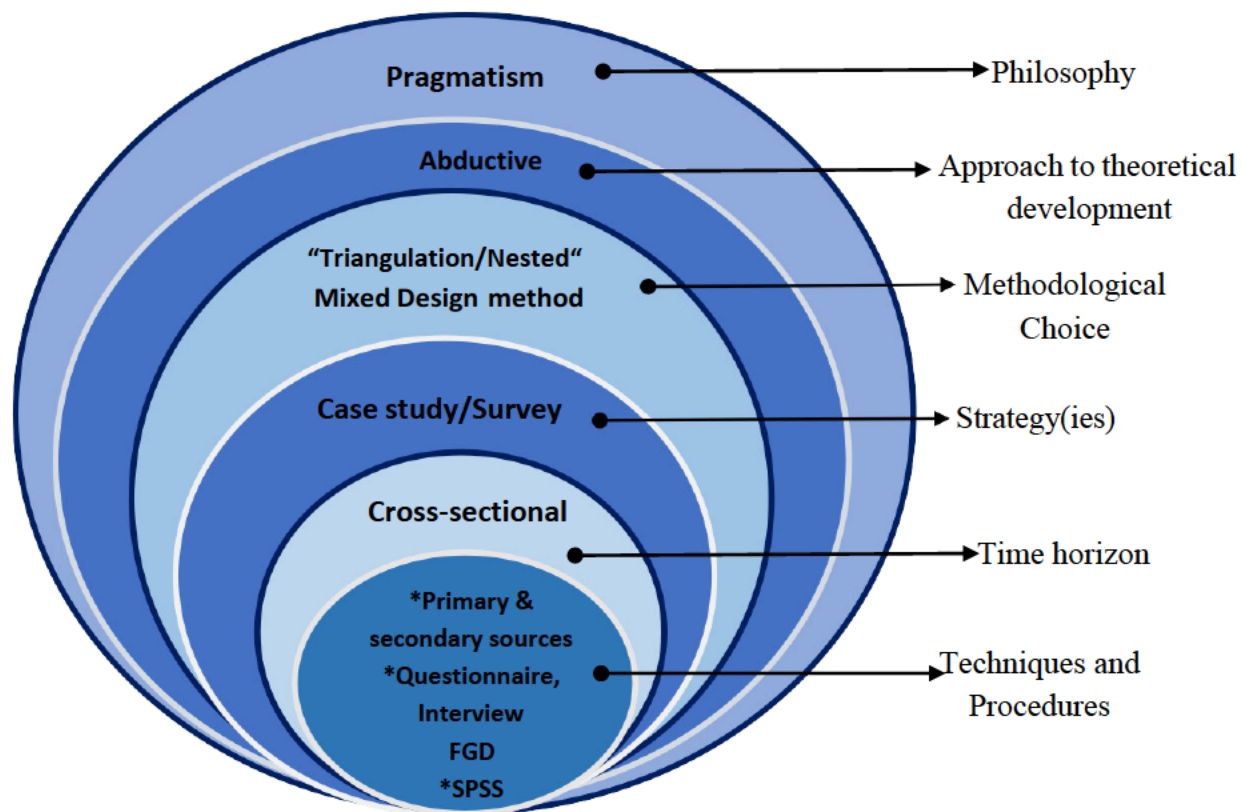


Figure 4.1: Research onion as applicable to the study

Source: Adapted from Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill (2019: 130)

The Research onion framework was developed by its authors for researchers in the field of business, organisation and management theory (Sahay, 2016; Saunders & Lewis, 2012) but the framework has wide applicability in many research fields. However, the framework was considered ideal for the methodological analysis of this study going by Bozeman's "dimensional publicness theory" which proposes that organisation theory and public policy study are related such that they can share common theoretical perspectives (Bozeman, 2013:178). There is evidence that suggests that most studies on human interactions are usually similar and socially constructed. Scholars further argue that studies with social constructionists' orientation are largely influenced by emphatic interaction and aesthetic involvement of the researcher with the participants (Newman *et al.*, 2017, Nieuwenhuis, 2014 Pierce, 2014). With this in mind, this study made an effort to strike a balance between the reality stand, commonly associated with the social constructivist's research perspective, and the need for an objective investigation. In line with the recommendation for policy research, this study recognised the positive a normative assumptions which are common to an evidence-based public policy analytic study (Newman, 2017)

4.3.1 Pragmatism: the study's research philosophy

As mentioned in the preceding section, this study derived its philosophical background from the pragmatists' orientation described as pragmatism. Importantly, pragmatism derived its strength from John Dewey's work, *Experience and Nature*, published in 1928, the philosophy is still actively applied in contemporary research. The philosophy is a slight deviation from the popular paradigms which classified research studies into sharply contrasting distinct classes namely positivism and interpretivism. The philosophy charts a new paradigm for the social science researcher (Mohajan, 2018; Morgan, 2014). Consequently, this study was shaped by 'multiple realities' in line with Wagner *et al.*, (2012: 10). Multiple realities in this regard suggest that the pragmatist philosophy de-emphasises traditional assumptions about the nature of reality, knowledge and fact-finding especially in social research (Kaush & Walsh, 2019). Pragmatism best describes the philosophy of this study because, beyond restrictions, the concept widens the techniques that are available to the researcher. The researcher considered the ideals of pragmatism suitable having identified community restiveness due to non involvement in decision making as a problem. He therefore viewed the problem in its broadest sense and commences inquiry using different methodological approaches. Unlike other research philosophies, pragmatism allows the researcher to integrate more than one research approaches in a single study. Therefore, both qualitative and quantitative techniques were employed in this study towards making policy suggestions, promoting community rights initiatives during project implementation and social change. Moreso, authors perceive pragmatism as the best philosophical approach for a researcher aiming to investigate marginalized and oppressed community groups (Kaushik & Walch, 2019; Terrell, 2016; Yin, 2016; Cresswell, 2015). The discussion of pragmatism is based on three paradigmatic assumptions; ontology, epistemology and axiology. The applicability of these assumptions to this study is discussed in subsequent sub-sections.

Ontology of Pragmatism

Ontology generally describes how an investigator perceives the world of reality which depends on how knowledge is perceived; whether as a product of the mind (ideality) or it is real (reality). The concepts of realism and idealism influence the researcher's conceptualisation of the research process from the outset and all through the research process (Saunders *et al.*, 2019; Gray, 2014). Unlike other research philosophies, the ontology of pragmatism is more charitable to the researcher's "pre-theoretical intuitions" and allow the researcher to accept respondents

statement as true not in the concept of reality, rather, they are required “to cope with concrete [research] problems” during investigations in various communities (Mitchel 2018: 88). The researcher portrayed himself as an idealist because the knowledge being sought exists within a social context involving community stakeholders and their responses were expressed in the context of their social reality. Their utterances were not subjected to real- world linguistic interpretations by the researcher. Moreso, the researcher did not subject most claims to verifiable evidence. They were accepted as “conceptual truth” (Mitchell 2019: 19) because the information derived was applied in the context of “social ontology” (Frankel Pratt, 2016: 509). In other words, the responses were made in line with social interactions which are inot devoid ofthe human element. For instance, in the investigation and analysis of findings from the communities on how the institutional design accommodated them within the policy framework, the researcher assumed more of an idealist’s posture. More attention was given to the actions, experience and ideas of the community leaders. On the other hand, during the investigation and analysis of the institutional framework for the implementation of PPP, a realist approach was embraced to objectively analyse the institutional framework for the implementation of PPP because the institutional challenges were issues that are external to a particular social context. Hence, the researcher relied more on the knowledge obtained from the literature to do an objective analysis of the existing situation. Results were therefore permutated to arrive at pragmatic conclusions.

Epistemology of pragmatism

The second paradigmatic assumption that shaped the researcher’s reflexive investigation after ontology (discussed above) is epistemology. Considering the researcher’s philosophical orientation, epistemology of pragmatism guided the researcher in his quest for knowledge and helped in determining how concepts were constructed and applied in this study. Traditionally, epistemology defines knowledge based on what is assumed to be the truth in the context of social reality. Drawing from this thought, the concept of epistemology assisted the researcher to employ every technique at his disposal to seek knowledge. Hence, the researcher drew on the epistemology of pragmatism which holds that achieving pragmatic solutions through any means possible is valid especially in a study of this nature that is socially constructed (Jansen, 2014; Gray, 2014; Eneanya, 2012). The pragmatists contend that there is nothing like actual truth or actual knowledge except what human experience assumes to be true. Therefore, knowledge is derived based on the assumption of what truth exactly is (Ruwhiu & Cone, 2010). The underlying philosophy of pragmatists’ epistemology is that knowledge and experience are

interwoven and derivatives of each other towards making a valid conclusion. In this case, according to Kaushik & Walsh (2019), knowledge is considered to be the truth and cannot be devoid of certain imperfections, but every item of knowledge is uniquely based on an individual's experiences.

Axiology of pragmatism

The concept of axiology describes research based on either value-free or value-laden phenomena. The Axiology of pragmatism posits that a researcher should not be bound by either rule nor should his/her values cloud his or her investigation; rather, he/she must embrace values that give quality to the research output (Cresswell, 2015). Based on pragmatic axiology, the researcher tried to ensure that the data gathering processes and interpretation of knowledge were carried out in the best way possible. It is assumed that scientific research should be dominated by value-free principles to make an impartial contribution and to avoid biases (the positivist school). Another school of thought has argued that it may be impossible to do value-free research or to detach the researchers' feelings emotions and experiences from influencing his or her investigation (Heba, 2019; Javidroozi *et al.*, 2018; Ma, 2012). As mentioned earlier, this study is not bound by either rule. Therefore, the process is neither 100% value-free nor value-laden. More so, the objective of the study and the literature review influenced the researcher's value judgement (Kaush & Walsh 2019; Sahay, 2016; Fletcher, 2017; Ma, 2012).

In conclusion, therefore, the ontological, epistemological and axiological position of the researcher as described in the preceding sections was conceptualised in a manner that combined the qualitative positivism, objectivism, realism, empiricism, quantitative aspect on one hand and constructivism, interpretivism, subjectivism, nominalism or the qualitative aspect on the other hand and blended them into a coherent, not conflicting way of achieving a pragmatic research outcome. The next section explains how the research approach is linked to the philosophy of this study.

4.3.2. Research approach: abductive reasoning

The methodological approach that underpinned this study is abductive. The abductive approach is also described as one that employs abductive reasoning. Abduction refers to the blend of features of inductive and deductive approaches. One reason why the researcher considered using the abductive approach appropriate was the lack of experiential knowledge or qualitative information which makes it practically impossible to draw a specific conclusion from a

generalised knowledge of the subject matter (deductive). Moreover, the study cannot reach a generalised conclusion based on the data available to the researcher and given the scope of this study (inductive). Hence, through the abductive approach, the researcher was able to apply prior theoretical knowledge of public participation and existing theories to conduct an empirical investigation into community involvement in PPP project governance. Secondly, abduction was considered most desirable for this study because it allows the researcher to use both cognitive and numerical approaches to address the research problem and to make inferences based on experiential findings. The application of abduction assisted the researcher to produce a technical account from the account of laymen and therefore developed logical inferences on the involvement of their communities in the implementation of NP4.

From the literature, some authors have discredited the abductive approach by claiming that the approach is not suitable for theory generation; however, social scientists have recognised the abductive approach as the best option for a study that combines methods (Saunders *et al.*, 2019; Kimbell, 2015; Tavory & Timmermans, 2014). Scholars following this line of thought have pointed out that inductive or deductive reasoning alone cannot yield an absolute condition required to draw a valid conclusion in a study of this nature (Mitchell & Education, 2018; Gray, 2013). The study only creates tentative explanations and propositions during discussions of findings which can be further explored through inductive or deductive approaches. It is worth mentioning that deductive research is gaining acceptance in policy intervention and experimentation as reported by the *UK Cabinet Office Policy Lab*. The *PolicyLab* reveals and lends support for the application of abductive reasoning as a new way of thinking in policy research (Kimbell, 2015) especially when the study is exploratory and the data is neither perfect nor does it have strong enough validity to draw up a strong hypothesis (Crepaz & Chari, 2018; Kimbell, 2015; Tavory & Timmermans, 2014; Haynes *et al.*, 2012). Consequently, this study has only tried to link some explainable facts whose inferences cannot be said to be true (like deductive reasoning) neither can a strong conclusion be drawn about the validity of the researcher's observation (as in an inductive approach). This study can therefore, be regarded as a trial test of NP4 intervention in Lagos State, Nigeria. The researcher has only made plausible links about the elements of infrastructural policy governance; the outcome of which can be subjected to further inductive or deductive investigation.

4.3.3. The methodological choice: mixed-method

Research choice represents the fourth layer of the research onion that can be mono-method (either quantitative or qualitative approach for data collection and analytical process); multi - method (where both qualitative and quantitative are employed in a single study but applied at different stages of the research) and lastly, mixed-method in which the researcher applied the two approaches at the same time (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). The mixed-method is a “procedure for collecting, analysing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data at different stages of the research process to understand a research problem more completely” (Ivankova *et al.*, 2014: 269). The researcher saw the need to apply a quantitative method to reach out to a wider population for more objective analysis. The questionnaire created an opportunity for a wider spectrum of the community group members to participate in the study. There are, however, practical problems associated with the use of questionnaire which include the quality of data, inflexibility and detachment. To reduce the impact of these problems on the outcome of this study, the researcher saw the need to capture qualitative information in a real-life context. Therefore the researcher applied data gathering techniques like interviews and FGD (De Vaus & De Vaus, 2013). Each research process was carried out with careful consideration of the unique nature of the participant as an individual or as a group, in mind. Qualitative research is considered to be subjective making it impractical to formulate theories or generalise research findings (Mohajan, 2018; Eneanya, 2012). Nevertheless, the qualitative method is quite popular due to its depth of exploration and the richness of its data (Nieuwenhuis and Brigitte, 2012:128). Qualitative inquiry is still popular for its notable contributions to the development to the study of public policy (Maxwell, 2020; Tierney & Clemens, 2011).

Research scholars have maintained that permutation of both quantitative and qualitative data is mostly suitable for a study with a pragmatic orientation (Terrell, 2016; Yin, 2016 and Cresswell, 2015). Accordingly, the researcher gathered both qualitative and quantitative data in separate procedures so that I could then “integrate[s] the two and then draw[s] interpretations based on the combined strength of both sets of data” (Cresswell, 2015:2). The adoption of a mixed-method facilitated the process of cross-validation of data by triangulating the findings that were derived from the two methods. The researcher also drew from scholarly works that have successfully applied mixed method in their various studies on policy impact evaluation and analysis, notably, Burch & Heinrich (2016) and Biesenbender & Heritier (2014). This study adopted an exploratory sequential design (EDS). This is a *three-phase design* in which (1.) the investigator held FGD with community heads (2.) conducted interviews with the paramount rulers of the

divisions to address emerging issues arising from FGDs (3.) use the quantitative instrument to obtain data from broader community groups. The same process was replicated during data analysis.

4.3.5. The research strategy

The strategy of research is a road map that gives direction to a researcher. It is a carefully designed plan through which a researcher answers the research questions and addresses the research objectives (Malhotra, 2017; Saunders *et al.*, 2015). This research applied both survey and case study research designs (as shown in Figure 4.1, p.93). The survey was adopted due to the need to seek honest and unambiguous responses from large members of community groups. The survey research design involves gathering data or information from a well-defined population of individuals or groups “who shared similar demographic characteristics” (Blair, Czaja & Blair, 2014: 2). The applicability of survey, according to De Vaus & De Vaus (2013) can take the form of quantitative and qualitative research (i.e using techniques like an interview or FGD). Like every other social research design, a survey is ‘error’ prone if not carefully designed (Fowler, 2009:11). Scholars relate the errors in survey study to issues of inappropriate representation of the population, survey methodology used, biases, variability and issues relating to validity or reliability of the results (Crepaz & Chari, 2018; Blair *et al.*, 2014; Yin, 2016). These errors, according to Fowler (2009) are prominent in social surveys (Fowler, 2009). To reduce the error, a total survey was applied in this study (Fowler, 2009). Total survey reduces ‘error’ challenges by establishing criteria for selecting the right sample design, selecting appropriate methods of analysis and choosing verification strategies (Repko, 2008) as explained later in this chapter.

Secondly, many PPP projects were being undertaken in different communities in Lagos State, Nigeria. The procedure of case-study design requires a comprehensive and systematic investigation of a few cases. By design, only PPP projects that are located within communities in three divisions of Lagos State were selected for this study. The study is restricted to the communities where these projects existed, and the cases were viewed based on those that were proceeding during the period of this study. The individual projects themselves and the groups within the communities that were involved in the projects were studied. Each case was investigated to identify conditions that were similar or peculiar to each community under study. The application of multiple cases assisted the researcher in establishing a wide range of views

necessary to reduce the limitations of a single case study which include subjectiveness (Yin, 2018). Multiple case design also offers in-depth knowledge about the phenomena being studied and the findings are “intensely grounded in different empirical evidence” than a single case design method (Gustafsson, 2017: 11). Multiple case studies were used to “either augur contrasting or augur similar result” (Gustafsson, 2017: 3). In this case, the latter applied. The results from different cases were analysed and compared as each case and compared to each other to draw facts that will help to generate strong and reliable evidence (Vannoni, 2015).

Community leaders were drawn from selected communities across the three project locations (multiple case study components of the study). Standard interviews and questionnaires were used to collect data systematically (the survey component). The combination of the study designs gives a holistic perception about cases being studied and the subject of an investigation which had to do with getting the facts about the peoples’ thoughts, preferences and perception with respect to community stakeholding regarding PPP projects across study locations. The strategy created an opportunity for robust triangulation and cross-tabulation of various investigations from different cases with survey results. The survey can take a qualitative or quantitative form. Similarly, a case study can take the form of longitudinal or cross-sectional dimensions depending on the objective of the study and the logic underlying the time horizon (Yin, 2018; Frels & Owuegbuzie, 2013). While this study applied the two techniques applicable in the survey, the study is cross-sectional by the description of its time-horizon which is further discussed in the next section.

4.3.6 Time horizon

This study adopted a cross-sectional study. A cross-sectional study involved the collection and application of data having specific variables of interest in mind at a particular point in time. A cross-sectional survey is ideal for a study whose data is drawn from a defined population spread across different geographical locations (Saunders *et al.* 2019; Fink, 2013). The researcher’s interest lay in identifying community leaders to address issues of community exclusion, conflict of interest, and dominance. This study attempted adequate representation of the study’s target audience, by addressing different groups and communities at specific times. The observed variables were treated at a period in an iterative process across all the communities. For instance, allegations of grassroots exclusion or non-compliance with Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) agreement started from broad community groups. Most of these issues were already captured in the distributed questionnaires and deliberated with community leaders

phenomenologically. However, there were emerging issues requiring further clarification and investigation from the paramount ruler and the spokespersons at the LOPPP respectively. The period of investigation spanned two months in some communities. This does not connote a follow-up process. The cross-sectional approach, as used in this study, was participatory. It involves key role players drawn from the total sample groups within the community; therefore, the researcher drew useful insight that made correlation possible for further research although this study did not require either a post-study analysis. Scholars have demonstrated that the cross-sectional timing of research may promote unrepresentativeness and make it difficult to establish cause and effect or long-term trends (Frels & Onwuegbuzie, 2013). However, the cross-sectional approach has become a primary mode of enquiry in policy research (Motala, 2016; Sadovnik, 2007; Mitchel, 2007). Moreover, the objective of this study only required cross-sectional data.

4.4 Research procedures and techniques

Based on the research onion framework, the research techniques encompassed details about how the researcher determines the population and a representational sample through sampling methods. This section relates to how data were generated collated and analysed (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). Other pivotal issues under this category relate to data collection instruments and their descriptions. It is also important to show the reliability of an instrument through a pilot study and a statistical test alongside the discussion on data gathering processes and procedures.

4.4.1 Population

The population of a research study is defined as the “entire group about which some information is required to be ascertained” (Banerjee & Chandbury, 2010: 60). Eneanya (2012: 170) describes the concept as a “designated part of a universe from which a sample is drawn”. To define the study population in line with the objectives of the study, the target population is divided into clusters (Adebakin, 2003) from which the study populations were drawn. This study population included the divisional paramount traditional rulers (3), community heads of all the affected 31 communities (31 Baales), members of the organised community groups in the three study locations of Lagos State as well as the spokespersons in the LOPPP. The breakdown and explicit information in respect of the population at the community level are highlighted in Table 4.2 (below).

Table 4.2: Table showing the population of the study

Level of Investigation	Badagry	Ikorodu	Epe	Total
Divisional Paramount Ruler (The <i>Obas</i>)	1	1	1	3
Community Heads (The <i>Baaales</i>)	12	10	9	31
Members of Intra-community groups	295	205	341	841

Based on the design of the study, the proportion of the population in each level of investigation was decided based on the statement of purpose and knowledge at the participants' disposal at the time of the study and the information required by the researcher (Adams, 2020; Adebakin, 2003). In this regard, the population for the qualitative study was meant to reflect the entire population who were purposely identified and the sample for the quantitative study was drawn from a definite population. This became necessary to ensure adequate and unbiased representation in the study (Adams, 2020).

4.4.2 Sample and Sampling

Oftentimes, not the entire population can be involved in a study. The population is, therefore, sampled through a sampling process. Sample refers to the selected elements or units of a population. These elements represent the entire population in terms of specific characteristics that define the population of the study. The process through which a researcher draws his/her sample from the population of the study is referred to as sampling (Adam 2020; Saunders 2019). Sampling could be probabilistic or non-probabilistic. The choice of sampling technique must be such that it yields a statistically viable result. This study employed both probabilistic and non-probabilistic sampling procedures at different phases of the study as shown in Table 4.4.

Non-probabilistic sampling: purposive (total) sampling technique

The study adopted a sampling technique that was based on subjective judgement. This is called a non-probabilistic sampling technique. The non-probabilistic technique used was purposive. This implies that the participants were selected on purpose based on certain criteria that made them holders of information required for the study. As shown in Table 4.1 in Badagry, 12 communities played host to the Badagry Deep Seaport project. All the twelve community leaders represented the sample for focus group discussion (FGD) as shown in Table 4.4. Similarly, in Epe, the project spread across 10 communities. The 10 community leaders represented the sample of the study at the community level. Lastly, at Ikorodu, nine communities were affected by the Egbin Thermal Project. The nine community leaders constituted the sample

for the FGD.

The sample for the interview sessions included the paramount ruler in each division. There were three divisions; the three paramount rulers represented the total sample with whom interviews were held in each division. The interview was held with the Executive Secretary, LOPPP and also a dissenting community head due to emerging issues.

The study applied purposive sampling which implies that the participants were selected on purpose based on criteria that make them holders of information required for the study. A Total Sampling technique is a type of purposive sampling in which the researcher involves only the population of interest due to their possession of similar characteristics of interest to the researcher (Glen, 2018; Etikan, 2016). The technique was considered most appropriate for a study in which the total population is of manageable scope with a sub-group that are regarded as the custodian of the information required (Glen, 2018; Taherdoost 2016). The common characteristics that involved the adoption of the total sampling technique included similar community challenges, similar socio-demographics, a similar cultural environment and a similar community leadership style. The sample was thus framed on community leadership. The sampling technique was adopted for the qualitative study.

Probabilistic sampling: Cluster/Random

For the quantitative aspect of the study, data were sought at the LCDAs, the administrative headquarters of the communities. The population comprised members of staff at the LCDAs in each study location. The sample frame for the quantitative survey comprised the members of staff in the LCDAs that belonged to any of the different community groups and forums within the affected areas (see Table 4.4 p.110). To ensure wider representation of community members across various communities' interest groups, the researcher classified these based on the identified clusters for convenience and to ensure adequate representation; viz, Civil Groups, Forums, CDAs, professionals and other community members. This process is described by Marczyk *et al.*, as a random assignment. The random assignment involves assigning participants to groups such that any of the participants had an equal opportunity of being selected to participate (Marczyk *et al.*, 2004: 56). The questionnaires were randomly distributed to these forums to ensure a wider spread of participants and to ensure that participants were randomly selected. The questionnaires were administered at the Local Council Development Areas, (LCDA) where the projects were sited having secured authorisation from the appropriate

authorities (see Appendices H1-H3). The LCDAs serve as a base for all the community forums and groups. Only those groups that held their meetings at the LCDAs were considered. The samples were drawn from those group members that were present at the forum's meeting at a scheduled date having earlier determined the sample size based on statistical information gathered (See Table 4.3 p.109 for further illustration).

4.4.3 Determination of sample size

Determining sample size oftentimes poses a serious challenge to most scholars, particularly, social science researchers (Adam 2020). In this study, Taro Yamane method was used to determine the sample size for the qualitative part of this study. The formula is considered to be statistically reliable and recommended for determining the sample size of a known population (Adam, 2020; Ikehi, Ifeanyieze & Alkali, 2016; Singh & Musaka, 2014; Smith, 2013). The formula was used to determine the sample size having determined the population of community members in the host LCDAs. The formula was applied to the entire population of community members in all the LCDAs totalling 841. The sample size was thus determined using the Yamane formula at 95% precision level

$$n_o = \frac{N}{1 + N(e^2)}$$

Where n_o signifies the sample size

N signifies the population under study

e signifies the margin of error where $e = 0.05$ (5%).

Therefore,

$$n_o = \frac{841}{1 + 841(0.05^2)} = \frac{841}{3.1025} = 271$$

Since the population from which the sample was drawn is relatively small; the researcher adjusted the sample size in line with the proposition made by scholars who had made contributions to determining the right sample for the survey study (Adam, 2020; Ikehi *et al.*, 2016; Singh & Masuku, 2014). The researcher found two approaches in the literature to adjusting Yamane results. Firstly, the margin of error could be adjusted because the formula is best suited for categorical data especially when applied at the confidence co-efficient of 95% (Adam; 2020). The second approach involves using a finite population correction factor (FCF) to slightly reduce the sample size (n_o) (Smith, 2013). The researcher settled for the second option i.e. the use of finite population correction factor which made a slight reduction to the sample size

obtained using the Yamane formula which represents ‘population correction’ by which the researcher generated a statistically dependable sample size (Singh & Masuku, 2014: 14). The formula for FCF is given as:

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{(n_0-1)}{N}}$$

Where n_0 signifies the sample size (Yamane result), N = population under study; e = margin of error

$$n = \frac{271}{1 + \frac{(271-1)}{841}} = \frac{271}{1 + \frac{270}{841}} = \frac{271}{1.3210} = 205$$

An adjusted sample size of 205 was considered appropriate for the quantitative aspect of this study. Terrell (2016) and Eneanya (2012) claim that size is not a determining factor of representativeness because smaller samples do not affect the accuracy of output especially where the population is homogenous. Since the target population for the quantitative study was 841 across the study locations and 205 had been determined; the sample was thus proportionately allocated to determine the number of questionnaires which were distributed to respondents in each study location as follows:

$$\frac{\text{No of affected communities in each study location}}{\text{Sum of affected communities across all the divisions}} * n (\text{sample size})$$

Table 4.3: Sample size, questionnaire distribution and rate of return

Divisions	Sample size Questionnaire distributed (Proportionate allocation)	Questionnaire Returned	Rate of return
Badagry	$\frac{12*205}{31} = 79$	47	$\frac{47*100}{79} = 59.5\%$
Epe	$\frac{10*205}{31} = 66$	49	$\frac{49*100}{66} = 74.2\%$
Ikorodu	$\frac{9*205}{31} = 60$	50	$\frac{50*100}{66} = 83.3\%$
TOTAL	205	146	

Source: Field survey, 2019

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Epe	$\frac{10*205}{31} = 66$	49	$\frac{49*100}{66} = 74.2\%$
Ikorodu	$\frac{9*205}{31} = 60$	50	$\frac{50*100}{66} = 83.3\%$
TOTAL	205	146	

Source: Field survey, 2019

The formula was applied to determine the sample size as illustrated in Table 4.3. Since the adjusted sample size is 205 and the entire community was 31. The questionnaires which were distributed in each LCDA were determined using the number of communities in the LCDA to determine the number of questionnaires allotted. The table also demonstrates the rate of return for each division.

Table 4.4 gives a summary of the population, sample, sample size and sampling process for each method (qualitative and quantitative).

Table 4.4: showing sample size, sampling techniques and data collection methods across the divisions

STUDY LOCATIONS	POPULATION DESCRIPTION	Population	QUANTITATIVE STUDY		QUALITATIVE STUDY			
			Sample	Sampling method	Sample	Interview	FGD (Participants per group)	Sampling method
BADAGRY DIVISION Badagry Deep Seaport	Paramount Ruler	1	0	Cluster/Random (Probabilistic sampling technique)	1	1	0	Purposive, quota (total) sampling technique (Non-probabilistic)
	Community heads (The <i>Baales</i>)	12	0		12	0	12	
	Members of Community Groups & Forums (Badagry West LCDA)	29 5	79		0	0	0	
IKORODU DIVISION Ikorodu Lighter Terminals	Paramount Ruler	1	0		1	1	0	
	Community heads (The <i>Baales</i>)	9	0		9	0	9	
	Members of Community Groups & Forums (Ijede LCDAs)	20 5	60		0	0	0	
EPE Free Trade Zone/Lekki Port	Paramount Ruler	1	0		1	1	0	
	Community heads (The <i>Baales</i>)	10	-		10	0	10	
	Members of Community Groups & Forums (Lekki LCDAs)	34 1	66		0	0	0	
OFFICE OF THE LAGOS STATE PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP	Executive Secretary	1	0		0	1	0	
TOTAL		841	205		34	4	33	

Note: The population figure for qualitative data was sourced from the Lagos Bureau of Statistics (2016). Abstracts of Local Government Statistics

4.5 Recruitment strategy

The strategy for the selection of participants for this study was actor-centred. Having identified the participants through purposive sampling; the researcher gathered qualitative data from the participants who were ‘supposedly in-charge’ and custodians of information in the host communities. The gatekeepers played a significant role at every level of the field study; institutional-based and community-based levels. A gatekeeper refers to a person of the institution, community or leader of the network through whom the researcher accesses the field site (Yin, 2016). Necessary guides to attitude, cultural expectations and easy ways to reach out to the participants were sought through the gatekeepers. For convenience and ease of selection, the researcher deployed the pre-existing groups within the community as suggested by Marczyk *et al.*, (2005: 52). Through the researcher’s social network as a public servant and a social worker, credible links were contacted at the community levels. The researcher linked up a high-ranked public officer at the Lagos State Ministry of Finance who facilitated access to the interviewee at the LOPPP Partnership Office, Lagos State Governor’s Office, Alausa, Ikeja. Having secured the gatekeeper’s consent at the community levels (see appendix E, F1-F3); the researcher explored the meeting days of the different groups at the LCDAs and other meeting avenues to reach out to the study sample.

4.6 Data collection methods & instruments

4.6.1 Questionnaire Survey

To capture the feelings of a wider range of community members, questionnaires were administered to participants. The questionnaire is a survey instrument containing a number of questions designed specifically to gather primary data from the field (Agboola *et al.*, 2003).

The questionnaire was designed in a simple, not too-wordy language and the questions were not too numerous to avoid respondents’ burden and low response rate (Rolstad, Adler & Ryden, 2011). The researcher used both closed-ended (structured) and open-ended (unstructured) question formats. Closed-ended questions provide for responses from a list of options provided to the participants whilst an open-ended question gives room for the participants to express themselves as it suits them. The closed-ended questioning makes quantitative analysis easier; however, the open-ended question gives room for detailed expression and it provides rich

information which is useful for thematic analysis. In all, the questionnaire was divided into two broad sections (Sections A & B).

Section A asked questions relating to the biographic information of respondents. This was considered necessary because the information from this section assisted the researcher to analyse the respondents' characteristics and the impact on their responses regarding the core questions. Section B questions were treated under four categories namely institutional design, initial Stage, facilitative leadership, and the collaborative process (see appendix B). The four categories were purposely designed to find responses to the four research questions.

The concepts had to be converted into variables for empirical measurement and statistical analysis. The variables as highlighted in table 4.3 [p. 104] were used to generate the questions used in the research instruments for data. The researcher employed both nominal and ordinal rating scales to measure the identified variables. The nominal scale was used in section A for categorical responses. A Likert-styled rating scale was used to analyse ordinal data. Participants were asked to choose their response on a 5-point continuum in order of magnitude (Strongly Agreed = 5, Agreed = 4, Somewhat Agreed = 3, Disagreed = 2, strongly Disagreed = 1). Respondents' satisfaction was also measured on a 5 point Likert scale using extremely satisfied (5), satisfied (4), uncertain (3), unsatisfied (4) extremely unsatisfied (1) respectively. The Likert scales created a good ground for data imputation and analysis (Hartley, 2013) using SPSS. Some responses were treated as continuous data; hence, the researcher saw the need to compare the average rating of responses using means and standard deviation (Fink, 2013). However, some other responses which were treated as ordinal were collated and analysed using charts and other descriptive methods of analysis.

The variables which were identified by Ansell and Gash in their popular collaborative governance model formed the basis upon which the study developed its conceptual framework. The constructs from the model constituted the major variables of this study. These are institutional design, initial stage involvement, facilitative leadership and collaborative process. The constructs were measured based on concepts from the model and other relevant authors (see Table 4.5 pg. 113). This measurement was applied to design the instruments (questionnaire, interview and FGD guides).

Table 4.5: Study constructs variables and measurement as applied in the instrument

Institutional design	Initial Stage involvement	Facilitative Leadership	Collaborative Process
Community relevance/roles in the existing Framework (Item 1) <i>Zhang, et al., 2015</i>	Initial stage involvement (Interactive planning) (Items 9, 11) <i>Kiljn & Nederhand, 2016; Wiewora et al., 2016; D Schepper et al., 2014; Inne & Booher, 2003</i>	Leadership capabilities (Item 14) <i>(Singaravello, 2010; Skelcher, 2006; King et al., 1998)</i>	Identification of areas of common interest (Items 8, 19, 20, 22)
Established communication link (item 2) <i>Kim, 2016; Ansell & Gash, 2008; Aluko et al., 2007;</i>	Stakeholders Meeting (item 10) <i>Kim, 2016; Ansell & Gash, 2008</i>	Leadership activism (item 15) <i>Behren, 2014; Fung, 2006</i>	Dialoguing Item 19, 21 <i>Parker, 2002</i>
Policy Feedback Mechanism (item 3) <i>Kim, 2016; Moynihan, 2014; Jacob & Weaver, 2010; Arnstein, 2015</i>	Advocacy (item 12) <i>McCloskey et al., 2013; ICRC, 2003</i>	Leadership education/Capacity building (item 16) <i>Skelcher, 2006; King et al., 1998)</i>	Involvement of local clientele/local content Item 22
Organized Community role (Item 8) <i>King et al., 1888; Choguil, 1996)</i>	Early sensitisation, local education & enlightenment (<i>Ismail et al., 2019; Parker, 2002)</i>	Leadership affiliation to political parties (item 18)	Collaborative mechanism in place Items 23, 24 <i>Albert & Passmore, 2008; Smith, 2003; Innes & Booher, 2004</i>

Source: generated by the researcher, 2019.

Rate of Return (Questionnaire)

In every sample, certain proportions are possibly not reached which could affect the response rate of respondents (Eneanya, 2012). The response rates were determined by dividing the number of returned questionnaires by the total number eligible in the sample. The response rate received from the questionnaires distributed was considered to be within an acceptable standard.

This response rate was achieved owing to persistent follow-ups and monitoring. Of the 205 questionnaires that were distributed, some of the questionnaires were not retrievable while some were returned blank or found not usable. 151 questionnaires were returned of which 5 were rejected and labelled “not usable” (NU). In all, only 146 of the questionnaires were considered valid and found usable as shown in Table 4.6 below,

Table 4.6: Showing the rate of response on the administered questionnaire

Questionnaire Distribution	Frequency	Percentage
No of Questionnaire Administered	205	100
No of returned and completed	146	71.2
No. Unreturned /Unusable	59	28.8

Source: *Field Survey, 2019*

From Table 4.6, the 146 valid returned questionnaires indicate a 71.2 percent rate of return on the distributed questionnaire. The position of statisticians is that no sample size is theoretically large or small as long as it truly describes and represents the population of the study (Adam 2020). According to Fincham (2008), every researcher targets a response rate of approximately 60% since a low response rate weakens the reliability and the validity of the survey outcome. Although studies have shown that there is no direct correlation between response rate and research validity (Morton, Bandara, Robinson & Carr, 2012). Given this, the response rate of 71.2% representing the sample data of 146 out of 205 was considered very acceptable for this study.

4.6.2. Interviews

The interview is one of the qualitative data gathering techniques used in this study. It is a ‘two-way conversation and a purposive interaction in which the interviewer asks the interviewee certain questions to collect data about their ideas, opinions and behaviour (Nieuwenhuis & Brigitte, 2012: 133). Although, the interview could be influenced by some interpersonal biases and complexities (Fowler, 2009, Blair *et al.*, 2014); the instrument is still adjudged to be the ‘most effective’ survey instrument in social research (Lancaster, 2005: 133). A semi-structured, open-ended Interview method was employed. A pre-designed interview guide was used. This guides the researcher, to a reasonable extent to promote uniformity and coherence and prevents unnecessary deviations (see appendices E & F). Due to the nature of information required, the

researcher employed a ‘key informant interview technique’ (Eneanya, 2012). Eneanya describes key informant technique as

“obtaining [information] from a community resident, who is in a position to know the community as a whole or the particular portion [a researcher] is interested in” (Eneanya, 2012:204)

The researcher identified key informants in each of the communities with whom he sought to have an interview via a formal letter (see appendix B). The people interviewed were the *Baales* (High Chiefs) who had direct information and were seen by the residents as their communal heads. Paramount rulers were also interviewed in Badagry and Ikorodu divisions. It is important to note that English is the lingua franca in Nigeria but not all the interviews were held using English. Even where interviews were held in English; such were held using the abridged version (informal English that was blended with the local language). As Fink (2014) suggested, the service of a language translator was sought to translate the interview guide (pre-interview) from English to Yoruba during ethical application. The same translator was consulted for transcription review after the interview and FGD for correctness. The researcher audio-taped the interview sessions, transcribed and converted these into computer text files. Handwritten notes were also used to support audio recordings. The notes aided the author during transcription. As shown in Table 4.9 (p.126), the researcher conducted five interviews. The interviews were held with divisional paramount rulers, the opposing *Baale* at Badagry and the Executive Secretary, LOPPP.

The protocols that guided the interviews were structured around thematic variables that addressed different interview strata (at institution and community levels) (Appendices E, F1 & F2). The interviews were held with the Executive Secretary, LOPPP. The average time for the 4 interviews held at the community level was 65 minutes; the maximum being 1:30 hours and the minimum duration was 47 minutes. The interviews were held between December 3rd, 2018, and March 16, 2019. The wide gap of 4 months is a result of several failed appointments and apprehension from the interviewee to grant an interview on the sensitive matter to a ‘stranger’ despite the researcher’s repeated visits and an official letter of introduction (see appendix B). The researcher held an interview that lasted 75 minutes with the senior officer in the LOPPP, Governor’s Office, Ikeja, Lagos on Wednesday 10 April 2019. In all, 5 interviews were conducted.

4.6.3. Focus group discussions (FGD)

The study employed focus group discussions (FGD) as a strategy to widen the range of responses from the target group especially the community chiefs. According to (Eneanya, 2012: 196), FGD is

“a carefully planned series of discussions designed to obtain perception on a defined area of interest in a permissive non-threatening environment”

FGD creates an opportunity for the researcher to reach out to more participants at a time rather than scheduling a personal interview with each community group head. The study applied FGDs because these have an intuitively appealing nature which gives credence to sincerity and freedom of expression (Nieuwenhuis, 2014, Carey and Asbury, 2013 Litoselitti, 2003). The discussion was held in a contrived setting, allowing the participants to communicate in their day-to-day language and free interactive mode. This way, understanding which might be difficult to tap into during conventional data gathering techniques were tapped into because “not all knowledge and attitudes can be encapsulated in reasoned responses to direct questions” (Kitzinger, 2005:57). Based on the description of Nieuwenhuis (2014), the ‘funnel’ FGD approach was applied. The funnel structure implies that the researcher started the discussion with a broader and less structured question to ease the participants into the discussion before introducing the issues of concern in a more structured format (Nieuwenhuis, 2014: 90). Through this approach, the researcher ascertained the general level of knowledge of the participants about the policy before addressing the critical variables of research as they affect the community.

Response Rate (FGD & Interviews)

The FGD was scheduled to have all the communities in each division participate. The 12 leaders of the 12 affected communities in Badagry were invited for a meeting with the joint support of the overall head at the divisional level. The same process was applied in Epe (10 communities) and Ikorodu (9 communities). Table 4.3 (p.109) records the demographic distribution of the people that participated in the discussion and determined the rate of response for the FGD.

Table 4.7 showing the illustration of the rate of participation in FGD across the three divisions

LOCATION OF PARTICIPANTS	NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS INVITED (TOTAL POPULATION SAMPLE)	ACTUAL NO. OF PARTICIPANTS IN ATTENDANCE	ACHIEVED % BASED ON ACTUAL ATTENDANCE	OVERALL PERCENTAGE (%) ACROSS DIVISIONS
BADAGRY	12	9	75%	38.0
EPE	10	8	80%	32.5
IKORODU	9	7	77.7%	29.5
TOTAL	31	24		100%

Source: Field Survey, 2019

As shown in Table 4.7, nine people participated in Badagry representing 75% of the target participants and 30% of the overall participants across the divisions. 7 people participated in Ikorodu Division while 8 people participated in Epe. This represents 29.5% and 26.7% of the entire participants respectively. As illustrated in the table above, the researcher had expected that all the 31 who were formally invited to be part of the discussion to participate. However, 24 people participated altogether. In all, an 80% response rate for FGD was within the acceptable limit.

The interview was also held using a similar pattern, 3 divisional paramount rulers were interviewed. However, two interviews were conducted in Badagry due to the conflict of interest amongst the communities. An interview was held with the *Baale of Aivoji* (divergent leader of one of the communities) who resisted relocating from his community. He declined to participate in the FGD which then required the researcher to organise a separate interview with him. Another interview was held with the Executive Secretary at the LOPPP to obtain information about the operations of the Office and its relationship with the host communities. In all, 5 interviews were conducted.

It is important to state that the instruments used for a face-to-face interview and FGD included Interview and FGD Guides (see appendices E, F1, F2 and K), digital audio recording (ADR) system. FGD Poster was made and pasted at every location where FGD was held two days before the event (See appendix J). Discussants were also requested to fill in the register opened at the venues to extract demographic information of the discussants for analysis (see appendix L)

4.6.4 Document Analysis

Document analysis is a logical method by which the researcher obtains information, by reviewing and interpreting the same material to make a valid conclusion for empirical knowledge (Bowen, 2009). It does not connote literature review (Bowen 2009:27) but it describes the various procedure involved in analysing and interpreting data generated from the the examination of documents and records relevant to a particular study. The analysis of policy documents and field documents assisted the researcher in his quest for more information and rich data. Some of these documents provided direct information and further clarity to the subject under discussion. The researcher, therefore, considered, reviewed and interpreted various documents relating to infrastructural development policy like the *ICRC Act, 2005*. During this study, other documents that gave more insight into the subject of interest were sourced. These included:

- National Policy on PPP, ICRC Act (2005);
- Memorandum of Understanding between the government and community stakeholders;
- PPP Manual for Lagos State;
- Lagos State Investor Handbook;
- Magazines;
- Visual media (billboards and posters);
- Journals and articles ; and
- Company publications and pamphlets.

The aforementioned documents were inductively and iteratively analysed. The analysis provided the basis for cross-examination, especially during qualitative data collection. Although the approach had its limitations which included the context of usage, authenticity and credibility of the documents (Silva, 2012); the researcher, however, ensured that the documents were genuine, credible and reliably sourced. Karppiness & Moe (2019: 2) opine that document analysis is cost-effective and reliable when compared to other sources; however the major “methodological challenge” faced while sourcing includes deliberate hoarding, non availability and inaccessibility. For instance, during the fieldwork, the Secretary to the CDC declined to give the MoU jointly signed to the researcher describing it a “classified document” despite every effort until the researcher explored other source. Some materials like the partnership deed between the LOPPP and the PHs were given to the researcher only to peruse because it was termed ‘classified’ despite the promulgation of Freedom of Information (FOI) Act in 2011. The

Act guarantees access to public records and information in consistent with public interest (FOI Act, 2011).

4.7 Data analysis and interpretation

From the literature policy analysts see the qualitative technique as the best fit for policy study (Sadovnik, 2007; Yanow, 2007). However, due to the nature of this study, two different sets of data were gathered; qualitative and quantitative. Both data were classified, analysed and interpreted as follows:

4.7.1 Qualitative Section

For qualitative data, Relevant documents like the ICRC, 2005 and LPPP Law in respect of the projects were sourced and studied. Secondly, the researcher identified the ‘interpretive communities’ which were considered relevant to the PPP projects. It was necessary, in some instances, to conduct interviews in a local dialect (Yoruba language) since the target groups for the qualitative research expressed themselves better in their local dialect. The major language spoken in the entire South-West Nigeria is the Yoruba Language. The interview and FGD Schedule were translated from the original English to the Yoruba Language with the assistance of a qualified language translator at the Faculty of Arts, Lagos State University (See appendices B2, C2, F2). During interpretations, attention was paid to clarity, uniqueness and non-ambiguity of items in the interviews and FGD schedules. It is important to note that the manner of collection, ordering and analysis of data was guided by the researcher’s pragmatic view through which he perceived his world. Given this, therefore, hermeneutics and thematic content analysis were employed to transcribe and interpret the raw information obtained. Hermeneutics is a qualitative analytical process that involves deciphering hidden meaning enmeshed in the literal meaning. Hermeneutics confers on the researcher “the philosophical ground for interpreting and making deeper meaning from textual data. It involves unfolding the literal meaning of data in textually rich information.” (Nieuwenhuis 2014: 101). The approach produced and presented data more effectively and it reflects the reality of data collection (Nieuwenhuis, 2014; Flick, 2011).

Matrix Analysis

Due to the large quantity of textual information generated from the FGDs and interviews conducted in this study, the researcher employed a matrix framework for qualitative analysis. The matrix analysis framework is a versatile method for a qualitative researcher to summarise, synthesise, strengthen and enrich conjecture and conclusions based on the data from the primary sources (Groenland, 2016). The table was used to capture salient information during qualitative analysis. The matrix is a new pedagogical instrument used in capturing the oral text in qualitative data to find a meaningful pattern that existed from the outcome of information and to capture this in a summarized form. The researcher employs the matrix to “shed more light on the relationship amongst the different themes and levels of the dataset” (Burton & Galvin, 2018: 398). This was necessary to summarise the interviews and FGD as most responses tended to wander away from the subject of the investigation. Therefore, the researcher slightly deviated from the traditional method of coding and indexing by interpreting and describing the constructs and themes from FGD and interviews. The processes were that the researcher inductively determined the various categories that emerged from the theoretical constructs i.e. institutional framework, early involvement, facilitative leadership and collaborative mechanism. He thereafter identified quotes from the manuscripts in line with the themes through a process described by Kuchartz (2019) as qualitative content analysis (QCA). Verbatim responses were coded and extracted from the transcriptions in line with the themes and the same were categorised and thus presented in matrices. Matrices featured prominently in all the themed chapters on data analysis (Chapters 5 to 8) to further give lucid support to the QUAL analysis.

4.7.2 Quantitative Section

Quantitative data was gathered through a survey questionnaire (see Appendix D). The data obtained from the questionnaire were analysed through the use of descriptive statistical tools like simple percentages frequency tables, simple bar and pie charts. The tools were used for the analysis of data obtained in section A of the instrument. For section B, the concepts emanating from the research questions were based on the analysis of literature that was intrinsic to the research (Nieuwenhuis, 2014). The critical attributes of these concepts being institutional design, initial Stage involvement, facilitative leadership and collaborative mechanisms were determined, and variable components were therefore generated. Presenting the data, the researcher used tables and figures with a summary statement linked to them to describe the

significance of the data generated. All tables and figures were labelled accordingly with numbers and titles for ease of reference. It is important to mention that some missing values were observed during data cleaning. This implies that some items were not filled in the questionnaire and the missing values could not be ignored.

In dealing with this challenge, a ‘missing data analysis’ suggested by Graham (2009) was conducted. In this case, the researcher inferred a missing value from related questions and patterns of responses through a deductive imputation method (Sauro, 2015; Gyimah, 2001). Deductive imputation is a process through which a “missing response of an item is deduced with certainty from responses on other items” Gyimah (2001: 10). The imputation method significantly added some values to the process of data cleaning and greatly reduced the display of missing data. The data was therefore coded and analysed using IBM SPSS Statistics (23.0).

A Chi-Square test was done to ascertain whether or not there was a significant difference in the results obtained across the locations. The sample size in each division was greater than 30 ($n > 30$) as suggested by Eneanya (2012). Similar inferences were drawn from the works of Saunders & Lewis (2012) and Wilson (2010). The Chi-square test for independence which belongs to the category of non-parametric tests was carried out to examine whether or not there was any relationship between the study locations and data outcome based on the various analytical variables. The test was necessary to determine the acuity of respondents to issues of PPP project governance across study locations. The researcher relied on the test to measure the statistical as well as the practical significance of the data outcomes of the analytic themes concerning the data results obtained across divisions. Therefore, the researcher calculated the Chi-square and the p -value to ascertain whether or not the project location made an impact on the way the community groups responded to issues raised in respect of their involvement. The cross-tabulation of the variables in terms of the observed responses to each construct and the respondent’s location made an impact on the statistical outcome of this study.

4.8 Data quality criteria

Data quality control measures were taken in this study to ensure that the data collection methods and processes were reliable and valid in line with the dictates of the research study (Mohajan, 2018; Du Plooy-Cliers *et al.*, 2014). The essence of validity has to do with how the instruments measured appropriately what they were meant to measure while the concept of reliability has to do with “the extent to which a measurement of a phenomenon provides a stable and consist

result” (Taherdoost, 2016b:32). Highlighted and discussed below are some of the measures taken to ensure that the result of this study is credible, valid and reliable.

4.8.1 Pre-test & Pilot test

To ascertain the quality of the questionnaire a pre-test and pilot study were carried out. The questionnaires were distributed at a forum involving some members of the civil groups from amongst the identified communities in the Badagry division. This was done to ensure the appropriateness of the questionnaire in terms of purpose, content and language. The respondents filled in the form with ease and they claimed to understand the content. The pilot process involving 30 participants, who shared similar characteristics with the target population, were given the questionnaires at random. The respondents filled in the questionnaire with very little difficulty. As earlier stated, the researcher blended both qualitative and quantitative techniques.

4.8.2 Reliability Test of the Questionnaire

This study regards the reliability of the result to be very significant in research of this nature. Reliability connotes consistency in the results of a research study (Mohajan, 2018). Due to the quantitative element involved and the need to ensure internal consistency, a test of reliability was conducted through a pilot study conducted with a socio-political community group in Badagry. Table 4.8 (p.123) shows the reliability analysis of the research instrument based on a pilot study which was conducted in the Badagry division (The choice of Badagry study location was for the researcher’s convenience).

Table 4.8: Reliability Test Results of the Instrument

Instrument	Scale Statistics					Reliability Statistics	Interpretation
	No. of Items	N of Samples	Mean	SD	CV	Cronbach's Alpha	
Accommodation of the community in the institutional framework for PPP implementation (institutional design)	7	30	23.00	3.132	0.14	0.707	Moderately reliable
Communities' Initial Stage Involvement in project implementation (Early involvement)	5	30	13.13	4.099	0.31	0.728	Acceptable
Community leaders as facilitators of their community involvement (Facilitative Leadership)	5	30	15.87	3.524	0.22	0.716	Acceptable
The impact of collaborative Process and mechanism on community involvement (Participatory mechanism)	4	30	15.59	1.833	0.12	0.702	Acceptable
Pooled	21	30	67.59	9.030	0.13	0.748	

Source: Pilot Survey, 2019.

Based on the pilot survey data, the test of scale reliability of the quantitative instrument was measured. Therefore, the test items identified represented the clusters that accommodated related questions during the process of instrument design. They served as the activity scale in the design of the instrument. Cronbach's alpha test was necessary to measure the degree of similarity among the constructs by which questions on each activity item were created. The test Cronbach's alpha co-efficient shows a level of correlation that is moderately reliable for each composite variable: 0.707 (Institutional Design), 0.728 (Project's Initial Stage Involvement), 0.716 (Facilitative Leadership), 0.702 (Collaborative Process) and 0.748 (pooled data) > 0.70 threshold value respectively indicated good internal consistency of the data Cronbach's Alpha co-efficient (Pallant, 2016; Cohen *et al.*, 2007). The result, therefore, implies that the researcher did not violate the assumption of reliability of the research instrument.

4.8.3 Credibility, Dependability & Trustworthiness

In line with the study design, the concept of ‘credibility’ and face validity was applied to the qualitative aspect of the study. Face validity relies on a subjective assessment carried out by observation to give credibility to research output (Cohen *et al.*, 2007; Rowe and Frewer, 2004). This is the least stringent validity measure suggested by Yin (2014) and Thomas (2011) for a qualitative researcher. Moreover, credibility is an interpretivist criterion of determining quality in a qualitative study (Farquhar, 2012: 105). This is the equivalent of internal validity in a quantitative study. The researcher, however, triangulated his findings from the different methods used i.e. methodological triangulation (Mackey & Gass, 2005: 181) to ensure more reliable and credible results. Triangulation, as perceived by Mackey & Gass (2005), implies that multiple, independent methods are used in a single inquiry to arrive at research findings. This study analysed the outcomes of findings from the use of a questionnaire, interviews, FGD, and it identified common themes from both quantitative and qualitative to give credibility to the entire process.

4.9 Ethical considerations

The researcher recognises the place of ethics in this study. The rights of participants and their security were seriously guided. The researcher ensured that ‘no individual suffers any adverse consequences as a result of the survey’ as Fowler perceives the major essence of ethics in research (Fowler, 2009: 163). Hence, the study was conducted in a manner that promotes the ethics of the research study. Other ethical issues of concern are explained below:

4.9.1 Informed Consent

The nature of informed consent implies that participants in a study of this nature have adequate information and understanding to make an informed decision to participate or not (Fink, 2013; Allison & Gass, 2005). Because of this, participants were duly informed about the purpose of the research, they were informed of their rights to participate, decline or stop at any point if they felt uncomfortable. Therefore, no participant was coerced or cajoled into participating in the study (Terrell, 2016). In line with the practice in the survey study, the protocol was attached to the questionnaire informing participants about the intent of the study and other conditions guiding participation (See appendix D). A consent form that offered sufficient information to respondents about the purpose, procedure and potential risk of participation in the study was shared out to participants. Information regarding the non-availability of incentives and issues

relating to confidentiality were also explained to every participant (Fink, 2013: 18). (see appendix B, C, D, E). For a better understanding of the local participants, the consent form was translated and read to the local participants in their local language (Yoruba) as suggested by Mackey and Gass (2005) for second language research.

4.9.2. *Explicit authorization*

In line with the UKZN research code of conduct, ethical clearance was sought and obtained from the Faculty before the research was launched in the field. Advocacy visits were paid to the identified communities to inform them of the researcher's intent before the commencement of the study. Information about the objects of the research was provided to guide the participants' informed consent and the right to 'self-determination' (Terrell, 2016; Cohen *et al.*, 2007).

4.9.3. *Respect for persons, cultural and personal values*

Each participant in this study was treated as individuals capable of making choices. They were 'treated in line with the ethical values guiding this study' (Terrell, 2016: 89). The researcher accorded a level of respect to cultural values because this was paramount to average Lagosians and traditional institutions. This made a positive impact on the participants' motivation to participate in the study.

4.9.4. *Risk and Benefit analysis*

The researcher, through a community-based knowledge, conducted a risk-benefit analysis inherent in this study for both the researcher and the participants (Terrell, 2016: 89). No participant risked anything by involving themselves in the study. Moreover, there was no benefit to the participants through financial incentives. This was made known to the participants to protect the rights to self-determination through informed knowledge.

4.9.5. *Privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality*

The researcher reiterated the voluntariness, privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality principles guiding the study. The participants were assured that the information shared would be held in confidence and that this was strictly to be used for academic purposes (Ogletree & Kawulich, 2012). Data from the participants was 'anonymised' and no participants were identified by name in the course of the study (Terrell, 2016). This was explained to the participants and highlighted in the questionnaire and in the informed consent letter (*see appendices A and B please*). To further maintain the utmost anonymity and confidentiality, the researcher employed a coding

system whereby every interviewee and the discussants across the divisions were allotted alpha-numeric codes. The codes were coined using their division, activity and time of arrival at the venue to form the code. Table 4.9 illustrates the coding arrangement for the interviews.

Table 4.9 showing the coding of the location as well as the participants who participated in interviews sections

S/N	INTERVIEWEES	LOCATION CODES	LOC	FGD(PARTICIPANTS' CODES)
1.	Paramount ruler	Badagry	BAD	BADINT001
2	Opposing High Chief	Badagry	BAD	BADINT002
3	Paramount ruler	Ikorodu	IKD	IKDINT001
4	Paramount ruler	Epe	EPE	EPEINT001
5	Executive Secretary	Office of the PPP	OPP	OPPINT001

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Every participant in FGD across the divisions was allotted codes based on the division and their time of arrival at the venue (See table 4.9, p.126). In the table, BAD 1 represents the first person to arrive at the discussion venue in Badagry Division and 9 people participated in Badagry Division. The participants were coded BADFGD1 to BADFGD9 in line with how they arrived and registered for the discussion at the venue. Similarly, IKDFGD01 – IKDFGD07; and EPEFGD01 – EPEFGD08 represents participants' codes in Ikorodu and Epe Divisions respectively. This is further illustrated in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: The coding of the location as well as the participants who participated in the FGD.

S/N	LOCATION	LOCATION CODES	FGD(PARTICIPANTS' CODES)
1.	BADAGRY DIVISION	BAD	BADFGD01, BADFGD02, BADFGD03, BADFGD04, BADFGD05, BADFGD06, BADFGD07, BADFGD08, BADFGD09 (n=9)
2.	IKORODU DIVISION	IKD	IKDFGD01, IKDFGD02, IKDFGD03, IKDFGD04. IKDFGD05, IKDFGD06, IKDFGD07(n=7)
3.	EPE DIVISION	EPE	EPEFGD01, EPEFGD02, EPEFGD03, EPEFGD04, EPEFGD05, EPEFGD06, EPEFGD07, EPEFGD08 (n=8)

Source: Field Survey, 2019

4.9.6. Use of audio digital recording (AVR)

The participants were duly informed *ab initio* that the study would require the use of an audio-visual recording device and that the recording was strictly for research purposes. The use of recording was to ensure that information was well captured for interpretive analysis and transcription. No name or any identifying information was associated with the audio recordings or the transcripts.

4.10 Summary of the chapter

Chapter four gave the detailed information about the methods and methodologies of the study. The design of the study as well as the study's philosophical orientation was explained and illustrated using the 'research onion' description. The Chapter revealed that Pragmatism was adopted by the researcher as the study's philosophical orientation. The philosophical orientation had tremendous impact on the approach used by researcher to carry out the study as well as the methodologies adopted. The Chapter offered an insight into the population of the study and also highlighted how the sample was determined, using a Yemane formula. Moreover, the formula was adjusted to determine the exact sample size. A mixed-method analysis was adopted and the study approach was abductive which blends both inductive and deductive approaches. Test of reliability was conducted using the alpha coefficient (Cronbach Alpha) and the result of the test confirmed the reliability of the research instrument. In conclusion, the chapter indicates that the research was carried out in strict compliance with the conditions laid down in the ethical guidelines of the UKZN Research Ethics Office.

CHAPTER FIVE

ANALYSING INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF NP4

5.1 Introduction

The last chapter dealt with the methodology used to gather data for this study. Here is the presentation of data and analysis – the aftermath of fieldwork. The chapter gives a detailed analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data obtained from the field survey. The chapter presents both descriptive and inferential analyses to ascertain whether or not the institutional framework for the implementation of NP4 facilitated the involvement of the members of the host communities. If it facilitated the host communities; then, to what extent were the host communities satisfied with the arrangement? So, many questions were raised through the appropriate research instruments to find answers to the research questions. The chapter is divided into several sections and sub-sections. The succeeding section (Section 5.2) and its sub-sections describe and analyse the demographic information of respondents to the questionnaire. Thereafter, subsequent sections present a detailed analysis of the data obtained from both qualitative and quantitative sources regarding the objectives of this chapter. Findings were thus analysed and discussed to determine how the existing framework for the implementation of NP4 may have facilitated community involvement in the infrastructural governance of PPP projects. Finally, a summary and critique of the findings are presented based on a summation of the entire findings.

5.2 Demographic information of respondents

The questionnaire was fashioned to elicit the following categories of demographic data from the respondents:

- i. Gender;
- ii. Age;
- iii. marital status;
- iv. qualification; and
- v. participants' category.

Table 5.1 (p.123) shows the socio-demographic variables of respondents. The data captured in the table is a response to section A of the questionnaire.

Table 5.1. Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents (Qualitative study)

		Badagry (N = 47)		Ikorodu (N = 50)		Epe (N = 49)		Total (N = 146)	
Variable	Characteristics	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Age Group	From 18 – 25	2	4.3	0	0.0	1	2.0	3	2.1
	26-35	15	31.9	13	26.0	29	59.2	57	39.0
	36-45	14	29.8	15	30.0	7	14.3	36	24.7
	46-55	8	17.0	3	6.0	9	18.4	20	13.7
	Above 55	8	17.0	19	38.0	3	6.1	30	20.5
Sex	Male	27	57.4	27	54.0	29	59.2	83	56.8
	Female	20	42.6	23	46.0	20	40.8	63	43.2
Marital Status	Single	6	12.8	8	16.0	11	22.4	25	17.1
	Married	39	83.0	42	84.0	37	75.5	118	80.8
	Others	2	4.3	0	0.0	1	2.0	3	2.1
Education Level	No Formal Education	2	4.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	1.4
	Primary	4	8.5	1	2.0	0	0.0	5	3.4
	Secondary	7	14.9	7	14.0	8	16.3	22	15.1
	Post-Secondary	20	42.6	28	56.0	32	65.3	80	54.8
	Above First Degree	14	29.8	14	28.0	9	18.4	37	25.3
Participants' Category	Community member	10	21.3	10	20.0	10	20.4	30	20.5
	Professional group	10	21.3	10	20.0	10	20.4	30	20.5
	Forum member	10	21.3	10	20.0	10	20.4	30	20.5
	Civil Society Group/NGO	8	17.0	10	20.0	10	20.4	28	19.2
	Opinion leader	9	19.1	10	20.0	9	18.4	28	19.2
Total		47	100	50	100	49	100	146	100

Source: Field Survey 2019. Sample size = 146.

5.2.1 Gender classification of respondents

Table 5.1 shows the frequency distribution of respondents by gender. The table reveals that the population of male respondents is larger than the female respondents in all the divisions. However, the margin was not as wide as one would have expected in a conventional male-dominated African setting. This implies that women were becoming informed and more active in events going on in their various communities. Overall, the male respondents constituted 56.8%, while female respondents were 43.2%. Epe has the highest rate of disparity of gender respondents with the males constituting 59.2% and the females constituting 40.8%. Badagry had 57.4% and 42.6% for males and females, while in Ikorodu, 54.0% and 46.0% represent the percentage of male and female respondents respectively. Perhaps the margin could be significantly closer but for the open skepticism and apprehension exhibited by some female members of the groups when their forum leaders approached them with the questionnaires – a

reflection of female traits in typical traditional African communities that make them passive in matters of public discourse (Dankwa, 2018). Significantly, the margins between the gender classifications in the above data demonstrate that women were becoming active and expressive in matters of community concern, particularly when it came to the PPP projects within their communities.

5.2.2 Age group of respondents

As indicated in Table 5.1, (p.124), 2.1% of the total respondents were below 25 years of age; 38.4% (56 out of 146 respondents) were between the ages of 26 to 35 years old. This group constituted the highest number of respondents followed by 36 out of 146 respondents who were between the ages of 36 and 45. Twenty respondents were between 46 and 55 years old (13.8%), while 20.7% of the respondents were above 55 years old. The frequency distribution of the ages indicated that respondents cut across the different age brackets. There was also an indication that the respondents were mature. Although most respondents were within the active age bracket of 26 and 35; however, if we examine the cumulative age bracket, there was a revelation that over 55% of the respondents are over 35 years old. This data presupposes, then, that the majority of the respondents were mature. Thus, the data conferred a level of credibility to the responses supplied.

5.2.3 Marital status of respondents

As shown in Table 5.1 (p.124), 112 respondents which represent 79.3% of the sample, were married. 17.9% were single and the remaining 3 (representing 2.1%) ticked 'others'. Others, in this context, suggest single parents, divorcées or widows/widowers. The implication of this is that most societies in developing countries are still dominated by males. Six of the total respondents chose not to respond to the question about their marital status either by omission or for reasons best known to them. However, a large proportion of participants were married. That should confer on the participants, a level of maturity and emotional stability to respond appropriately to the questionnaires.

5.2.4 Educational Background of Respondents

Of the 146 who returned their questionnaires, 77 (54.2%) possessed a post-secondary qualification which could be a first degree, a national, or higher national diploma or an ordinary diploma. 35 of the respondents (representing 24.6%) have a higher qualification than a first

degree which includes masters, professional masters, or a post-graduate diploma including professional certification acquired after the first degree. Only two (1.4%) of the respondents had no formal education. 5 respondents only had the first school leaving certificates. It can be inferred that the respondents were well-informed as the data reveals that a large percentage of respondents had above secondary school level qualifications. A total of 25.3% of them even had post-graduate qualifications. The data on the qualifications of participants suggest that the community members were not unenlightened. The data further show that the respondents were well educated and better informed than most about the subject matter of this study. The researcher was able to communicate freely, and understanding was reciprocated between the researcher and those who participated in the study.

5.2.5 Participants' Category (community groups)

The questionnaires were distributed to members of the community groups and forums. The researcher identified five groups that were dominant within the community, viz. professional groups such as artisans, technicians and consultants in private practice. Table 5.1 illustrates that of the 146 respondents; community members, professional groups and forum members make up 20.5% of the sample. Other respondents were members of civil society groups/NGOs and opinion leaders whose population constituted about 38%; each representing 19.2% of the total number of respondents. The purpose of the categorisation was to demonstrate the adequate representation of every community group.

Overall, studies have shown that a correlation exists between the participatory community process and demographic characteristics. For instance, Cocciolo & Ghisolfi (2017) demonstrated that gender, status, level of education and age are important elements that determine the participatory practices of community members in any community-driven project. The authors concluded that women and the elderly are less likely to be involved in development programmes of public consultation. Further, they predict that community leaders and agents with higher education will place more value on participation. The following sections highlight the demographic information of participants of this study. As shall be seen in succeeding sections and chapters, the background information of the participants is relevant to this study. Data and analysis regarding the first objective of this study, which aimed to investigate the extent to which the institutional framework for the implementation of the NP4 facilitates host communities' involvement in PPP infrastructural projects is presented.

5.3 Institutionalising community roles within the institutionalised PPP framework

A World Bank document reports that, given the right institutional framework for policy implementation, the community-based participatory approach tends to reduce costs and to make project implementation easier (Esia & Yusuf, 2013). Consequently, this study shall ascertain the role of the PIF in facilitating community involvement. Because of this, there is a need to bring to the fore the various legislative frameworks for the implementation of PPP in Nigeria. Akinjide & Beck (2015) reported that the Act that established the ICRC at the national level provides the broad policy framework for PPP implementation in Nigeria. Similarly, at the sub-national level, PPP implementation is governed by other policy initiatives and legislation. In Lagos State, which is the focus of this study, any PPP procurement involving Lagos State Government and /or any of its Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDA) are regulated by the following legislation:

- a. The Lagos State PPP (LSPPP) Law 2011;
- b. The Lagos State Public Procurement Act 2011; and
- c. The State Executive Council (Excom).

These legal instruments constitute the legislative framework for PPP in Lagos. They also represent the policy documents upon which PPP is founded. There are MDAs (Ministries, Agencies, and Departments) through which PPP laws and regulations are implemented. The established processes through which the policies are being implemented together with the appropriate MDAs and other stakeholders constitute the institutional framework for PPP in Lagos State (Bamidele *et al.*, 2016; Akinjide & Beck, 2015). These MDAs that work in collaboration with the LOPPP are the Lagos Ministry of Finance, the Lagos Ministry of Budget and Economic Planning and The Ministry of Justice (PPIAF, 2013: 31-32).

Against this background, the first research question sought to investigate the extent to which the institutional framework for the implementation of the NP4 facilitates the involvement of the host communities in the execution of PPP infrastructural projects in the selected communities of Lagos State. There are emerging themes from the collaborative model and literature upon which some variables were derived to analyse the institutional framework as a concept. From

the emerging constructs, the researcher analysed NP4 using the institutional analysis and development theory (explained in Chapter Two). There are varying dimensions through which the identified variables were applied in scholarly works. In this study, however, the institutional design was constructed as having five key variables through which the researcher carried out his analysis of community involvement in the PPP infrastructural projects in Lagos State. This is further illustrated in Table 5.2. (below).

Table 5.2. Illustrating theme variables and emerging questions of Objective One

Key construct	Emerging themes from literature	Emerging questions from the sub-themes (modified)
Engagement of The communities within the institutionalised framework	Institutionalised community Roles Di Maddaloni & Davis, 2018; Osei-Kyei & Chan, 2017; Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2015;	Community: Does your community have any role in the project implementation Would you say the role of the community is defined in the entire framework? MDA: Do you consider public involvement relevant in the institutional framework upon which PPP is based?
	Established Communication Link Kim 2016; Ansell & Gash, 2008; Aluko <i>et al.</i> , 2007	Community: Is there any established communication channel between your community and the government or private investors.
	Policy feedback Mechanism Kim, 2016; Jordan, 2010; Moynihan, 2014; Jacob & Weaver, 2010	MDA: Is there any feedback mechanism by your organisation to know public feelings towards PPP in respect of the project at the community level?
	Community enlightenment & Empowerment Di Maddaloni & Davies, 2018; Ssequya <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Sterrat & Steinner, 2013; King <i>et al.</i> , 1998;	To what extent does the community know what to do? How did the community benefit in terms of job placement, resource supply and so on? Is there any structure by which the community is being empowered for effective involvement?

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Having lucidly categorised the themes viz-a-viz the emerging questions; data were generated for each of the identified variables. The following section presents the analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data concerning the themes that emanated from the institutionalised

framework. As a result, the researcher was able to analyse the ideal and the existing relationship between the PHs, the state and the communities in connection with the relevant literature. Consequently, these themes explain how the institutionalised community roles have an impact on community members' involvement in the implementation of PPP in Lagos State. Therefore, in the following sub-sections, the researcher shall present the systematic analysis of data in respect of the identified themes as a response to the research question which seeks to find out how the institutional framework for the implementation of NP4 facilitated community participation in the execution of PPP infrastructural projects in selected communities of Lagos State.

5.3.1 Institutionalising community roles within the PPP-IPIF

Discussions and interviews were held to establish how the policy framework that established PPP created an opportunity for the community to make an impact or to play a role in the project. The discussants blamed the government. Members of the community claimed that the government operated as if there was neither an existing framework nor blueprint guiding their operations in the communities - a claim which was refuted by the LOPPP. From the interaction, the communities seemed not to know of any framework upon which the relationship was established. One of the principles guiding the infrastructural governance of PPP and the lessons learnt so far from the Lekki toll imbroglio must have suggested to the PPP implementers that consultation with end-users and host communities at the early phase of a PPP project was a necessity. The official at the Office of PPP, Alausa misconstrued advocacy as involvement. The Executive Secretary at the Office of PPP while expressing his opinion on whether or not specific roles and responsibilities should be accorded the community within the legal or institutional framework said;

There is no need for further involvement once there is an agreeable action plan and areas of conflict are ironed out. It might not be necessary to involve the community again (OPPPINT001, Field Survey, 2019)

The thought expressed by the officer during the interview session is suggestive of the personal opinion earlier explained during the review of the literature. The officer agreed that there were no specific roles for the community in the policy implementation framework. He, however, pointed out that the communities were not ignored in the scheme of things as he said:

Since the project is sited in their community, they are expected to cooperate with the government to ensure that the investors perform well in their domain. Their children will also be engaged in the project sites and so on. (OPPPINT001, Field Survey, 2019)

The *Baales* and other community members reported that they were unaware of any role they were meant to play in the entire process. They said they were, monitoring activities at the project site and they were always ready to agitate for their rights when necessary. Two divergent views emerged from the interview held at the LOPPP and the interview held with the various community leaders on the need to create a statutory role for the community in the implementation framework. The bureaucrat at the LOPPP expressed the view that the communities were not agitating for inclusion within the IPIF. He further maintained that what the community members wanted were benefits from the government because they believed the land was their inheritance (OPPINT001). The extract below shows that there is a contradiction between the information given by the public official and the response from the community:

“..... when the land was taken over by the government, we have been agitating for a specific role to play” (EPEINT001).

Another interviewee added that the community leaders have been asking questions concerning their stakes in the entire project governance (BADINT01). It was glaringly obvious that two divergent and conflicting perceptions emerged from the discussion surrounding community agitations for specific roles, the community view and the bureaucrat’s view. In his account of the events, the LOPPP Officer responded thus:

“...no...no....., you did not get it right, they are not fighting for inclusion, they want some benefits from the government because they believe the land belongs to them. They are saying you cannot come and use our land for a big project, and we won’t get money or other benefits. Sometimes they don’t know what exactly they wanted. For instance, some community members blocked the project site at Lekki, claiming they want to have their entitlements over their land. Is that the way to go about issues? (asked rhetorically) There is a constructive way to demand their rights. At the end of the day, their actions degenerated and led to the death of a director of a company managing the LWIL”. (OPPPINT001, Field Survey, 2019)

Therefore, when the two accounts, interviews from the LOPPP and the community leaders were juxtaposed, there appears to be no congruity in the opinions expressed. Responses to this question from the questionnaire were analysed to elicit wider perception from the members of the community. Table 5.3 (below) illustrates the data obtained on the statement that the government needs to redesign the existing institutional framework for PPP project

implementation to create specific roles for the community in the IPIF.

Table 5.3: Government need not institutionalise roles for the host communities in the PPP-IPIF

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD	D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	0	0	6	19	22	47
	% within location	0.0%	0.0%	12.8%	40.4%	46.8%	100%
	% within the need to redesign framework	0.0%	0.0%	35.3%	48.7%	25.5%	32.2%
Ikorodu	Count	0	1	2	4	43	50
	% within location	0.0%	2.0%	4.0%	8.0%	86.0%	100%
	% within the need to redesign Framework	0.0%	33.3%	11.8%	10.3%	50.6%	34.2%
Epe	Count	2	2	9	16	20	49
	% within location	4.10%	4.10%	18.4%	32.7%	40.8%	100%
	% within the need to redesign framework	100%	66.7%	52.9%	41.0%	23.5%	33.6%
Total	Count	2	3	17	39	85	146
	% within location	1.40%	2.10%	11.6%	26.7%	58.2%	100%
	% within the need to redesign Framework	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NOTE: SD = Strongly Disagree, D = Disagreed, SWA = Somewhat Agreed, A = Agreed, SA = Strongly Agreed							
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2=31.106$, $df=8$, $p=0.01$)							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

Table 5.3 shows the descriptive and cross-tabulated analysis of quantitative responses that there was a need for the government to clarify the community's role in the institutional policy framework. Results from Badagry shows that 46.8% of the community members strongly agreed that the government needs to design a framework that will specify the role of the host community. 40.4% agreed while 12% somewhat agreed. A similar trend in response was experienced in all the divisions as revealed in the above table. None of the respondents in the Badagry and Ikorodu Divisions disagreed with this view. Furthermore, in Ikorodu, 86.0% strongly agreed while the remaining respondents accounting for 14% agree to a varying extent with the statement. Over 90% in Epe also agreed to varying degrees. The overall response to the question was very positive. Of the 149 respondents who completed the questionnaire, 124 respondents (over 90%) agreed in varying degrees that there was a need to redesign the existing institutional framework to create a role for the host communities. A minority of less than 4% expressed disagreement in varying degrees. A Chi-Squared test was carried out to find out if the views of the respondents had an association with their location. Based on the Chi-square test result ($\chi^2=31.106$, $df=8$, p -value = 0.01), it is clear that the result obtained was not attributable

to chance. The result implied that the views of the respondents that the government needs to institutionalise roles for the host communities in the IPIF were influenced, to a large extent, by the location of the respondents. As can be seen from the table, 48.7% of those who agreed with the statement on the need to institutionalize community role within the PPP policy framework in Lagos State were from Badagry.

Analysis of quantitative results reveals that the participants expressed a common view concerning the need to redesign the present framework for project implementation in the local communities. In their accounts of various events surrounding the project implementation during FGD discussion, it was established that the community leaders felt alienated from the projects and wished that government would carve a role for them as a regulator and facilitator. Both quantitative and qualitative data gathered from across the divisions established that the communities would wish to have their roles defined in the project implementation agenda. Another interesting dimension was a minority opinion expressed by a discussant that his community did not possess the required capability to make a meaningful contribution to the project. This opinion lacked the support of the other interviewees and discussants from across the divisions. The critics claimed there were still areas that the communities could play vital roles if empowered. The areas by which they could make meaningful contributions to the project which were identified during FGD include material supply, local content, environmental impact assessment evaluations, human resources, safety and security amongst others.

5.3.2. Established communication link between stakeholders as a prerequisite for real community involvement

From the analysis of FGD at the community levels, most of the discussants indicated their awareness that the projects were by PPP arrangement. They exhibited little knowledge about the concept of PPP, especially in Badagry. The High Chief in Badagry, during the interview session, pointed out that his people were just becoming conscious of the PPP phenomena through community sensitisation and education. However, communities in Lekki expressed concern about the operations of the PHs that they had no business with the government. To them, access to information formed part of the MoU signed with the Lagos State Government, Ibeju-Lekki Local Government Council, LWIL and accredited representatives of villages and communities affected by the LFTZ project. They referred to Article 4 (1b) of the MoU which reads in part that:

“Government shall ensure that members of the affected villages/communities have free and effective access to information relevant to their understanding and participation in the LFTZ”

The extent to which the government had fulfilled this obligation remained a subject of much debate in all the divisions. However, the impact level in each of the divisions varied. In a similar vein, item 4 (i) of the MoU defines the obligation of the Lagos State Government to provide effective educational opportunities for members of the affected communities. The purpose of this was to create a sense of self-awareness in the communities and to empower its members. The MoU was signed in 2007 but much is yet to be achieved in this regard. At a particular division, a discussant alleged that the people in Government only used the private investors as a cover-up because corrupt politicians and top public servants were the owners of the private companies who partnered with the government to make a fortune from the unsuspecting public. The statement lacks merit because it lacks evidence and it is therefore unreliable. In any event, this issue lies outside the scope of this study.

Through a documentary analysis, this study found that free access to information formed part of the MoU signed between the Lagos State Government, Ibeju-Lekki Local Government Council, Lekki Worldwide Investment Limited and the accredited representatives of villages and communities affected by the LFTZ project. Article 4 (1b) of the MoU has already been quoted. (See above on this page)

By and large, there were existing communication channels through bilateral meetings with the community. But these meetings were at the discretion of the PHs. For further inquiry, members of the various community groups were given questionnaires to fill in. Table 5.4 (p.133) illustrates how they responded to the question of whether there was an established communication system between them (as active community groups) and either the government or the PHs. The data in Table 5.4 (p.133) did show not only the descriptive analysis of responses across the division but also shows the crosstabulated analysis, which tests whether there is a significant association in responses across the division or not.

TABLE 5.4. *There is an established communication link between the government, the private project handler, and the community*

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD	D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	1	6	22	13	5	47
	% within location	2.10%	12.8%	46.8%	27.70%	10.6%	100%
	% within communication link	5.3%	18.8%	32.8%	65.0%	62.5%	32.2%
Ikorodu	Count	7	8	29	5	1	50
	% within location	14.00%	16.0%	58.0%	10.0%	2.0%	100%
	% within communication link	36.8%	25.0%	43.3%	25.0%	12.5%	34.2%
Epe	Count	11	18	16	2	2	49
	% within location	22.40%	36.7%	32.7%	4.10%	4.1%	100%
	% within communication link	57.9%	56.3%	23.9%	10.0%	25.0%	33.6%
Total	Count	19	32	67	20	8	146
	% within location	13.00%	21.9%	45.9%	13.70%	5.5%	100%
	% within communication link	100.0%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100%
NOTE: SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagreed, SWA= Somewhat Agreed, A= Agreed, SA= Strongly Agreed							
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2=32.707$, df=8, p=0.00)							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2020

From the questionnaire distributed to community groups, the respondents somewhat agreed to a very slight extent that there existed a communication link between other stakeholders and the communities in the provision of public infrastructure. In Badagry, members of the community somewhat agreed. To a limited extent, the result shows that there was an established communication link between other stakeholders and the community in the project governance. In Ikorodu as well, community groups agreed with this to a very slight extent. Conversely, members of the community groups at Epe Division disagreed with the statement. This implies that Epe community groups largely disagreed to a slight extent that an established communication link exists between their communities and other parties, i.e. the government and the investors.

A Chi-Squared test was carried out to find out if the location of the respondents had any influence on their views. Based on this Chi-square test ($\chi^2=32.707$, df=8, p=0.00), this finding cannot be attributable to chance variations. The result indicates a statistical association between the location of respondents and the extent to which they agreed with the statement that an established communication link exists between the handlers of the project, government, and the community. It was apparent that the majority of those who strongly agreed were from Badagry

community groups (62.5%) while Epe recorded a high rate of those who strongly disagreed investigation (57.9%).

Several issues emerged during further analysis of qualitative and quantitative data. Firstly, there seems to be a strong correlation in the quantitative and qualitative data obtained across all the divisions. However, there was a deviation from the data obtained in Badagry and the data obtained from the other divisions. The results from Epe and Ikorodu suggest that there had not been a meaningful dialogic relationship between the project handlers and communities. Moreover, the relationship between the two parties had been frosty. Further investigation reveals that the Badagry Seaport was at the stage of procurement. Also, the project witnessed strong opposition from some of the other affected communities. These communities held strong opposition to the project. There was an indicator that the strong opposition influenced the need for the PHs to develop a communicative and persuasive strategy towards winning the trust and support of the opposing communities. This observation remained a proposition and whether this was actioned or not this study did not attempt to establish. Also, the development explained the reasons for the significant difference in responses of community groups in the Badagry Division compared to the other divisions.

5.3.3 Analysing the feedback mechanism systems for effective monitoring and evaluation of NP4 at the community level?

The information generated during an interview at the Office of PPP (LOPPP) established that apart from the statutory duty of LOPPP, the office was meant to provide information and to get feedback from members of the public. In his account of the event that surrounds the availability of feedback systems, the officer at the LOPPP pointed out that the relationship between the private owners of the project and the community was established. The project handler had to relate more with community members and ensure their needs are met because they were closer to the communities. The bureaucrat further expressed the view that they were aware of the fact that the LOPPP had to facilitate the harmonious relationship amongst stakeholders and also mediate in periods of crisis.

A common view expressed at the various communities during interviews and FGD was that the government had no structure in place through which community grievances could be channelled. Complimentary to this, LOPPP acknowledged the importance of feedback regarding the project from the project site. That aside, the interviewee at LOPPP, felt that the

agency only needed to create an avenue for stakeholder meetings whenever there was a conflict of interest between the two parties. To him, the investors were in the best position to relate to the community. Reacting to this view, a community leader during FGD said:

“... there were occasions when we had issues with these people [the private investors]. For instance, the private firm failed to protect the community interest and they failed to carry the community along in their major activities, but we are not getting any response from the government” (Field Survey, IKDFGD02, 2019)

From the above discussion, it was revealed that meetings were only held at the discretion of the LOPPP or when the investors felt the need for it. The responses, therefore, show that there was no established framework that specifies the schedule of stakeholder meetings involving the community. An interviewee pointed out that the bloody confrontation that led to the death of the Managing Director at LFTZ in 2015 was avoidable had there been a sound system by which grievances of the host communities are easily channelled and addressed in good time.

The investigations carried out among community groups on this subject of discussion were captured in Table 5.5. The table illustrates the responses obtained across the various locations. A question was asked to ascertain whether or not they were aware of any structure created by the government to monitor, evaluate and get feedback about community feelings and grievances towards the project implementation. As shown, the majority of those who responded to this item expressed the view that the government was yet to put a suitable feedback mechanism in place to monitor the activities of the project and the impact of the project on the community. The data in Table 5.5 \ did not only show the analysis of responses across the division but also shows the Chi-square test results to show whether there was a significant association in responses or not.

Table 5.5. There is an efficient feedback system through which community participation is being facilitated

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD	D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	0	2	2	27	16	47
	% within location	0.0%	4.3%	4.30%	57.4%	34.0%	100%
	% within feedback mechanism	0.0%	28.6%	66.7%	50.9%	19.3%	32.2%
Ikorodu	Count	0.0%	3	1	15	31	50
	% within location	0.0%	6.0%	2.00%	30.00%	62.0%	100%
	% within feedback mechanism	0.0%	42.9%	33.3%	28.3%	37.3%	34.2%
Epe	Count	0	2	0	11	36	49
	% within location	0.0%	4.1%	0.0%	22.4%	73.5%	100%
	% within feedback mechanism	0.0%	28.6%	0.0%	20.8%	43.4%	33.6%
Total	Count	0	7	3	53	83	146
	% within location	0.0%	4.8%	2.1%	36.3%	56.8%	100%
	% within feedback mechanism	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NOTE: SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagreed, SWA= Somewhat Agreed, A= Agreed, SA= Strongly Agreed							
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2=18.188$, $df=6$, $p=0.00$)							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2020

Table 5.5 shows the similarities in responses across all the divisions that there is a need to have an effective feedback mechanism in place to monitor the activities of the investors and their relationships with the host communities by the policymakers. Results from Badagry Division show that 34.0% strongly agreed and 57.4% agreed. Those who strongly agreed that an effective feedback mechanism is required for monitoring and evaluation by the government in Ikorodu and Epe were 62.0% and 73.5% respectively, while 30.0% and 22.4% agreed respectively in the two divisions. An insignificant number of respondents disagreed in all the divisions. Overall, a total of 136 respondents, constituting 93.1% of the entire surveyed sample across the divisions agreed in varying degrees with the statement. While 56.8% strongly agreed, 36.3% agreed that the government needs to design an effective feedback mechanism through which it would get information about the feelings of the host communities about the activities in their domain.

The researcher conducted a Chi-Squared test to determine the likelihood that the results were based on mere chance. The Chi-squared test result obtained ($\chi^2 = 18.188$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.00$), ruled out the possibility that the finding was based on chance. The result implied that responses to the statement that an effective feedback mechanism needs to be put in place for monitoring and evaluation of performance were largely influenced by the location of respondents. Over half

of those who agreed (50.9%) were from Badagry while varying degrees of the agreement were recorded across the board.

Evidence from qualitative data shows that there seems to be no clear-cut effective monitoring and follow-up on the activities of the PHs to involve the communities in all their activities in the coastal regions. Synthesis of both qualitative and quantitative data significantly supports the claim that it was only through an effective feedback system that government can ascertain whether the community was actively involved or not. They also expressed the view that most conflicts and confrontations were avoidable if there was an appropriate channel for the community to express their grievances.

5.3.4. Analysing the structures by which community interest groups are mobilised

The FGD held at Ikorodu and Epe, revealed that the discussants were aggrieved because they did not get a commensurate measure of the value, they felt they deserved in the entire process even in terms of employment in real terms. They did not deny that their members were engaged in the project but complained that they occupied very low positions or were offered contractual employment. At Ikorodu, a discussant explained that members of the community were not employed in real terms. The extract below captured his exact words:

We have some of our people employed but talking about employment in real terms, and they are not fair to us. Yes, we have some of our people employed as cleaners, gatemen, and other low-level positions. (IKDFGD04, Field Survey, 2019)

This response suggests that the community did not claim that they were not employed rather they wanted better positions for their educated members who sought employment. During an interview session at Badagry, an interviewee pointed out that they do not only wish to be employed or to get compensation. They would wish to be more significantly involved. . The interviewee said:

During the town hall meeting, people expressed that they do not want jobs alone but that the communities have to be stakeholders. (BADINT01, Field Survey, 2019),

The interviewees and discussants across the divisions claimed that the communities possess some qualified people who were willing, able and ready to work but were denied this opportunity because the better positions were said to be reserved for others. However, the statement lacked the support of other interviewees and discussants; thus, it was not a popular opinion. In one of the affected communities, a focal person in the project who was also a

community ruler pointed out, during an interview, that his community members were backward and local in terms of education and exposure. He, however, said this should not limit their involvement in the projects as efforts were being made to provide to build their capacity before the full commencement of the project. He informed the researcher that efforts were being made to sensitise the community and to raise their consciousness of the need for education. He concluded that efforts were being made in collaboration with the investors to offer scholarships and also to provide training that could build their capacity, especially in areas that would enable them to make positive contributions to the project. The efforts, according to him, were geared towards preparing the community for the challenges ahead.

It was also gathered during interviews that some youths had been selected at the request of the investors for training in Badagry and Ikorodu Divisions for the manpower needs of the project. This is reflected in the high percentage recorded in the number of respondents that agreed that the PHs had engaged the interest groups in Badagry. Although, the community leaders seemed to be mounting pressure on the PHs for empowerment and the building of local capacities; some groups were still displeased with the selection process. They alleged that the process was clouded by lots of irregularities. It is noteworthy that the situation in other divisions was different. In one of the communities, an interviewee commented thus:

we lack the push; at a time, our unions received blame for certain actions. The leaders also failed to give the youth the necessary backing due to their orientations. (IKDFGD04, Field Survey, 2019)

Findings showed that in some communities, individual members and groups agitate for their interest as individual entities and not in the community interest. Investigation reveals that the agitations of some community groups were based on self-inducement as attested to by one of the community chiefs during FGD:

Some of our youths lack foresight. They seem to be less concerned about happenings in their community. They like quick-fixes and their interest is in what matters to them (EPEFGD04, Field Survey, 2019)

Comparing all the evidence above, opinions differ significantly concerning the attitude of the PHs and various community groups. Further probing during interviews showed that the project handlers would have done more to accommodate the interest groups if the groups had developed the right approach and had articulated their interests in a formal way. Interestingly, aside

Badagry Division which appears to have unity of direction in their request, the other community groups appear to lack the cohesion to articulate their collective goals that could foster growth and empowerment of their members to become involved in the project governance in their domain. There appears to be no unity of purpose. Hence, the lack of cohesion invariably created divisive tendencies amongst them and made them susceptible to manipulations from the PHs and from the government.

One of the themes of community empowerment and enlightenment proposes that community groups must be mobilised through empowerment or active engagement in the project activities. In light of this, questionnaires which were distributed to members of the organised groups within the community assisted our inquiry to gain knowledge on this subject. Data obtained from our investigations was captured and illustrated in Table 5.6 (below)

Table 5.6. PHs engage the community interest groups in one activity or another

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD	D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	2	8	17	13	7	47
	% within location	4.3%	17.0%	36.2%	27.7%	14.9%	100%
	% within interest groups roles	16.7%	16.3%	32.7.8%	54.2%	77.8%	32.2%
Epe	Count	6	23	17	4	0	50
	% within location	12.0%	46.0%	34.0%	8.0%	0.0%	100%
	% within interest groups roles	50.0%	46.9%	32.7%	16.7%	0.0%	34.2%
Ikorodu	Count	4	18	18	7	2	49
	% within location	8.2%	36.7%	36.7%	14.3%	4.1%	100%
	% within interest groups roles	33.3%	36.7%	34.6%	28.2%	22.2%	33.6%
Total	Count	12	49	52	24	9	146
	% within location	8.2%	33.6%	35.6%	16.4%	6.2%	100%
	% within interest groups roles	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NOTE: SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagreed, SWA= Somewhat Agreed, A= Agreed, SA= Strongly Agreed							
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2=23.250$, $df=8$, $p=0.003$)							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

Table 5.6 shows the response to the question asked whether or not members of the community groups would agree that they were engaged in one form of activity or another in respect of the project. Of the 47 respondents in Badagry, 14.9% and 27.7 %strongly agreed and agreed that interest groups within the community are mobilised towards effective participation. 36.2% somewhat agreed while about 17.0% and 4.3% respectively disagreed and strongly disagreed that their community has been involved in mobilisation for participation. At Ikorodu, 8% of

the respondents agreed while 34% somewhat agreed. Significantly, 46.0% expressed their disagreement while another 12% of the respondent strongly disagreed that PHs do mobilise community interest groups as stakeholders. The percentage of respondents who somehow agreed in Epe was 36.7% while the percentage of those who strongly disagreed was also 36.7%. However, 8.2% of the respondents disagreed that the PHs did not mobilise the interest groups towards active involvement as stakeholders.

The researcher carried out a Chi-Squared test to investigate if the differences in the manner of response could have any relationship to the location of the respondents. Going by the Chi-square test result ($\chi^2=23.250$, $df=8$, $p=0.003$), it is clear that a strong association existed between the location of respondents and their responses on the views that states that PHs have been mobilising the community interest groups for active involvement in the PPP project as stakeholders. It can be seen from Table 5.6 (p.140) that most of the people who strongly agreed with the statement (77.8%) represented members of Badagry community groups.

5.3.5. Identifying areas of community involvement

It was gathered during the interview sessions that the host communities wanted more from the government and its private partners operating in their communities. They have demonstrated that they are not educationally backward, especially at Ikorodu and Epe. The educational background of the population sample that filled in the questionnaires also reflects this (see sub-section 5.3.4). Although they pointed out that what they wanted from the relationship was included in the MoU. However, the researcher probed to know whether in their areas they feel they could make a positive contribution or not. One of the discussants said:

The community could still be used to maintain the facilities. Under special arrangement and[with] appropriate training, the communities can assist in the maintenance aspect and [in the] provision of security. If they can be empowered through financial support, they can also function in the area of material supply and so on (EPPDFGD02, Field survey, 2019).

To further buttress the point made during interviews, community groups were asked to identify areas in which they feel they could play a role in the entire project through questionnaires (section B, item 8). The question was made open and a wide range of responses was elicited. The responses were thereafter aggregated and categorised into 5. The analysis is illustrated in Figure 5.2.

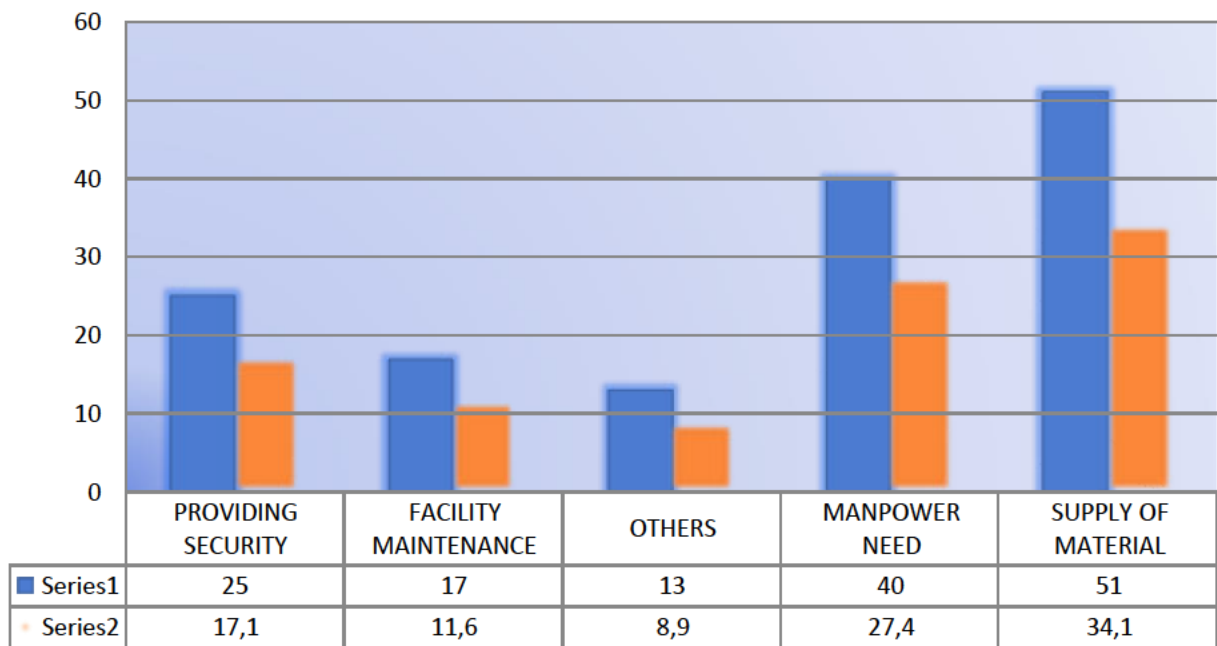


Figure 5.2: Suggested areas of community involvement

The figure illustrates the responses concerning the question that asked the community group members to identify areas that they feel they can feature in the entire project implementation scheme. The majority of those who responded to the question indicated that the community can be suppliers of materials. Of the 149 questionnaires that were returned 51 (34.1%) identified a material supply as a preference. and other supply material for construction and other contractual jobs. This represents the largest group amongst the respondents constituting 34.1%. They were followed by 27.4% who choose employment. Other groups are those who identified areas like the provision of security which serve as a monitoring tool for evaluation and monitoring of performance. Other responses that could not be categorised easily are classified as others which had the least response of 8.9%. The result shows that the community members, apart from employment, had a marked preference for inclusion in the supply of raw materials and other contractual businesses. This, however, is not without its limitations as they pointed out:

Even if they create an opportunity for the community to do supplies. Where is the fund? Most of the organisations have their standard of doing things. They would wish that the supplier must have been registered with the government. It is not that you go there as a member of the community or as an individual and tell them you want to supply material. They deal with corporate suppliers who have a good financial base and have experience in the supply business and most communities do not fit into this category (EPPFGD01).

Given the submission made in the extract above, the community would still require empowerment or support before they could play any of the identified roles in the implementation process. The next section presents the matrix analysis for qualitative data analysis.

5.4 Matrix analysis for qualitative data using categorised themes

Due to the large textual information generated from the FGDs and interviews conducted concerning the objective of this chapter, a framework was designed to summarise the qualitative data employing a cross-case analysis. The outcome was logically presented in a simple and structured manner. The researcher employed a matrix to shed more light on the relationship between the different themes and qualitative datasets— the themes derived from the analytical framework guiding this study and literature as earlier presented in Table 5.6. Having identified and coded the data using the descriptive themes, a summary of matrices of responses and quantifiable matrices for the emerging variables is illustrated in Matrix 5.1 and 5.2 respectively.

Matrix 5.1. Analysis of qualitative data on institutionalising community roles using categorised themes

Themes	Institutionalising Community roles	Relevant Quotes /Sources (re-phrased)
Framework for implementation	To what extent does the Lagos State policy framework align with the National Framework for PPP implementation?	<i>There is no significant difference between the Lagos Act and the ICRC Act ..Both are complimentary. LOPPP is running with the vision of the Federal policy on PPP (OPPINT001)</i>
Specific roles in the implementation framework	There seem to be no specific roles carved out for the community in the policy implementation framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - when the land was taken over by the government, we have been negotiating for a specific role to play. (EPEINT001) - The community does not need to be involved in every process. OPPINT001 -No specific role but they cannot be left out (OPPINT001) - We do not get a commensurate measure of the value we deserve by having such a project in our community in terms of employment (IKDFGD01; EPEINT001).
Memorandum of Understanding and adherence	How has the signing of MoU facilitated the involvement of the community in PPP project implementation?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -We were supposed to get the compensation directly without any intermediary. The state government only needs to maintain its share in the deal. We already signed MoU that will be reviewed after 20 years (BADINT01) - We are being short-changed going by the MoU we signed in March 2007, we have a 2.5% equity share in the project. No matter how small we are still stakeholders in the project. How come we are not benefitting? All we want is that they should fulfill their part of the agreement that we have in the MoU. (EPEFGD04; EPEINT001)
Project Information Education & Awareness	Measuring the level of awareness and access to information the community did not have access to any document where their roles were specified.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>There are public enlightenment brochures. That is one of the reasons why our office was created. We are open to the people. OPPINT001</i> <i>Well, there is no established communication link as such. (EPEINT001)</i> <i>There was an agreement to build the skills and capacity of local people that have struggled on their own to acquire basic skills. You know these days they always ask for experience before jobs are given. (EPEINT001; BADINT01)</i>
Feedback mechanism	Is there any mechanism by which the government follows up activities of the PHs and the relationship with the host communities?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Of course, we get feedback; we go to the community and engage them in the discussion. OPPINT001 -Government lacks the framework or a blueprint to follow up the operations of the private investors in the communities (IKDFGD01).

Resettlement plans	Resettlement plans for the affected were put in place to facilitate the process of resettlement and compensation.	<p><i>They presented their resettlement plan and we are satisfied with it. BADINT01</i></p> <p><i>There are community leaders who have serious complaints because they are unwilling to leave their ancestral shrine and their heritage which calls for serious discussions. (BADFGD01)</i></p> <p><i>The government needs to be sensitive to the community plight (EPEFGD06)</i></p>
- Local clientele - Job creation -Community Empowerment	Local Clientelle were involved in site clearing Issues of employment and WHAT?	<p><i>All this is necessary. It depends on the need of the project and what the community has to offer (OPPINT001)</i></p> <p><i>they are not doing much to empower the people (BADFGD02)</i></p> <p><i>-Our children are backward in terms of education. community members and youths to brace up and develop themselves for the future majority where engaged in the conduct of EIA and preliminary works (BADINT01)</i></p> <p><i>We have said that in the memorandum that space should be created for our sons and daughters in the project. (EPEINT001)</i></p> <p><i>-Our children are learned and are well qualified, but they are not fair to us in terms of real employment (EPEINT00; IKDFGD06)</i></p>
• Involvement Beyond job and empowerment	Communities were to cooperate with the other parties to make sure that the content of the Memorandum of Understanding is not compromised Communities were to have a representative in the Board of LFTZ Financial dividends were to be discussed Private investors to maintain a minimum equity share of 2.5% of holdings to the communities	<p><i>They are not fighting for inclusion; they want some benefits from the government because they believe the land belongs to them. OPPINT001</i></p> <p><i>-We asked them questions concerning our stake, their plan, and our benefits now and in the future. BADINT01-We are not involved in the decision-making process? EPEFGD03</i></p> <p><i>- Our roles and what we want is contained in the MoU. All we want is the implementation of the MoU (EPEFGD01; EPEFGD02)</i></p> <p><i>- Under special arrangements and appropriate training, the communities can function in the maintenance aspect and provision of security. If they can be empowered through financial support, they can also function in the area of materials supply (EPEFGD02)</i></p> <p><i>-The communities want a joint partnership. The communities & ATM have agreed on principles in allocation resettlement, but the issue of share profits, leadership is very important (BADINT01; IKDFGD05; IKDFGD02)</i></p>
Government's role as a facilitator	The Government has not tried at all. Their role is lopsided. They are more concerned with the private investors because of the bribes and other benefits they will come to them.	<p><i>- The Government ought to specify the roles and enlighten the community</i></p> <p><i>- The Government seems to be protecting the interests of the investors to the detriment of the communities (IKDFGD02)</i></p> <p><i>- The Government did not play a good role in this regard. Governments usually do the background work and just push them to the community without adequate arrangement and introductions (BADFGD01; EPEFGD01 EPEFGD04)</i></p> <p><i>If the government wants them to recognise they will do but we have a government who cares less for its people (EPEFGD03).</i></p>

Matrix 5.2. Summary of qualitative data on institutional design (quantifiable matrix).

Categorised themes	Badagry	Lekki	Ikorodu	Badagry	Lekki	Ikorodu
	Focus group Discussion			In-depth Interviews		
Institutionalised Design	Focus group Discussion			In-depth Interviews		
Community relevance/roles	2	1	0	3	1	1
Community input	1	2	0	2	3	0
Established communication link	2	3	1	2	3	1
Feedback/monitoring	1	2	0	2	1	1
Local content/Local clientele input	1	2	1	2	2	2
Existence of Conflict of interest	3	2	3	3	3	3
Legend: Existent (E)= 3; Partially-Existent (2) = 2; Not Yet Established (NYE) = 1 Non Existence (NE)= 0						

Source: Field Survey Data, 2020

At a glance, the matrix analysis of qualitative data in Matrix 5.2 illustrates that there were issues generated based on the themes of the institutionalised PIF. It is evident from the case cross-matrix that the values ascribed to various themes varied based on the data gathering approach and the project locations. The approaches were interviews as well as FGDs. While there was uniformity in responses in the two approaches (FGD and Interviews), each community had its peculiar interactive experience with the project handlers which seemed to influence the data that were obtained. For instance, the values of data gathered during the interviews vary significantly from FGDs. In most cases, the values were relatively higher for interviews in all the themes reviewed. One deduction that can be made from this output is that the community traditional rulers with whom most interviews were held and some of the community leaders that were involved in the discussions responded to issues based on their level of involvement and information at their disposal. It appeared that the paramount rulers were more involved than the community chiefs and the level of involvement also varied based on location.

In this section, an attempt was made to analyse the data obtained from both qualitative and quantitative inquiry. Results of findings were synthesised and synchronised to find out the degree of association in results based on the locations. A major discussion of findings shall be aligned with literature to draw a synopsis of major findings and a conclusion in the next section.

5.5 Discussion of findings

Having presented the results of the data obtained from the field and analysed the same, this section integrates the findings and broadly discusses issues that emerged from the analysis earlier presented in line with the objective that aimed to examine how the Lagos State policy on PPP accommodates the host communities in the IPIF. The themes that were analysed in the preceding sections are now highlighted and extensively discussed as follows:

5.5.1. The need to institutionalise the community role in the policy framework

It can be deduced, from the results of the data analysis that, beyond compensation, the communities wish to have specific roles to play in the policy implementation framework of PPP. Such roles however were not entrenched in the policy document at the state and national levels. This is in line with the submission made by King *et al.*, 1998 in a study that investigates the essence of authentic participation. The finding further supports Haynes & Nembhard (1999) and McCloskey *et al.*, (2011). These authors in their various publications demonstrate that community members desire to play roles at every stage of the project and they wish to be involved in decision-making processes. One unanticipated finding was that the LOPPP was only descriptive and also discrete about the substance of the institutional framework that should ordinarily accommodate the host communities in the PPP project implementation. The bureaucrats at the Office of PPP did not see the need to redesign the existing framework to create a specific role or to create responsibilities for the host communities. This was the thought expressed by the senior public servant at LOPPP, which was somewhat unexpected. The findings are consistent with earlier findings by scholars. (Eckerd & Heidelberg, 2020; Mapfumo & Mutereko 2020; Carpentier 2016; Burden *et al.*, 2012). Eckerd & Heidelberg (2020: 3) had established that there is a co-existence between participation and administration based on the long-term dispute between democratic governance and the issue of technicality in public services. This result, therefore, provides further support for the hypothesis that public administrators/managers are usually not favourably disposed to sharing roles and responsibility in the implementation of government policy. Drawing from the governance theories (see Chapter 2 sub-section 2.3.1) the findings reveals that the action of the bureaucrats at various tiers of government did not give legitimacy to PPP policy in Nigeria in terms of public participation. This finding is consistent with the conclusions of Nwafor-Orizu *et al.*, (2018) whose study reveals that bureaucrats sometimes alter policies in their favour against the purpose for which the policies were made.

The views of democratic governance theorists explain that the legitimacy of every policy is promoted through wider participation (Bhoroma, 2018; Campbell & Im, 2016). In the same way, IAD theorists (Sabir

et al., 2019; Sidney 2017) maintain that an efficient institutional framework creates a structure for wider involvement of every policy actor. Scherrer, Kristensen & McQuaid (2016) demonstrate that in the UK and other civilised countries, PPP is being used as a policy instrument to harness support for local participation and involvement. The UK government through the PFI policy recognises the role of local communities either as a host or as a collaborator in project network governance in line with democratic governance theoretical postulation. Other evidence from this study suggests that the local communities did not have any definite role to play within the PPP-PIF in Nigeria whether institutionally defined or based on the discretionary power of the regulatory MDAs. The implication of this was the possibility that the nexus between policy objectives and policy outcomes of the NP4 will remain wide as long as the institutional design framework excludes certain stakeholders in the governance network of PPP policy. This study produced a result that is similar to earlier works that have appraised institutional design in programmes of public governance (Sorensen & Torfin, 2017; Ohno, 2013). To sum up the discussion on this theme, the institutionalised policy framework for implementation of the NP4 still needs to reflect the ideals of governance theory. It, therefore, requires an institutional analysis for policy redesign to ensure an appropriate system that accommodates every stakeholder with each performing a clearly defined role.

5.5.2. An established communication system as an element

The synthesis of both qualitative and quantitative results reveals a wide communication gap between the PH and interest groups across the communities. This indicates the inadequacies and ineffectiveness of the existing information system. Given this finding, there are empirical studies that have shown that PPP policies are notable for lack of information disclosure to other stakeholders (Ismail *et al.*, 2019; Musawa *et al.*, 2017; Greve & Hodge, 2011). The finding, therefore, accords well with Ismail *et al.*, who reveal in their studies that the “reporting framework for PPP is inadequate and not capable of addressing the transparency and multifaceted accountability paradigm of the policy” (Ismail *et al.*, 2019:5). A possible explanation for the inadequate communication system may be attributed to the submission made by Hudon (2011) that it is believed that community members often lack the intellectual, social and political skills required to be directly engaged in a technical public project like PPP. Hudon therefore, suggests an indirect form of engagement where only representatives are recognised. While it is difficult to explain this result in line with the submission made by Hudon (2011); there seems to be a positive correlation between the results and the submission made by Hudon. Further, this study produced results that fail to justify that community should be seen to be emotionally involved in policy implementation even if they lack technical skills to play an active role (Kweit & Kweit, 1986). To corroborate this claim, the researcher found a study

that established that “citizens value opportunities to speak, whether or not their voices have any influence on the decision being made” (Lind & Tyler, 1988: 170). Further, more recent authors argued that it is sometimes more important to share technical details with a large number of community members when undertaking a project or programmes of public relevance (Sally & Rosemary, 2019; Stafford, 2014).

Explaining the scenario theoretically, the interaction between the stakeholders falls on the rung of information on Arnstein’s ladder theory analogy (Arnstein, 2015). A rung of information describes a stage when investors together with the supporting government agency communicate information about the project to the community, without any effort to feed them back before going ahead with further action on the project. These authors maintain that communities are frequently manipulated or merely consulted in the implementation of policies that directly affect them. Relevant literature on policy feedback is based on personal accounts rather than on facts, they are therefore subjective empirical analysis.

5.5.3. Community interactions and access to information

It is important to note that there were findings that showed most of the affected communities had developed a frosty relationship with the Lagos State Government and the PHs because they felt they were not engaged in a meaningful dialogic relationship. Some results show that some of the community leaders had no access to important information regarding the project. However, this finding would have to be interpreted with caution since there was no empirical evidence to establish that the communities had no access to information regarding the projects. Aside from the domestication of the Freedom of Information(FOI) Act effected in Lagos State in 2014 which confers certain inalienable rights to community members as individuals or to groups to acquire any information from the LOPPP, this acquisition of information is highly desirable because democratic governance is primarily about the right to be involved in governance choices and processes. Significantly, the policy model that best describes the existing communication between the government and private investor on the one hand, and the host communities, on the other hand, is ‘top-down’. This policy model has been criticised for its mechanistic (Cloete, De Conning & Wissnick, 2018) and paternalistic tendencies (Im, 2014). Conservative authors like Fung (2006) have claimed that the bottom-up approach is ideal for community response. However, a recent study demonstrates that the policy model has no significant impact on policy implementation, especially where the tenets of collaborative governance infuse the policy implementation process (Koontz & Newig, 2014).

Closely connected to the above was the result that demonstrates that meetings remain the major participatory and information dissemination strategy in use across the divisions. Moreover, findings reveal

that the meetings were sometimes tripartite i.e. involving the government representatives, private investors and community leaders. Interestingly, it was found during the FGD that such meetings usually occurred at the outset of the project with community leaders in attendance for climate setting towards the launch of the project. Nevertheless, the vibrant groups within the community were excluded. More importantly, some significant revelations were obtained in respect of the meeting: firstly, these meetings sometimes fail to produce any tangible outcome. Secondly, the community members are apathetic about the meeting. Thirdly, the meeting sometimes results in a chaotic situation due to misunderstanding and misrepresentation. A case in point was a town-hall meeting initiated by the PH after so many advocacy visits to the paramount ruler. Based on misinformation regarding compensation on land and relocations, groups that were not satisfied disrupted the meeting. Similarly, in another community, a bloody protest that led to the widely reported death of a major PH was recorded. The latter occurrence was exemplified in literature by Tagliarino *et al.*, (2019) and Lawanson & Agunbiade, (2018). These ugly incidences demonstrate the need to engage with the interest groups early enough to mitigate against such unfavourable outcomes. The major conclusion drawn from this finding is that government and the PHs should not see the meeting as the only way to interact and disseminate information. There are effective and less costly communication strategies in text and graphics format that could be explored. One more significant finding that emerged is that groups within the communities are not to be underrated. The finding emphasises the fact that interest groups have strong support in the literature (Wu, 2016; McCloskey, 2013; Emerson *et al.*, 2012). Emerson *et al.*, (2012) demonstrate that the success of a collaborative governance system depends on the effective involvement of community interest groups.

5.5.4. Feedback mechanism: an element of any policy evaluation & monitoring

As mentioned in the literature review section, policy feedback is strategic to effective policy implementation. Contrary to expectations, however, our study found no established feedback system in place by which the PPP policy implementers know how the project impacts the various communities, interest groups, or members. These findings imply that the LOPPP is somehow insensitive to the plight of the community due to lack of appropriate evaluation and project feedback. This finding corroborates the idea of Sanni (2016) who identified a lack of project feedback as one of the op factors that inhibit the success of PPP implementation in Nigeria. Concerning the literature review section, authors have extolled policy feedback as an important element in the institutional analysis of any policy framework (Oliviera Cruz & Miranda Samento, 2019; Sabatier, 2019). This study produced results that corroborate the findings that show evaluation to be an integral part of the policy agenda which is possible only when an

efficient feedback arrangement is inculcated within an institutional framework policy (Moynihan *et al.*, 2015; Moynihan & Soss, 2014; Sullivan, 2011; Jordan, 2010). For instance, Sullivan (2011) demonstrates how the New Labour Government in the UK used collaborative governance to draw stakeholders within the policy environment for effective policy evaluation. One unanticipated finding concerning this was that the finding suggests that LOPPP paid little or no attention to feedback from the community regarding the activities of the PHs. As stated in Chapter Two, feedback is one of the mechanisms in any institutional framework that gives legitimacy to and promotes learning in a policy system (Cerna, 2013; Jordan, 2010).

The result across the divisions indicated that the MDAs in charge of PPP implementation in Lagos State had no institutionalised mechanism by which the relationship between the PHs and the host communities was being monitored or evaluated. Explaining this scenario theoretically, the interactions between the PHs and their hosts fall on the rung of information when viewed according to Arnstein's ladder theory analogy (Arnstein, 2015). The rung of information describes the stage when investors together with a government agency communicate information about the project to the community, without any input nor feedback before going ahead with further action on the project. Arnstein further remarked that communities are frequently "manipulated" or merely consulted in the implementation of policies that directly affect them (Arnstein, 2015: 218).

5.5.5. Empowering community groups for effective participation

Based on intuition and hermeneutical analysis, personal biases featured prominently in most of the responses to the question that sought to know how the community groups were empowered for active engagement in project governance as stakeholders. The critical analysis of results revealed the following possible inferences: (1) conflict of interest exists between community interest groups and community leaders (2) despite the overseeing function of LOPPP, there are inconsistencies in the way the PHs transacted with the communities regarding empowerment (3) There are several unexplored areas in which the community could function. It seems possible that these results depend largely on the centrifugal forces that dominate the structural, social and political environment of the communities in terms of power struggles, resource control and customary sovereignty. Therefore, there is a need to establish a common front through which the aspirations of the communities are aggregated to determine their empowerment needs for the benefit of the majority of community members. This finding provides some support for the conceptual premise that "communities that lack social ties are more likely to require external support" (Markantoni *et al.*, 2018: 152). The external support in this regard is a necessary incentive that will assist them to realise their local capacities and skills to be able to participate actively in the governance of

projects in their domain as well as addressing their local challenges. Collaborative governance revolves around empowering the stakeholders in setting overall direction through policy process involvement to deliver policy outcomes, aims and objectives (De Schepper, Doods & Havendock 2014; El Gohary, 2006). Scholars who have made contributions to this perception maintain that public participation and stakeholder involvement in a policy like PPP is rooted in local capacity building and involvement (Sally & Rosemary, 2019; Kim, 2016; Choguill, 1996). Similarly, Imparato & Ruster (2003) and Desai (2002) express the view that empowerment of communities aids them to make meaningful contributions to issues of public concern as it affected them. Other throbbing questions that emerged from our findings and were to be answered include: (1) To what extent were the administrators willing to build local capacity towards empowerment? (2) What was the disposition of policy implementers and the PHs towards empowering the community for effective involvement? This study, however, found abundant room for progress towards determining how much empowerment of the host community would be required and the likely way it could be entrenched in the policy framework. Drawing from Arnstein's ladder philosophy, these findings conclude that citizen's empowerment starts on the partnership rung. The emphasis on citizenship empowerment is useful to the researcher because it allows the researcher to think through the position that whilst 'citizens' control remains elusive, active involvement beyond mere consultation is desirable for authentic participation in the infrastructural policy framework for PPP implementation.

Viewed theoretically, the finding demonstrates that the problem that informed this study lends some support to the views of the institutional analysts and development theorists. For instance, the IAD theorists believe that policy, a policy, good or bad is governed by institutional arrangement (Constantio *et al.*, 2019; Oliviera Cruz & Miranda Samento, 2019). Therefore, an effective and efficient institutional framework is *sin-qua-non* to a successful implementation of any government policy. The post-ante analysis of institutional arrangements that guide the implementation of PPP policy in Nigeria shows that the pattern of interaction and information flow between the action arena (where policy actors' roles are exemplified) and policy outcomes lacks the basic link of network governance. Going by institutional analysis and the development framework (IAD), the implementation of the National Policy on PPP is yet to be tailored in line with the dictates of institutional collaboration in the local context for a robust network collaborative framework.

Overall, this finding was an indicator that despite Nigeria's effort to embrace collaborative governance through PPP, the country has yet to adopt a more pragmatic approach and commitment to policy implementation in line with the perception of democratic governance theorists (Ansel & Gash, 2018; Bhoroma, 2018; Campbell & Im, 2016). The overall results of this chapter mirrored the general conclusion

of a study that was carried out by Sally & Rosemary (2018). The authors in their descriptive study found out the reason why over 40% of a community project in Kieni sub-county in Kenya failed during implementation. It identifies community awareness, community consultation, monitoring and evaluation and capacity building as the challenges. The insight gained from this current study suggests that the host communities currently remain non-partners or passive partners in the infrastructural governance of PPP project implementation, contrary to findings in civilized countries (Scherrer *et al.*, 2016) and against collaborative governance theoretical postulations. By implication, this finding demonstrates the possibility that the host communities shall continue to be at loggerheads with the PHs until their roles are clearly defined and institutionalised in the policy framework of NP4. The study confirms that PPP, as a policy instrument, will remain unpopular and lack the wider support from a wide spectrum of the society until the institutional framework is redesigned to promote network governance ideals. In general, the investigation provides a deeper insight that PPP can be used to harness support for local participation by bringing in the business community or, on the other hand, opinion leaders and other members of community groups. Therefore, this study helps to broaden the knowledge for policymakers that it is strategically important to identify a specific role for the host communities in the existing infrastructural governance arrangement and to institutionalise this within the PPP-PIF rather than leaving the issue of host community involvement to the discretion of the bureaucrats and the PHs. This conclusion is in line with the normative framework, which Arnstein's ladder of citizenship participation depicts.

Finally, it is important for the public managers (i.e. LOPPP) as “conveners” and “government actors” (Thomas & Scott, 2017: 200) to establish an institutional structure of community representation within the implementation framework of PPP policy in Nigeria. This will create a platform that will accommodate every stakeholder within the policy network rather than allowing the system to evolve a complex arrangement through field experience.

5.6 Summary of the chapter

This chapter gives both descriptive and inferential analysis of data gathered to ascertain whether or not the institutional framework for the implementation of NP4 facilitated the involvement of the members of the host communities. Data were gathered via quantitative and qualitative means. Data from the field survey were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistical methods. Content analysis shows that the institutional framework for PPP had no specialised role for the host communities; instead, it grants discretionary power to the MDAs and the private investors. Hence, the host communities could neither claim the right to nor make a meaningful impact on the activities of PPP in their domain. It means, therefore, that the institutionalised framework identified community relevance, but there is no established

role for the community in the entire framework. Both qualitative and quantitative data agree on the need to design an institutionalised framework with established roles and communication systems for the communities as stakeholders. Aside from establishing an effective and efficient framework, engaging a community in collaboration requires trust-building which should commence early in the project implementation. Therefore, the next chapter will analyse how the activities at the commencement of the PPP project implementation impact on the trust and confidence of the host communities towards effective involvement.

CHAPTER SIX

BUILDING TRUST AND SUPPORT FOR THE NP4 THROUGH THE REQUISITES OF EARLY COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

6.1 Introduction

Efforts were made in the last chapter to see how the institutional framework that established NP4 accommodates the community and created room for the host community involvement in the PPP projects. Findings revealed that much still has to be done to define the role of the community or its representatives. Based on the second research question, this chapter intends to ascertain the impact of early involvement or non-involvement of the communities on the implementation of the Policy on Public-Private Partnership and to establish the impact of it on trust and community support for NP4. The chapter is divided into sections with each section having sub-sections where necessary. The introductory section provides a brief overview of the construct of early involvement and the themes from the construct were analysed in the succeeding subsections. It then goes on to analyse both quantitative and qualitative data using the questions that emanate from the construct of early involvement. The latter part of the chapter discusses the findings which emerged from the analyses in line with theories and the literature. The chapter ends with a summary of findings.

6.2 Community involvement at the early stages

In line with the second theoretical construct of collaborative governance, the study intends to ascertain how early involvement impacted the trust and support for the projects by host communities. The aim is to determine the real situation regarding the extent to which the support institutions like LOPPP promote or retards shared jurisdiction and democratic ideals in the development of the infrastructural project at the initial stages of the PPP projects. Going by the tenets of the collaborative governance model, involvement at the early stage is paramount. In Nigeria, the initial stages of PPP Policy implementation are the stage of Project development and project procurement. There are emerging themes from the collaborative model and literature upon which some variables were derived to analyse early involvement as a construct of the community involvement in project implementation. These variables, together with the emerging themes from the ex-post field analysis, were categorised and presented in Table 6.1. The chapter analyses and discusses how the involvement or non-involvement of the communities at the outset of the PPP project

implementation impacts on the trust and community support for the NP4 based on the themes and emerging questions that were captured in the table.

Table 6.1. *The theme, key constructs and the emerging question of Objective Two*

KEY CONSTRUCT	EMERGING THEMES FROM LITERATURE	EMERGING QUESTIONS FROM THE SUB-THEMES (MODIFIED)
Engagement of the community at the initial stages of the project	Determining the initial stages of involvement Kiljn & Nederhand, 2016; Wiewora et al., 2016; D Schepper et al., 2014; Inne & Booher, 2003	How involved is the community in the project at the initial stage? - What factors are responsible for involvement and non-involvement? - At what stage should the community be involved in the process (Planning, designing, implementation, evaluation, or in all the stages)?
	Stakeholders Meeting Thomas & Scott, 2017; Kim, 2016; Ansell & Gash, 2008; Jamal & Getz, 1995	- Was there any meeting held with the community at the planning stage of the project? - Was there any institutionalised meeting arrangement and who acts as the convener of such meeting? - Do you think your community has better input that has assisted or could have benefited the project at the initialstage? - Do you have any dissatisfaction with the government or the company based on how the project commenced?
	Advocacy McCloskey et al., 2013; ICRC, 2003	- Has the government played the role of a good middleman? - Was there any form of advocacy, which was done personally to you or the community when the project was to commence?
	Early sensitisation, local education & enlightenment Ismail et al., 2019; Norton & Hughes, 2018; Parker, 2002	What can you say about the project? Do you understand the partnership arrangement? What is your opinion about the collaboration of public agencies with private firms in providing public infrastructure?

Source: Field survey, 2019

Table 6.1 vividly illustrates the emerging themes from the collaborative model and literature upon which some variables were derived to analyse early involvement as a construct of the community involvement in project implementation. The variables that emerged from collaborative governance and other scholarly works were listed and the researcher gathered both qualitative and quantitative data on these variables. The next section shall analyse data that were derived in respect of each of the themes to arrive at a valid conclusion.

6.2.1 Building trust and confidence through initial stage involvement

As mentioned in the review of literature, one of the principal themes of community involvement, based on the dictates of collaborative governance, is the early involvement of the people in the projects that affect their existence. This theme came up during a discussion with the Executive Secretary at LOPPP to find out how the communities were carried along at the outset of the project. Having highlighted the various stages viz: planning stage, project development stage, procurement stage, which is a stage of implementation and later, evaluation of the project, the Officer pointed out that as follows:

“....., we involved them from the beginning. You know we can not involve them at the initial stage when we do the preliminary works like the project feasibility, cost-benefit analysis. We can only involve them where the project has reached an advanced stage and we want to commence construction. We will need their support and we also need to consider their welfare as well” (OPPINT001, Field Survey, 2019)

The view expressed by the Public Officer was refuted by some discussants and interviewees who claimed that the government had been operating from backstage leaving the PHs to convey information to the community leaders as they saw fit.. They disputed that the government had not played its facilitative role in the entire process. Likewise, while responding to a question from the interviewer, the Officer stressed that the office recognised traditional institutions and that Office of PPP in Lagos State usually had prior discussions with the communities through their paramount rulers at the earliest possible stage. Below is the extract from his speech:

Both government and the investors must regard traditional institutions. That is why the Oba’s palace is the first point of call. Meetings are held to inform and educate them about the project and to solicit their cooperation. (OPPINT001, Field Survey, 2019)

This view, again, was faulted by a cross-section of the community. The group expressed the view that oftentimes, community leaders and opinion leaders were not during initial contact with the communities. Some community member queried that going to the paramount ruler left the other groups within the community in the dark. Some alleged that the paramount ruler, in most cases, shields the PHs from public accessibility. On the other hand, some alleged that some paramount rulers did not project overall community interests. More than one community was involved and the level at which the projects affected them varies, so there was always the need to discuss with them to work out how compensation would be paid and, where necessary, relocate affected communities. He remarked as well that:

“the private investors do not want to have problems with the host communities; hence, the government must come in to facilitate a synergetic relationship. It is an appropriate thing to do in a democratic dispensation”. (OPPINT001, Field Survey, 2019)

Findings all across the divisions regarding involvement at the early stage showed that the communities saw themselves as stakeholders because they saw their land as their stake in the project. One of the interviewees believed his community did not have to be involved in the planning phase, he pointed out that the community can only make a meaningful contribution at the stage of implementation. This was in line with the submission of the PPP official at the Office of PPP. Interviews and FGD were carried out in the three divisions to ascertain how the framework created an opportunity for the community to be actively involved through appropriate institutions. From the interview conducted in Badagry, the High Chief claimed it was not important to draw up a policy document with them, but he said they were quite satisfied with the paper presentation. During the FGD, they informed me that they were not involved in the drafting of the policy document nor project document therefore, they were not aware of the specific role they want their community members to play. The High Chief in Badagry pointed out during an interview that it was the initial consultation that won the support of the community when he said:

When these people [the PHs] came and told us of their plan and that they need land, we had to invite them for a talk. When I looked at the content and I saw that the state government was also involved, I was amazed and I thought to myself, this project must be supported.

(BADINT001, Field Study, 2019)

In some other communities, they were informed through an official letter “that a certain project is coming. Every community within a 5km radius from where the project is cited were all invited”. [IKODFGD03, Field study, 2019]. They explained what they wanted to do and that they wanted to ensure the safety of all community members. They did not need to be involved in drafting the preliminary paperwork, but they were satisfied with what was presented to them as a communal people

“Of course, we saw it. We are okay with it, but we cannot understand their motive until they start their operations. It looks good on paper and they have started well. We will only look at them and consider those areas that affect us. Then they can make amends where necessary”.

(BADINT001, Field Study, 2019)

The High Chief further explained that communities were able to build trust in them explaining that every instance of social cohesion was a by-product of trust. The officers at the LOPPP claimed that the interest of the communities was protected during the EIA process, and that, there was no need for the community to have doubts about government intentions in the conduct of EIA. Reacting to this statement during FGD, a discussant expressed their displeasure over the conduct of the EIA but concluded that his community was now better informed on how to take care of similar situations in the future. His exact words were:

“But now we know better. Before any negotiation is done now, we would engage the services of [our own] lawyers and other professionals”. (IKDFGD01, Field Study, 2019)

It is important to note that whenever there is a seeming structural imbalance in a relationship, the right way to redress the imbalance would be to increase the level of involvement of the disadvantaged actors (Carpentier & Dahlgren, 2011). Because of this, the questionnaires that were distributed aimed to elicit information from the community interest groups across all the divisions. Table 6.2 (below) captures the data obtained from the distributed questionnaires to ascertain how the interest groups perceived their community involvement at the initial stages.

Table 6.2. My community was well involved in the initial stages of the project

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD	D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	7	9	7	21	3	47
	% within location	14.9%	19.1%	14.9%	44.7%	6.4%	100%
	% within early community involvement	17.9%	17.3%	38.9%	67.7%	50.0%	32.2%
Ikorodu	Count	28	14	3	5	0	50
	% within location	56.0%	28.0%	6.0%	10.0%	0.0%	100%
	% within early community involvement	71.8%	26.9%	16.7%	16.1%	0.0%	34.2%
Epe	Count	4	29	8	5	3	49
	% within location	8.2%	59.2%	16.3%	10.2%	6.1%	100%
	% within early community involvement	10.3%	55.8%	44.4%	16.1%	50.0%	33.6%
Total	Count	39	52	18	31	6	146
	% within location	26.7%	35.6%	12.3%	21.2%	4.1%	100%
	% within early community involvement	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NOTE: SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, SWA= Somewhat Agree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree							
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2=60.447$, $df=8$, $p=0.000$)							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

Results in Table 6.2 show that there are variations in terms of responses. Results from Badagry revealed that a little above half of the respondents agreed in varying degrees (44.7% agreed while 6.4% strongly agreed) with the statement. 14.9% of the respondents somewhat agreed that their community was well-involved in the initial stages of the project, while those who disagreed represent 34% of the total respondents from the division. However, the responses at Ikorodu and Epe followed a similar trend that contradicts the result of Badagry. Over 60% of the respondents disagreed that their community was well involved in Ikorodu and Epe, while 16.3% and 6.0% somewhat agreed in the divisions respectively. Less than 20% of the respondents agreed that their community was well involved in the project at the initial stages.

A Chi-Squared test was carried out to know if the views of the respondents were associated with their locations. Based on this Chi-square test result ($\chi^2=60.447$, $df=8$, $p=0.000$), this finding shows that the findings cannot be attributed to mere chance variations. It implies that the views expressed by respondents were largely dependent on the location. The result implied that the level of agreement or disagreement of the respondents to the statement would suggest that their community was well involved in the initial stages of the project as determined by the project location. From the cross-tabulation analysis, Badagry recorded a high rate (67.7%) of those who agreed with the statement than others. Majority of respondents who disagreed (71.8%) were from Ikorodu.

Analysis of both qualitative and quantitative results reveals that the participants expressed common views that suggest that early involvement is important in building trust and support. In their various accounts of various events surrounding the early contact with the community, the PHs together with the government representatives made were in the community at the initial stages. However, their presence was just to inform the community of their intention and not to engage the communities. There is a correlation between the responses from both sets of data which suggest that the PHs attempted to carry the people along at the initial stages, but the government did not play a facilitative role as ought to. Data from Epe indicated that the PHs started well but derailed along the line. They pointed out that the relationship started was cordial but went frosty after the project commenced operations. They claimed that, with time, the community was not carried along again and the MoU signed was not honoured. Overall, Badagry communities had a better relationship with the PHs than others at the initial stages. It is, however, important to note that the project was also at the procurement stage. In Ikorodu, the community was not involved at all, which invariably make the community to lack trust in the project.

So far, this sub-section analysed how the project was in its initial stages in the communities. The next section examines how the community groups rate their level of involvement in the PPPs projects at the outset.

6.2.2 Early participation ratings by community interest groups

The institutional framework that established the PPP ought to take care of mistrust and disaffection if strictly followed. The discussants blamed the government. They claimed that they operated as if they were never to develop any framework or blueprint. From the interaction, the communities seemed not to have adequate knowledge of any framework upon which the relationship was established. They are, however, monitoring activities at the project site, and they are always ready to agitate for their rights when necessary. They needed to ask whether there was any agreement or legal arrangement for a mutually beneficial relationship or for resolving conflicts in respect of how the communities were to be involved in the entire process. In Badagry and Ikorodu MoUs were drawn up and signed by different parties to the project. The

MoU was to ensure that apart from the payment of compensation for the land and the money to be paid for their crops that were to be destroyed. The community representatives expressed the view that the communities affected by the projects should be stakeholders in the project. The FGD at the communities showed that both the private partner and the government have tried to bring the community on board in the three communities. They, however, agreed that there were areas of conflict. The interviewee in Badagry remarked:

“Yes, there are people who have serious complaints concerning their ancestral shrine and their heritage to be affected which called for serious discussion.” (BADINT001, Field Study, 2019)

The question was asked whether or not there was any agreement or legal arrangement for a mutually beneficial relationship in respect of how the communities were to be involved in the entire process. It was gathered in Badagry and Ikorodu that MoUs were drawn up and signed by the different parties to the project. The MoU was to ensure that apart from the payment of compensation for the land and the money to be paid for their crops that were to be destroyed. The community representatives expressed the view that the communities affected by the projects should be stakeholders in the project.

Having established that no framework had been established for the role for the communities at the LOPPP, there was a key principle in the ICRC policy document that recognises public interests and the use of host communities as a key strategy that must be incorporated from the outset of the PPP projects. The researcher distributed questionnaires to the various community groups across the divisions to find out their perceptions about the community groups involved at the outset of the project. They were asked to rate the manner of entry based on the way the communities were involved. Table 6.3 shows the overall responses across the divisions.

Table 6.3: How would you rate the level of community participation at the commencement of the project?

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	VP	P	SWG	G	E	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	6	11	7	14	9	47
	% within location	12.8%	23.4%	14.9%	29.8%	19.1%	100%
	% within involvement at the outset	33.3%	16.9%	25.9%	53.8%	90.0%	32.2%
Ikorodu	Count	9	35	1	4	1	50
	% within location	18.0%	70.0%	2.0%	8.0%	2.0%	100%
	% within involvement at the outset	50.0%	53.8%	3.7%	15.4%	10.0%	34.2%
Epe	Count	3	19	19	8	0	49
	% within location	6.1%	38.8%	38.8%	16.3%	0.0%	100%
	% within involvement at the outset	16.7%	29.2%	70.4%	30.8%	0.0%	33.6%
Total	Count	18	65	27	26	10	146
	% within location	12.3%	44.5%	18.5%	17.8%	6.8%	100%
	% within involvement at the outset	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NOTE: VP=Very Poor, P= Poor, SWG= Somewhat Good, G= Agree, E= Excellent							
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2= 55.790$, $df=8$, $p=0.00$)							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

Table 6.3 shows the data which indicates how the respondents rate their involvement at the commencement of the project. They were requested to use a 5-point rating scale from very poor (1), somewhat good (3) to excellent (5). Results from Badagry show that 19.1% rated their initial involvement as excellent while 29.8% rated the early involvement to be good. About 15% somewhat agreed it was good. 23.4% rated their initial participation as bad while 12% rated it as very poor. At Ikorodu, there is a consensus on the poor rating aside from the few respondents (10%) who felt the initial involvement should have a pass mark; a significant number of the respondent (70%) rated the initial stage involvement of the community by PHs poor and another 18% rated it very poor. A similar trend was followed at Epe but to a lesser magnitude. Aside from the 38.8 percent and 16.3 percent who rated the performance as somewhat good and good respectively, the rest who constituted about 45% of the respondents rated the initial involvement as poor.

A Chi-Squared test was carried out to determine if the views of the respondents were associated with their locations. The Chi-squared test result ($\chi^2= 55.790$, $df = 8$, $p = 0.00$) shows that the results in the data did not just come about by chance. Rather, the location of the respondents had a significant impact on how the community groups rate their community involvement at the initial stages. The result implied that 90% of the people that rated the relationship excellent were members of Badagry community groups. Also, the within-group rating shows that about 70% of those who somewhat agreed were based in Epe communities while over half of those who rated the relationship poorly were from Ikorodu.

The quantitative data reflect that community groups in Badagry express satisfaction with the level of involvement at the initial stages, unlike Epe and Ikorodu. However, some discussants had a different opinion even in Badagry. There were also shades of opinion expressed in Ikorodu and Epe that suggest that the PHs operated without any guidelines or framework at the initial stages while some communities like Badagry had a relatively good relationship at the initial stages. Epe respondents initially gave high positive ratings but, most agreements reached were not honoured by the PHs at the commencement of the project. Lastly, Ikorodu communities were outrightly neglected at the initial stages. Synthesising both qualitative and quantitative data results, it can be concluded that there were variations in the level of interactions at the initial stages depending on the location and on the project involved.

6.2.3 Awareness of early participatory consultations

Central to the investigation is a need to investigate the level of awareness of community members regarding the PPP project generally and how early they were consulted for participation. The question was therefore asked concerning the opinion of community leaders about the effectiveness of the collaboration of public agencies with private firms in providing public infrastructure. The field surveys revealed that in some localities, the people had very scant information about the project at the initial stages. When a public official at the LOPPP was asked about the effort being made to raise the consciousness of community members at the initial stages, the bureaucrat responded that:

PPP is no longer a hidden concept. The public is aware that the government is now involving the private sector in building infrastructure because of the large capital required. Some of the public infrastructures are now being operated with the involvement of the private sector and the government is raising the consciousness of the people in this regard. There is a Public Information Office that is doing much to raise awareness of the people (OPPPINT001, Field survey, 2019).

The survey, however, revealed that some community members still either see the project as a government project while some others see the project as a purely private project. A discussant said during the FGD that as a matter of fact, “the structure of IPP was not initially known to the community, the thinking was that the project was purely a government project” (IKDFGD02, field survey, 2019). They held the notion that it was a government programme. The project had commenced before they observed that the operations appeared more like a private enterprise. At Ikorodu, the communities felt they could not do much in the initial stages because they were not adequately briefed about the project. A discussant remarked that “we were left in darkness with everything they are doing. They are only relating with the king”. (EPEDINT01,

Field Survey, 2019). A discussant gave remarkable information as to the major cause of initial neglect when he said that the preliminary works were usually handled by consultants.

Sometimes, those consultants do not go to the right people like the community leaders, they usually do their underground investigation and write a report which the government uses to do the preliminary document. The report is written to suit their purpose and the government would just approve. (IKDFGD01, field survey, 2019)

Interestingly, both the interviewee and discussant at Badagry held that the ATM Terminals executives held a public meeting with the community groups at the initial stages. However, the meeting was poorly organised, and it ended in a chaotic situation. This was a result of the pre-information that the PHs had gone far with the preliminary work without carrying community active groups along. They were only working in consultation with the community leaders and traditional rulers. The anomaly creates a negative impact the trust and confidence that the people had in the project. It was only in Lekki that stakeholder meetings were held regularly in line with the MoU jointly signed. It was observed that the discussants expressed diverse views on the same issue during the discussion. Some Chiefs at the low echelon of authority saw their senior heads as greedy and unrepresentative as they sometimes parley with the private investors for ‘goodies’ of interest to them.

Efforts were made to generate data from the cross-section of community groups to ascertain the level to which they are aware of the relationship between community leaders and other stakeholders. Table 6.4 (p.165) records the qualitative data which show the level of awareness about the joint stakeholders’ meeting held in respect of the project. The responses were skewed towards disagreement in the other locations aside from Badagry.

Table 6.4: *I am aware of stakeholders' meeting involving the community and key stakeholders*

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD	D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	0	3	14	26	4	47
	% within location	0.0%	6.4%	29.8%	55.3%	8.5%	100.0%
	% within meeting involvement	0.0%	8.3%	29.8%	63.4%	100%	32.2%
Ikorodu	Count	8	4	27	11	0	50
	% within location	16.0%	8.0%	54.0%	22.0%	0.0%	100%
	% within meeting involvement	44.4%	11.1%	57.4%	26.8%	0.0%	34.2%
Epe	Count	10	29	6	4	0	49
	% within location	20.4%	59.2%	12.2%	8.2%	0.0%	100%
	% within meeting involvement	55.6%	80.6%	12.8%	9.8%	0.0%	33.6%
Total	Count	18	36	47	41	4	146
	% within location	12.3%	24.7%	32.2%	28.1%	2.7%	100%
	% within meeting involvement	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NOTE: SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, SWA= Somewhat Agree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree							
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2=86.567$, $df=8$, $p=0.00$)							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

Table 6.4 shows the response to the question asked to determine the level of awareness that there was a joint meeting to be held in respect of the project. Results from Badagry show that most of the respondents agreed in varying degrees (55.3% agreed while 8.5% strongly agreed). 29.8% of the respondents somewhat agreed that they were quite aware of the stakeholders' meeting whilst a negligible 6% said they were not aware. However, the data obtained at Ikorodu reveals that more than half of the respondents (54%) somewhat agreed. Moreover, the percentage of respondents who agreed and those who disagreed were almost the same in proportion. While the former was 22% the latter shows varying degrees of disagreement. Those who strongly disagreed were 16%, the remaining 8% constituted those who disagreed. In Epe, the data shows that most of the respondents agreed in varying degrees (28.1% agreed while 2.7% strongly agreed). 32.2% of the respondents somewhat agreed that they were quite aware of the stakeholders' meeting while 12.3 percent and 24.7 percent strongly agreed and agreed respectively.

A Chi-Squared test was carried out to determine whether the views of the respondents had any association with the respondents' location. The Chi-squared result ($\chi^2=86.567$, $df=8$, $p=0.00$) provides clear evidence that the location of the participants had an impact on the views which were expressed rather than attributing their findings to chance. This is reflected in the manner in which they agreed and disagreed with the statement by respondents that they were aware of the dialogue between their leaders and other stakeholders across the locations. For instance, all the respondents who strongly agreed that there was awareness came

from Badagry. The majority who disagreed (over 80%) were respondents from Epe. In conclusion, the results were comparatively dispersed based on the location of the respondents.

Overall, the level of awareness is low in certain communities as reflected during the FGD. Some communities saw the projects as government projects while some initially perceived the project as a private concern. Nevertheless, there seems to be an increased awareness and sensitisation. Furthermore, there were inconsistencies in the relationships of the PHs with the host communities. While some PHs created a community-wide awareness that launched their arrival in the communities. Others rode on the back of the government representatives to start their operations. The investigation also shows that, in some other communities, the PHs only established early contact with the paramount rulers. Consequently, other community group leaders felt aggrieved that they were neglected and this generated conflicts in the way. All these culminated in the poor rating as shown in Epe and Ikorodu in Table 6.4 (p.165) because the majority of the community groups were not carried along in the stakeholders' meeting held with the paramount ruler at the outset of the project. Generally, the next sub-section analyses how activities in the early stages of the project assisted in building trust and community support for the PPP project.

6.2.4. Building trust and confidence through early advocacy and consultation

Findings reveal that advocacies were carried out across the communities at the inception of the projects, to an extent, and the investors and government promised that all issues raised by the communities would be attended to. Like the resettlement plan, job opportunity, environmental safety and so on. Interview investigations and the FGD show that the private investors of the project paid advocacy visits to the paramount ruler and all the white cap chiefs. According to the interviews held with one of the high chiefs, the 12 communities affected by the project in Badagry Division were invited to a town hall meeting where they discussed the entire project. The subjects of the discussion centered on how the communities would benefit from the projects socially and economically. He pointed out that it was tough in the initial stages for the communities to embrace the team but after much deliberation and sensitisation, the project was welcomed by all the community except the two communities who were not comfortable with the resettlement plan.

“We held a town hall meeting together with all the Baales of various communities affected by the project. They even distributed questionnaires. They sought the consent of the traditional rulers. The project is meant to be the largest public-private initiative in Nigeria, if not Africa. All the seven white cap chiefs of Badagry kingdom were also consulted. (BADINT01, Field Survey, 2019.)

The discussion came up during an interview at the LOPPP and the interviewee said that there was “one form of resistance or the other but it was the duty of the government’s representative to prevent problems or any form of confrontation” (OPPIN001). Similarly, during the FGD, discussants did not mince their words about their non-inclusion and their denial of access to information. The discussion further revealed that there were areas of conflict and disagreements in the process. For instance, due to the nature of the projects, there was a large expanse of land required for Lekki Seaport/Free Trade Zone and the Badagry Deep Seaport project and a few communities were not interested in releasing their lands for the project.

There were initial controversies regarding ownership of the seashore and with regards to the certificate of ownership. According to the PHs, full operation of the seaport was to commence in 2020 yet some indicators show that the proposed commencement date is not feasible because there are a lot that is yet to be done like paying compensation on land and agricultural products to be destroyed, issues of relocating the villagers and payment of compensation. The private sectors involved are conglomerates. (BADINT001, Field Survey, 2019)

As shown in the quote, the development generated further negotiations which were later resolved through much advocacy. For further investigation, members of the interest groups were given the questionnaires to ascertain the impact of early involvement or non-involvement of the community members and groups in the implementation of NP4 and how this impacted on trust and community support of the people for the policy. Table 6.5 shows the analyses of responses from across the divisions.

Table 6.5: The project was well received by the community groups due to the advocacy of the PHs and involvement at the initial stages

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD	D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	2	8	11	24	2	47
	% within location	4.3%	17.0%	23.0%	51.0%	4.3%	100%
	% within reception due to advocacy	15.4%	42.1%	19.0%	48.0%	33.3%	32.2%
Ikorodu	Count	10	1	37	2	0	50
	% within location	20.0%	2.0%	74.0%	4.0%	0.0%	100%
	% within reception due to advocacy	76.9%	5.3%	63.8%	4.0%	0.0%	34.2%
Epe	Count	1	10	10	24	4	49
	% within location	2.0%	20.4%	20.4%	49.0%	8.2%	100%
	% within reception due to advocacy	7.7%	52.6%	17.2%	48.0%	66.7%	33.6%
Total	Count	13	19	58	50	6	146
	% within location	8.9%	13.0%	39.0%	34.0%	4.1%	100%
	% within reception due to advocacy	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NOTE: SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagreed, SWA= Somewhat Agreed, A= Agreed, SA= Strongly Agreed							
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2=64.846$, $df=8$, $p=0.00$)							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

Table 6.5 shows the data derived to know the impact of advocacy on the communities at the initial stages. Quite a significant number of respondents at Ikorodu somewhat agreed to a very large extent. 74% of the respondents somewhat agreed that the advocacy carried out somehow impacted the way the project was received in the initial stages. The respondents that disagreed were a few across the division. Over half of the respondent agreed that the advocacy that was done at the initial stages and this had a significant impact on the way the projects were received by the active groups within the community in both Badagry and Epe Divisions. A little above 20% of the respondents disagreed in all the divisions. The Epe community groups somewhat agreed to a large extent that the initial advocacy had any significant impact on the initial stages of the project.

A Chi-Squared test was carried find-out to if the location of the respondents has any influence on their views. Going by the Chi-squared test results ($\chi^2=64.846$, $df=8$, $p=0.00$), it is evident from the result that the data obtained in the survey cannot be attributable to chance. The result largely depended on factors that were dominant in each of the locations of the projects in the initial stages. Hence, the majority (76.9%) of those who strongly disagreed that the project was well-received due to advocacy in the initial stages were from Ikorodu while most of those who strongly agreed (66.7%) were based in Epe. The synthesis of both data sets shows, to some extent, that advocacies were carried out by the PHs and some of the government representatives. The mean responses show that the extent to which the people agreed with the notion that the project was received in all the communities due to the advocacies was relatively high. There is evidence that gave popular support to community involvement at the early stages of PPP project implementation. Notwithstanding, this field interaction reveals that there were shades of opinion regarding the stage that was necessary to engage the communities. Because of this, an investigation was carried out to analyse respondents' views about community early involvement. The various perceptions in respect of this debate were analysed in the section that follows.

6.2.5 Early involvement debates: Is initial stage involvement necessary or not?

The debate over the relevance of early involvement in policy implementation came up during an interview and at the FGD. A common view expressed by the interviewees and even the majority of the discussants was that it would be necessary for the community to be “involved from the beginning and throughout all the stages” of project implementation (EPEINT001, Field Survey, 2019). Nevertheless, divergent opinions were also expressed by a few interviewers and participants in the community as well as from government institutions. The extract below shows the opinion of the administrator at the LOPPP in respect to this theme:

The community must be involved at the initial stage for them to raise issues of concern that may not be part of the original plan....

The community should not necessarily be involved throughout the process. Once they are aware of what government wants to do and they know it would be beneficial to them. There is no need for further involvement once there is an agreeable action plan and areas of conflict are ironed out (OOPPINT001)

The above extract goes on to say that the LOPPP recognised the need to involve communities early enough in the project. Notwithstanding this, while responding to the question which was asked to establish when the Public Officer considered it to be most appropriate to involve the community, the office, contradictorily commented that it ‘all depends’

..... at the planning, the community does not necessarily need to be involved because, at this stage, the blueprint of what is to be done will be made. If they are ready with the blueprint, it is at the stage of implementation that the community can make a meaningful contribution. (BADFGD002, Field survey, 2019)

The evidence further suggests that Badagry Division had a reasonable level of involvement right from the procurement process of the Badagry Deep Seaport project; surprisingly, however, some respondents considered early involvement of communities not necessary (BADINT01; BADFGD02). A similar opinion was expressed in Epe Division (EPEFGD05). Though the opinion is a minority opinion, the opinion that communities did not have to be involved at the planning phase, gave some insight into the fact that the community can only make a meaningful contribution at the stage of implementation. This was in line with the submission of the PPP official at the Office of PPP. The opinion was not a popular opinion as the vast majority expressed a view that it was necessary to involve the community early enough. The relationship between the Badagry was strengthened through initial involvement and negotiation. The interview with the focal person revealed that “it was like a game” at the initial stage. In his words, he said: “.... even when we saw government officials with them, we still had to query them and discuss at length until we became satisfied.” He remarked (BADDINT01)

Some discussants at the community levels alluded to this view. One participant believes that it “may not be right to start making consultation with the community before the government can do whatever it feels right. The government only needs to take the initiative and put the interests of the community in mind” (EPEFGD05, Field survey, 2019). The discussant believes that early involvement of the community might not bring better results because some community members might have divergent views and have a low level of maturity to make meaningful contributions. He said community members might start raising issues that would not allow the project to go ahead. A single individual may hold the entire project to ransom (*He cited a case of a community project that failed in the course of wanting to protect every interest*). He, therefore, concluded that, in a bid to settle differences and opposition, the project might be delayed unnecessarily. Although this view did not receive popular support during the discussion, other interviewees

prefer that the communities are involved at the stage of planning and they should be adequately involved in the conduct of the EIA and SIA. Item 4 (c & d) of the MoU states that:

“Lagos State Government shall ensure that the legally mandated LFTZ’s EIA and SIA are fully carried out and that the outcome shall be presented promptly to the affected villages and communities for their reviews and comments.”

To elicit a wider opinion from the active groups within the community in the debate, responses from the distributed questionnaires were captured, as shown in Table 6.6. The respondents largely disagreed with the opinion that the government did not need to involve the community in the initial stages.

Table 6.6: It is not necessary to involve the community in the project at the initial stages

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD	D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	17	11	1	9	9	47
	Location	36.2%	23.4%	2.1%	19.1%	19.1%	100%
	% within early involvement debate	23.0%	33.3%	25.0%	64.3%	42.9%	32.2%
Ikorodu	Count	31	7	1	2	9	50
	% within location	62.0%	14.0%	2.0%	4.0%	18.0%	100%
	% within early involvement debate	41.9%	21.2%	25.0%	14.3%	42.9%	34.2%
Epe	Count	26	15	2	3	3	49
	% within location	53.1%	30.6%	4.1%	6.1%	6.1%	100%
	% within early involvement debate	35.1%	45.5%	50.0%	21.4%	14.3%	33.6%
Total	Count	74	33	4	14	21	146
	% within location	50.7%	22.6%	2.7%	9.6%	14.4%	100%
	% within early involvement debate	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NOTE: SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagreed, SWA= Somewhat Agreed, A= Agreed, SA= Strongly Agreed							
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2=17.043$, $df=8$, $p=0.03$)							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

In Badagry, for instance, over half of the community members (60%) disagreed in varying degrees. The number recorded in Epe and Ikorodu was relatively higher at 76% and 80.7% respectively disagreed. Less than 5% of the respondents somewhat agreed across the division. While the respondents that did not see the need for early involvements of the community were about 20% in Ikorodu and Epe. However, 19.1% each strongly agreed and agreed that it was not necessary to involve the communities at the initial stages. Although, the number is not up to people that disagreed, the number is still significant.

A Chi-Squared test was carried out to ascertain if the locations of the respondents had any influence on their views. Based on the Chi-square test result ($\chi^2=17.043$, $df=8$, $p=0.03$), it is obvious that the responses across study locations cannot be attributed to chance. Rather, the result indicates that the location of respondents did have a significant effect on responses obtained on whether it was necessary or not to

involve the community at the initial stages. Surprisingly, the majority of those who strongly agreed that it was not necessary to involve the community was from Badagry community groups (64.3%), contrasting results were obtained across other study locations.

It is apparent from the above analysis that a range of responses was elicited in response to the question of when it was necessary to involve the community. The most striking result to emerge from the data was, while it was significant to involve the community early enough, there were still contradictory pieces of evidence that suggest that some community members did not consider the time of involvement to be of any significance. Interestingly, Badagry recorded the earliest involvement amongst the selected PPP project implementation respondents. Notwithstanding this, some community members in the affected Badagry communities still expressed the opinion that it is only important that the community should be involved. One of the participants felt that the impact of the community involvement might not be felt at the planning stage but that it should rather, be at the implementation stages. This view seemed to have the support of most community groups if this position was juxtaposed with the responses from questionnaires that were gathered in Badagry. These results were unexpected if we compare the data in Table 6.4 (p.165) and Table 6.6 (171). The evidence from the results failed to show that there existed an association between early involvement and community support for the project in Badagry. However, if one compares the result of Badagry with the few participants with similar perceptions in Epe with the overall results, the general conclusion appeared to justify the need for early involvement. Although there seems to be a weak link between early involvement and community support and trust as shown by quantitative and qualitative data obtained from Badagry. However, results from other divisions demonstrated that early involvement could facilitate trust and influence community support for the PPP projects.

6.3 Matrix analysis for qualitative data using categorised themes

For a lucid visual and logical presentation of qualitative data, a matrix was generated. At a glance, the matrix analysis of qualitative data in the Matrix 6.1 illustrates the data that was generated based on the themes relating to early-stage community involvement in the project. It is evident from the matrix that the values ascribed to various themes vary based on the approaches adopted in project locations as obtained through the interview as well as the FGD. While there was uniformity in responses in the two approaches (FGD and Interviews), variations were sometimes observed. For instance, the responses of the participants to issues that emanate from the advocacies reveal that more advocacy was done in Badagry than in other sites as confirmed by both the FGD and the interview. Nevertheless, data gathered in Lekki communities reveals that advocacy was partially done at the initial stages as against what was gathered during the interview. The varied responses between the interviewees and those of the discussants suggest that the

community traditional rulers with whom most interviews were held and some of the community leaders that were involved in the discussions responded to issues based on their level of involvement and information at their disposal. However, the thoughts were articulated, summarised and synthesised to reduce the volume of data based on categorical themes and sub-themes to generate the matrix. The matrices (pp. 173 & 174) illustrate the aggregates from the wider spectrum of responses from the community. The responses were articulated and reflected on the matrices as follows:

Matrix 6.1. Analysis of qualitative data on early involvement using categorised themes

THEMES/SUB-THEMES	EARLY-STAGE INVOLVEMENT	RELEVANT QUOTES /FIELD SOURCES
Involving communities at the outset	The view of LOPPP and the involvement of the communities at the initial stages	<p><i>-We involved them from the beginning. (OPPINT01)</i></p> <p><i>- Our communities were well engaged at the initial stages (BADINT01; BADFGD04).</i></p> <p><i>- At the initial stages, they came with the juicy offer and they expressed willingness to cooperate with us to do a lot of things, but the reverse is the case now (EPEINT01)</i></p>
Initial Stakeholder Meetings	Was there any form of an initial meeting involving every stakeholder	<p><i>-A town-hall meeting was held involving all stakeholders (BADINT01; BADFGD04)</i></p> <p><i>-They held a series of meeting with us at the planning stage of the project (EPEINT01)</i></p> <p><i>-They had gone far with the project before we were involved (IKDFGD05)</i></p> <p><i>- They relate more with the traditional rulers and neglect the community (EPPFGD03)</i></p>
Conduct of ESIA	How were the EIA and SIA conducted? What role did the community play?	<p><i>Some professionals were contracted to do the ELA with local interest (OPPINT001)</i></p> <p><i>-The ELA did not involve us. We were only briefed that it was okay without any adverse environmental impact (IKDFGD05; EPEDFGD2)</i></p> <p><i>-Our youths were engaged for enumeration, evaluation and ELA assessment.</i></p>
Advocacy at the initial stage	How was the advocacy done? What impact does it make? Did the advocacy build trust and support of the communities for the project?	<p><i>-The way the PPP projects are structured, the community only needs to be involved in the area of advocacy. They need to know the relevance of the project (OPPINT001)</i></p> <p><i>-There has not been a serious problem even at the initial stages due to what I earlier referred to as advocacy. OPPINT001</i></p> <p><i>- any area where there are agitation and conflicts, it may be that the advocacy was not properly done at the initial states (OPPINT001)</i></p> <p><i>-The project promoters failed to mobilize community support at the initial stages rather than relating to the community they were relating with traditional rulers to speak on their behalf (EPEFGD01)</i></p> <p><i>-PPP is just about creating an opportunity for the few privileged the heritage of the community involved was stylishly privatized through supposed PPP ideology. Most things done were not part of the arrangement with the people, but they cannot complain because the government was directly or indirectly involved. (IKDFGD03)</i></p>
Early involvement debate	Is there a need for the community to be involved in the early stages of policy implementation?	<p><i>-We may not involve them at the initial stage when we do the preliminary works...They only need to be involved at the commencement of the project (OPPINT001)</i></p> <p><i>-Community do not necessarily need to be involved in the planning phase (BADINT01; BADFGD02)</i></p> <p><i>-Government only needs to take initiative and put the interests of the community in mind" (EPEFGD05)</i></p>
Early sensitisation, education & enlightenment	How much information and education were carried out to sensitise the local people?	<p><i>- Meetings are held to inform and educate them about the project and to solicit their cooperation (OPPINT01).</i></p> <p><i>-There were advocacy visits to the paramount ruler and all the white cap chiefs by ATM terminals (the handlers of the project). We held a town hall meeting together. They even distributed questionnaires (BADINT01)</i></p> <p><i>-They discuss local community involvement in terms of employment & financial dividends. All the communities were glad to be part of the project except one or two (BADINT01)</i></p> <p><i>Initially, we thought the project was purely government project (IKDFGD02)</i></p>

Matrix 6.2. Summary of qualitative data on early involvement (quantifiable matrix).

Categorised themes	Badagry	Epe	Ikorodu	Badagry	Epe	Ikorodu
	Focus group Discussion			In-depth Interviews		
Initial Stage Involvement	Focus group Discussion			In-depth Interviews		
Level of advocacy carried out at the initial stages	3	1	1	3	2	1
Community mobilization/Enlightenment	2	2	2	2	2	1
Involvement rating & evaluation	3	3	2	2	2	2
Trust and confidence building through advocacy	2	2	1	3	2	0
Stakeholders pre-meetings	2	2	2	3	2	2
Resettlement Action & Planning	3	2	0	3	2	0
Legend: Existent (E)= 3; Partially-Existent (2)= 2;Not Yet Established(NYE) = 1 Non Existence (NE)= 0						

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

Given the foregoing, therefore, the study attempted to determine the role early involvement played in building trust and community support for the project at the initial stage. The data gathered during interviews and the FGD reveals that community members do not have adequate knowledge about the PPP projects except those that are actively involved whose knowledge was also seen to be limited. The perception of PPP was not clear to most of the community members especially at Ikorodu and Epe who were not engaged at the prior stage. Although some of the participants were conscious of the fact that the project involved private investors they were also aware that implementation was undertaken with government support or some form of involvement. Interviewees at Epe (Lekki Port/LFTZ) and Badagry exhibited a significant level of awareness about the project. They appreciated the importance of the partnership. The knowledge expressed was based on their interactions and consultation at the initial stages. During the FGD, the larger percentage of the discussants appeared to have limited information and had received limited updates regarding the projects. Rather than asking questions, they were rather docile and full of complaints and internal conflicts with the investors and their promoters i.e. the government.

From the statistical analysis, quantitative data obtained from across the community groups showed that the respondents in all the divisions somewhat agreed on most items relating to the initial stage involvement of the communities in the PPP infrastructural projects. The extent to which the people agreed with the notion that the project was positively received in all the communities due to advocacies and initial stage involvement is relatively high with a low mean response, but, the communities did somewhat agree. All the communities largely disagreed with the opinion that the government did not need to involve the community at the initial stages. This received a high response rate across the division. The response reflected that the respondents considered community participation at the commencement of the project as somehow good and acceptable. The Chi-square test showed that responses across the divisions were statistically significant i.e. they were not explainable by chance, and that the location of the project was a likely factor influencing the results. When data in Tables 6.2 to 6.6 were compared with the matrix table, Badagry had the highest response rate in both quantitative and qualitative analysis while Ikorodu recorded the least. The analysis further revealed that Badagry has the highest acceptance levels for early involvement as a factor that builds trust and confidence as a pre-condition for community involvement in NP4 implementation. Therefore, there is a positive correlation between the results obtained from the two sets of data.

In this section, an attempt was made to analyse the data obtained from both qualitative and quantitative inquiries. Findings were synthesised and various results of quantitative data were cross tabulated to find out the degree of association in results based on the locations. Results that were found in the sub-sections will be discussed and aligned with the literature under discussion of findings in the next section.

6.4 Discussion of findings

Having presented the data obtained from the field and having analysed the same in the previous section. This section integrates the findings and broadly discusses issues that emerged from the analysis earlier presented in line with the objective that aimed to examine how the PPP-PIF of Lagos State policy accommodates the host communities in the projects infrastructural governance. The themes that were analysed in the preceding sections are now highlighted and discussed in line with the theoretical postulates guiding the study.

6.4.1 Building Trust and Community Support through early involvement

The objective of this chapter was to analyse how early involvement or non-involvement impacted the trust and support of community members and this impacted in turn on the ability to garner

support for the project. The study found out that some communities were involved earlier than others. The findings suggest that the PHs of the Badagry Deep Seaport Project attracted more support because they involved the communities in all of its activities right from the outset of the project. Further investigation revealed that the rate of resentment, suspicion and conflict were higher in other communities that were not actively involved in the initial stages. Community leaders, for instance, demonstrated that they knew nothing until the project had commenced before they were called for a meeting. Overall, the evidence from this study demonstrates that the communities that expressed trust and confidence in the project were the communities that experienced a good initial involvement by the PHs at the outset of the project. The finding of this current study is consistent with those prior studies that have noted the importance of early involvement (Norton & Hughes, 2018; Stafford, 2014). According to Norton & Hughes, early engagement facilitates efficient and effective planning for all parties within an implementation framework. Qualitative pre-application discussion "enables better coordination between public and private resources and improved outcomes for the community" (Norton & Hughes, 2018: 29-30). Using the "controversy Local Benefits Matrix" as a tool, Stafford argued that early engagement of the communities to identify local benefits reduces the cost of implementing infrastructural projects quite significantly. The key thing is to earn their trust by demonstrating commitments to their views no matter how insignificant they seem to be.

Contrary to expectation, this study made a shocking discovery that the policy document for the implementation of PPP recognised the relevance of the civil society groups when it states:

"the government will ensure that representative of civil societies, investors and contracting organisations contribute to the effectiveness of the government investment strategy and institutional framework (ICRC. 2013:15)

However, the extent to which this had to be pursued by the administrators was not defined in the policy framework. The enforcement was left to the discretion of the bureaucrats. Therefore, the inclination of the bureaucrats in the office that oversaw PPP project implementation, LOPPP, determined the level of community involvement. Although, findings from previous studies established that the attitude of bureaucrats towards community participation rather than being symbiotic has remained lopsided. (Mapfumo & Mutereko, 2020; Eckerd & Heidelberg, 2020; King *et al.*, 1999). Policy analysts have consistently maintained that it is important for citizens for whom a policy is meant to take care of to be well informed of all aspects of the policy. Hence, Kweit & Kweit wrote that, in an ideal democratic setting, the people determine where they want to go and the bureaucrats must get them there. (Kweit & Kweit, 1986: 25). The argument of Kweit & Kweit

was that it would be irrational to detach the citizens from any policy that affects them irrespective of their low technical knowledge. Therefore, even if the community lacks technical expertise; they should be ‘emotionally involved’ right from the planning phase if the policymakers required their support during implementation (Kweit & Kweit, 1986: 22). This was further supported by Dean while making case for the incapacitated groups against the domination that “planning should have an inbuilt bias towards those with least choices” (Dean, 2018; 186)

6.4.2. Advocacy to the communities at the initial stages: any impact?

Scholars have made notable remarks on the need for early involvement of communities in governmental decisions or projects as a factor that distinguishes collaborative governance and other community participatory systems (Kiljn & Nederhand, 2016; Inne & Booher, 2003). One major finding was that initial advocacy carried out by the PHs created the forum for a mutually beneficial discussion at the outset of project implementation between the host communities and the PHs. An attempt was made by the researcher to ascertain the level of advocacy carried out by the PHs across the communities to know whether the advocacy conducted was able to impact positively on the trust and sense of support from the community members or not. Findings from this study showed that the PHs conducted some sort of advocacy in all the divisions. However, there were disparities in the way and manner in which the advocacies were conducted. Our findings revealed that, while advocacies started earlier in Badagry and Epe division, the same cannot be said by the community members at Ikorodu. During the field study, an apparent display of docility and apathy was observed in participants at Ikorodu communities unlike the other communities in the other two divisions. It was deduced that the lack of basic knowledge about the project at the initial stages made the community a bit more docile and apathetic.

During the review of literature, no study was found to have treated advocacy in isolation, however, Mapfumo & Mutereko (2020) in a similar study report that advocacy at the early stage facilitates stakeholder’s participation and trust in the management of the informal sector in Harare, Zimbabwe. Nevertheless, it is argued by the *agonist* that advocacy does not connote involvement going by the counter-governance paradigm (Dean, 2018). The *agonists* had advocated that certain groups be accorded recognition in the policy environment and that they should be accorded recognition. The recognition requires that participatory strategies be institutionalised in the policy design to promote collective solidarities, reduce conflicts, and to integrate local residents into the implementation process. (Tosun & Treib, 2018; Dean, 2018; Lowndes & Paxton, 2018; Capano & woo, 2017). For

instance, Dean (2018) and Capano & Woo (2017) in their article conclude that institutionalising specific action roles for dissenting groups in a pluralist policy environment will broaden inclusion, promote policy robustness and reduce resistance.

Further investigation revealed that there is no uniform system of operation at the initial stages in the three divisions surveyed. Some communities had good interaction with the PHs at the initial stages while some did not. This was further illustrated in the matrices (See Matrix 6.2, p.174). This finding is attributed to the procurement stage of the Badagry project. The combination of these findings provides some support for the conceptual premise that the PHs initial involvement in Badagry division could be seen as a ‘manipulative’ or a ‘therapy’ strategy based on Arnstein’s ladder philosophy to penetrate the community as the communities in Epe had experienced. However, this should be interpreted with caution.

6.4.3 Awareness through early participatory consultations

Access to information is crucial for PPP effective governance. There are shreds of evidence that suggest that most community members do not have adequate knowledge about the projects except those that are actively involved whose knowledge was seen to be limited. The perception of PPP was not clear to the majority of the community members across the board. Interviewees at Lekki and Badagry exhibited an appreciable level of awareness about the project. They appreciated the importance of the partnership. Our findings suggest that the knowledge expressed was based on their interactions and consultation with the PHs. However, during the FGD, the larger percentage of the discussant appeared to have limited information and had received limited updates regarding the projects. The observation was made during the FGD with leaders that were drawn from the various communities.

Some data results revealed that some communities in Ikorodu and Epe were denied access to valid information on the projects. Particularly, on those issues that have a direct impact on the people like the EIA. Aside Badagry, the results from other divisions did not show that information was being withheld from the people because the information was available and made open at the LOPPP considering the FOI Act. A possible explanation for the incidence was found in earlier works of scholars that demonstrate that bureaucrats sometimes relate less with community members when they have the premonition that the community members lack the required technical abilities to make a positive contribution to a particular course of action (Ismail *et al.*, 2019; Gualini, 2018). Also, the findings corroborate earlier studies that have established a relatively good correlation between PPP

and information non-disclosure (Ismail *et al.*, 2019; Musawa *et al.*, 2017). These scholars demonstrate that PPP policy implementations are characterised by information non-disclosure (Ismail *et al.*, 2019; Musawa *et al.*, 2017). However, these findings would have to be interpreted with caution because the results could not be extrapolated to all the divisions.

6.4.4 The Early Involvement Debate

Contrary to expectations, the study finds a result that suggests that involving the communities at the early stage remains a popular opinion amongst community groups. Quite a significant number of communities who participated in the FGD and interviews were unmindful of the stage in which their community was involved. Another unanticipated finding was that the larger percentage of community groups who did not see the need to involve the community at the earlier stages of the project originated from the Badagry Division which had enjoyed a reasonable level of involvement right from the procurement process of the Badagry Deep Seaport project. The reason given by the respondents was that their community did not have to be involved in planning; pointing out that the community could only make a meaningful contribution during the implementation phase. This was in line with the submission of the PPP official at the Office of PPP. The opinion was not a popular opinion as the vast majority expressed the negative view that it was necessary to involve the community early enough. The relationship between the PHs and Badagry communities was strengthened through initial involvement and negotiation and findings in the other division indicated that the major problems the Epe communities had centred on the breach of initial trust that was built during the early stage. The bone of contention at Ikorodu was the fact that the communities felt neglected right from the commencement of the project.

As mentioned in the literature review, it was difficult to establish any scholarly work that addresses early community involvement in isolation. However, some scholars recognise the fact that collaborative leaders should invest considerable time and energy to seek the initial cooperation of stakeholders (Luke, 1998). The authors argue that successful beginning through stakeholders' support usually creates an ideal environment for collaborations and a smoother relationship. Similarly, Jamal & Getz (1995: 190) remarked that it is incumbent on any government initiating community projects at various tiers to develop capacities to engage stakeholders' involvement at the early stages of "problem setting" of which action includes "addressing the stakeholders concern" (Jamal & Getz, 1995: 190). Going by the position of recent authors, initial stage involvement is described as participatory planning by Esia & Yusuf (2013). The authors maintain that an integrated

approach to resource planning would involve every stakeholder in search of information, shared values, consensus and actions that are achievable and acceptable by all. The outcome of the findings, therefore, suggests that early involvement through open participation and participatory planning does not only build trust but that it also has a multiplier effect of mobilising initial support for the projects.

6.4.5. Early participation ratings by community interest groups

The study attempted to elicit the aggregate view of the community groups in respect of how early they felt their communities should be involved. Interest Groups were asked to do a rating. The analysis of the ratings shows that the larger percentage of the members of interest groups rated their community involvement at the early stage poorly. Only a section of respondents rated their involvement as somewhat good. The findings show that community groups are quite unsatisfied with their community involvement at the early stage of the project. The poor rating of community groups signaled the beginning of a lack of trust as group dynamics remain a factor by which community participation and empowerment could be facilitated (Jo & Nabatchi, 2019). As a precondition for effective collaboration, Ansell & Gash (2007) believe that the identification of the pre-history of conflict amongst stakeholders at the initial stage is a big threat to the collaborative arrangement. It is, therefore, necessary that steps to alleviate the low level of trust should be taken at the initial stage of the PPP network governance. Interestingly, this study finds that in most communities that have experienced open confrontation and demonstrations in respect of PPP projects, such protests were engineered by the community groups. This was revealed during the FGD, a discussant pointed out that the women's forum "staged a protest in 2016 when the cabinet on land acquisition and negotiation matters for LFTZ and business owners was dissolved" (EPEFGD03). Similarly, community youth forums were actively involved in a civil disturbance that led to the death of Director, Lekki Worldwide Investment Ltd, Mr Tajudeen Disu in 2015 at the LFTZ. A similar case was reported in connection with the disruption of a stakeholders meeting since the PHs had been going to negotiate with the community leaders without identifying with the community groups at the earlier stages. This affected the trust and loyalty of the community groups when the stakeholders' meeting was organised. Hence, the exercise ended in chaos.

In line with the present findings, previous studies have explained the role of the community groups as facilitators of community participation and agent of empowerment (Ollerenshaw, Murphy & McDonald, 2017; Sseguya, Mazur, Well & Matsiko, 2015). It is encouraging to compare the

outcome of this study with the communitarian perspective which links social capital to norms of respect and a network of trusting relationships between people interacting across institutionalised grades within the community. The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Arimoro (2015); Osborne & Murray (2007) and Roussos & Fawcett, 2000 who maintain that involving community groups at the initial stage is crucial if community trust and support for developmental projects is to be achieved. For instance, Arimoto attributes the challenge facing Lekki-Epe (PPP) Road project to the “the manner with which the project was arranged without community stakeholders involvement at the initial stage leaves much to be desired” (Arimoro, 2015: 166). Similarly, present results were in tandem with the results of a study conducted in a community in Columbia by Osborne and Murray (2000:77). The study demonstrated that the "initial level of trust established during earlier contact with stakeholders", especially the community groups, is what makes the subsequent collaborative process easy and beneficial to all concerned stakeholders.

6.4.6. Environmental impact assessment: Community involvement and roles

The involvement of the communities in the conduct of environmental and social impact assessments at the initial stages of the projects featured prominently during the field discussion and interviews.

The official at the LOPPP also pointed out that there are minimum environmental guidelines to safeguard the community from environmental hazards. There are basic requirements for any private organisation expressing interest must fulfill. There are performance standards and operating mechanisms which the private investors had to fulfill in line with PPP policy document. Most of the Projects in this study are located along the coastal regions of Lagos State and they are large projects. Studies have shown that most Deep Seaport is usually large projects and they sometimes have a devastating impact the ecology of the coastal environment (Zabbey *et al.*, 2019; Romain *et al.*, 2017). This study produced results that corroborate the findings of a great deal of the previous work in this area of study (Zabbey *et al.*, 2019; Romain *et al.*, 2017; Leisfen, 2017; Mohammed *et al.*, 2017; Spaling, 2003). To corroborate the earlier findings by Zabbey *et al.*, this study reveals that activities of the PPP projects in the coastal region impacted on the socio-economic activities and they also devalue the tourism potential for the people who dwell in these coastal regions (Zabbey *et al.*, 2019). The discussant at Ikorodu pointed out that they were not carried along in the conduct of EIA against the recommendations of the state and national guidelines. The communities later realised that the project affected their water and they could no longer fish. Needless to point out that the communities are agrarian and the people across the three divisions are predominantly fishermen.

Findings show that, whilst some Badagry communities expressed satisfaction with the ways and

manner the EIA and SIA were conducted, all other communities were displeased. This was due to their non-involvement in the EIA processes. The study showed that the process was contracted out by the LOPPP. This implies that the assessment was done with local interest but without local input as against environmental assessment global best practice as highlighted by *FAO Voluntary Guideline on the Governance of Tenure (VGGTs)* and by the World Bank's *Land Governance Assessment Framework (LGAF)*. At the LOPPP, it was confirmed that the EIA report should be seen by the communities based on the standard procedure and in line with the MoU. The officer maintained that the process was to further educate the communities and to allay their fears concerning the environmental safety of community lives and the safety of crops and animals. Surprisingly, the finding further revealed that some communities did not have access to the EIA report. The response from the LOPPP was rather disappointing as it revealed that the public administrators at the LOPPP did not see the need to consult with the local populace since EIA was considered a technical issue. As explained in the theoretical background of the study, early involvement is a factor that differentiates collaborative governance from other community participatory strategies (Innes & Booher, 2004). Therefore, a "well-organised and crafted participatory process" that brings key players into problem-solving activities of the government at the planning phase will ultimately create a roadmap for effective implementation policy implementation (Mapfumo & Mutereko, 2020: 106).

Involvement at an early stage creates a network of support that guarantees successful implementations as it creates opportunities for the stakeholders to get to know one another in a manner that suggests interactive planning. Traditionally, it is argued that interactive planning suggests that "open participative processes lead to better decisions" (Esia & Yusuf, 2013: 11). This view contradicts the conventional planning process which tends to be dominated by a "technical analytic style" which seems to be common in all the community interactions. The technicalities have been identified as factors that impede public involvement in PPP projects (Ismail *et al.*, 2019) and all other collaborative or network processes (Kim, 2016; Emerson *et al.*, 2012). In line with the information gathered at the LOPPP, most of the early activities in PPP project implementation were seen to be too technical for the communities. Therefore, the data reported here appear to support the assumption that most of the communities were excluded at the initial stage processes on the technicality of the process. On the other hand, the traditional perception is considered insufficient for the modern-day resource management planning which called for more interactive planning, information sharing and shared values in community collaboration (Mapfumo & Mutereko, 2020; Bekele, 2019; Norton & Hughes, 2018; Mehraz, 2016; Stafford, 2014).

This result of this study did not demonstrate the opinion expressed by Stafford (2014) who argues that it is important to gain trust by demonstrating a commitment to the local views of the community and through "sharing technical expertise" especially when the project is not controversial. She further argued that it is less expensive to engage the community early because the early involvement of the communities builds trust and eases the overall processes and reduces cost (Stafford, 2014: 4). The results corroborate earlier findings made by Roussous & Fawcett's (2000) that increased community participation in a decision about intervention components at the early trial of the project reduces later conflict. This finding was also evident in the demonstrations in various complaints and demonstration recorded in Epe and Ikorodu divisions. Although Ikorodu only expressed covert grievances, however, there were cases of open confrontation in Epe over the projects.

The findings which suggest that the PHs derived more trust and community support in the communities that were adequately involved at the initial stages negates the traditional views that support indirect involvement and argued that most communities lack interest in the planning phase of project implementation (Swapan, 2016). Swapan argued that citizens do not wish to take an active part in formal participation processes. In contrast, the finding provides some sort of support for the conceptual premise arrived at in a recent study that the involvement of the citizens in Environmental Impact Assessment is shaped by the public administrators' perception and communities are interested in the EIA issues (Eckeld & Heidelberg, 2020). That aside, reports from the communities in Epe showed that they were involved in the planning phase, however as the project progressed, they were being ostracised from the project by the PHs. These results match those observed in earlier studies (Tagliarino *et al.*, 2019; Lawalson & Agunbiade, 2018). Lawalson & Agunbiade remark that the intent of involving the community well at the planning stage was to deceive them and dispossess them of their rights to community lands (Lawalson & Agunbiade, 2018). Although we found responses that seem to support this claim during the FGDs, it was not within the purview of this current study, hence, less attention was given to this in the discussion.

It is encouraging to relate the findings with the collaborative governance theoretical postulations. The position of these collaborative authors is that community participation in the decisions about intervention components at the early trial of the project reduces later conflict and improved implementation (Roussous & Fawcett, 2000: 5). The theorist identified three broad variables that

are dominant in the starting conditions of a collaborative process which are: imbalances between the resources; the incentives that stakeholders have to participate and lastly, history of conflict" (Ansell & Gash, 2008: 551). A condition such as the identification of pre-history of conflict amongst stakeholders at the initial stage is a big threat to any collaborative arrangement. It is, therefore, necessary that steps to alleviate the low level of trust be taken at the initial stage of the PPP network governance (Dean, 2018; Kim, 2016; Jo & Nabatchi, 2018; Ansell and Gash, 2008). Although these results differ from some published studies (Kim, 2016; Hudon, 2011), they are consistent with those of Mapfumo & Mutereko, and De Schepper *et al.*, 2014 which show that the conditions present in the earlier stages of collaborative governance can either make or mar the collaborative process.

Moreover, the findings which suggest that Badagry Division communities expressed a reasonable level of satisfaction with their involvement in the conduct of the EIA at the outset of the Deep Seaport Project should be interpreted with caution. This finding cannot be extrapolated to all the communities as there are divergent views expressed by community leaders in Aivoji and Gbaji Yeke communities which are two of the twelve communities affected by the Deep Seaport Project. Findings reveal that the two communities declined the project and even instituted legal action against the government and the PHs on the ground that the project would adversely affect the socio-cultural and tourism potential of the axis. Moreover, a stakeholder and community leader in Badagry had also expressed a similar position concerning the Badagry Deep Seaport Project (Anumihe, 2016). The evidence presented thus far supports the findings of Zabbey *et al.*, (2019); Romain *et al.*, (2017) and Leifsen *et al.*, (2017) through their systematic studies. These studies demonstrate that projects like the Deep Seaport and all of its operations usually have a mitigating effect on the ecological environment. In the course of the investigation, some remarks point to the fact that the people did not have trust and confidence in the environmental assessment carried out at the early stages because they were not adequately involved from the outset.

6.5 Summary of the chapter

The objective of this chapter was to analyse whether the communities were involved in the initial stage of the projects or not and how their involvement or non-involvement impacted the trust and community support for the project. The chapter began with the introduction and preliminary background information after which both qualitative and quantitative data that were obtained from the field survey were analysed. Results from the analysis showed that different participatory strategies were adopted by the PHs in the divisions. The results further revealed that there were

deviations in the approaches used in engaging the communities at the initial stages of the projects. In all, both qualitative and quantitative data correlate with what could be conceivably hypothesised that communities that experience early involvement have much greater trust and confidence in the promoters of the projects than the communities who were not adequately involved in the initial stages. Findings further revealed that communities that have strong support for PPP projects are those communities that were involved at the earliest stages of project implementation by the PHs. Issues of early involvement were relative as it generated debates amongst participants. Considering the popular support for early involvement right from the planning stage; most communities opt for participation in the early processes like the involvement of the communities in the conduct of EIA and SIA. The next chapter analysed the role of the host community leaders in their community involvement in project governance.

CHAPTER SEVEN

COMMUNITY LEADERS AS FACILITATORS OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN PPP POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

7.1 Introduction

The last chapter analysed how activities at the initial stages impacted the trust and confidence of the community in which the identified PPP projects were sited. Analysis of data showed that the communities that were well involved at the initial stages had a high level of trust in both the government and the PHs and expressed their willingness to support the infrastructural project in their community. Results also demonstrate that some communities expressed the willingness to cooperate with the PHs more than the others based on the initial relationship that was established. The objective of this chapter is to find out the influence of community leadership in facilitating participatory governance in the selected communities while implementing the National Policy on Public-Private Partnership (NP4). The chapter has five major sections and many adjunct sub-section. After the introductory section, the chapter presents a broad overview of the concepts of facilitative leadership. It then goes on to highlight the various themes and variables that provide the basis for the analysis as highlighted in the theoretical framework, with support from the literature. More importantly, major sections of the chapter were committed to the analyses of both quantitative and qualitative data which were obtained from the field survey. The data were synthesised to draw-out salient issues for discussion. The final section discusses the findings of the analyses. It ties up the various theoretical and empirical strands upon which conclusions were drawn in line with the objective of the chapter.

7.2 Traditional rulers and community leaders as facilitators of community participation

The main goal of this chapter was to analyse the influence of community leadership as facilitators of community involvement in the infrastructural governance of the National Policy on Public-Private Partnership. Due to the positions occupied by the traditional rulers and community leaders, there are roles that they are meant to play in the development of society. Scholars have pointed out that traditional rulers and community leaders have strategic roles to play in the socio-political development of Nigerian societies (Kurebwa, 2020; Abayam & Aduke, 2018; Adeleke, 2017). The major research question, therefore, was to find out how the traditional institutions and community leadership impacted the community involvement in the implementation of NP4 in the various

communities. Drawing from the constructs of collaborative governance, the researcher analysed the role of community leader's experience and abilities as factors that facilitated or inhibited community involvement in the implementation of NP4 using the constructs that emerge from the collaborative governance popularised by Ansel & Gash, 2008 and further modified by Emerson *et al.*, (2012) and Kim (2016). The themes and related constructs of the objective of this chapter and the emerging questions are illustrated in Table 7.1. The constructs were based on a conceptual analysis of the construct of facilitative leadership with support from relevant literature.

Table 7.1. Illustrating the themes, variables and emerging questions of Objective Three

KEY CONSTRUCT	EMERGING THEMES FROM LITERATURE	EMERGING QUESTIONS FROM THE SUB-THEMES (MODIFIED)
Impact of Facilitative Leadership	Leadership facilitative capabilities (Item 14) Ansel & Gash, 2008 & 2012; Morse, 2008 & 2012; Singaravello,2010; Skelcher, 2006; King <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To what extent do community leaders' abilities determine the level to which the community is involved? - How does a leaders' attitude impact his or her community involvement in the collaboration?
	Leadership activism and involvement (item 15) Behren, 2014; Page, 2010; Morse, 2008; Munro <i>et al.</i> , 2008; Fung, 2006; Behren, 2014	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - My community would have been more involved if our leaders had been more active. - Does the leaders' participatory ability (e.g. level of education) have any impact on the community engagement in the collaboration? e.g. the case of uneducated <i>Baale</i> or <i>Kabiyesi</i>?
	Leadership education/Capacity building (item 16) Arias, Villar & Pernas, 2019; Adeleke, 2017;King <i>et al.</i> , 1998); Quick & Bryson, 2016.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - We do not have well-educated leaders. That is why my community is not involved. - What is your organisation doing towards empowering the leadership at the community level? - Whose role is it to build the capacity of the people and to empower the community leaders for active involvement?
	Leadership affiliation to political parties (item 18) Mapfumo & Mutereko, 2020; Chaponda & Allen 2019; Fishmann <i>et al.</i> , 2009;	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Does community involvement have any relationship with the leader's political involvement? - Community involvement in infrastructural governance arrangements is determined by the community leaders' affiliation with the political class in power.

Source: Generated by the researcher, 2019

The preceding section analysed the information derived from both the qualitative and quantitative sources. Data were generated in respect of the themes that emanate from the facilitative leadership

conceptual framework as defined in the literature. Consequently, this formed the basis upon which the relationship of the PHs, the state and the community leadership capacities were established. In light of this, the researcher presented a systematic analysis of data in respect of the identified themes as a response to the research questions which sought to know the influence of community leadership in facilitating participatory governance in the selected communities in the implementation of National Policy on Public-Private Partnership. Having obtained data using the emerging questions, the highlights and analyses of each theme are discussed in subsequent sections.

7.2.1 Community leaders' facilitative abilities

Leadership plays a significant role in any human interaction. Numerous studies have extolled the facilitative role of leaders in human endeavours. Therefore, to find out how community leadership impacts community involvement in the implementation of NP4 in the various communities, interviews were arranged. Likewise, some community leaders were invited to a focus group discussion on the subject matter. The discussion undertaken reveals that the leaders can foster or inhibit the involvement of communities in PPP infrastructural projects. Considering this proposition, an interview was held at the institutional level which was saddled with the responsibility of running the affairs of PPP in Lagos State. The interviewee's position was explicitly direct. He maintained that community leadership had little influence on their activities in the communities. He claimed that the government had its plans towards the project already mapped out; hence, the activities of community leaders would not derail the already laid-out plans of the government. However, at the community level, a common view expressed by the participants showed that leadership had a role to play if the communities were to be carried along in the projects. Some interviewees argued that if any community was to be carried along in the implementation of the NP4, the leadership of such a community must possess certain attributes.

A recurrent theme in the interviews and the FGD was the thought expressed among the interviewees that lends support to the proposition that leaders' attitude and ability did impact on community engagement in collaboration. This contradicts the position of the bureaucrats who believe that they operated on standard procedure. Issues regarding community leadership as facilitators featured prominently in the interview data at the community level as well. Some interviewers argued that their community would have been completely ostracised from the project implementation were it not for the doggedness of their community leader. For example, one of the interviewees said:

.... I can say that the little benefit we have gotten so far from the LFTZ is because we have leaders who are committed to fighting for the interest of the community members. (Field Survey, 2019; EPPDINT001)

Strong evidence of leadership abilities was displayed during the interviews at Badagry which seems to suggest that the leader's characteristics and traits are contributory factors that facilitate community involvement. The leader was assertive to say that:

The arrangement we had with them. We are well involved. What they plan for us is enough. If they can implement it as we have on paper. I also believe they can't do otherwise because the arrangement we have with them is solid. They are aware of our position; we only need to create the right environment for ourselves.

The majority of those who responded to the item sought to examine the way leadership at the community level influences decisions for the overall community interest. Furthermore, during the FGD, it was mentioned that a leader cannot achieve beyond his level of experience and education. As mentioned earlier, the researcher tried to elicit more information from the various community interest groups through the administration of questionnaires. In the questionnaire, a question was asked to know whether the community groups see community involvement or non-involvement as a function of community leadership competence. Table 7.2 shows the responses obtained from community interest groups across the divisions.

Table 7.2: The involvement or non-involvement of the communities is influenced by the community leaders or forum leaders?

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD	D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	4	6	10	23	4	47
	% within location	8.5%	12.8%	21.3%	48.9%	8.5%	100%
	% within a leader's facilitative roles	13.3%	23.1%	52.6%	41.1%	26.7%	32.2%
Ikorodu	Count	26	16	2	4	2	50
	% within location	86.7%	61.5%	10.5%	7.1%	13.3%	34.2%
	% within a leader's facilitative roles	52.0%	32.0%	4.0%	8.0%	4.0%	100%
Epe	Count	0	4	7	29	9	49
	% within location	0.0%	8.2%	14.3%	59.2%	18.4%	100%
	% within the leader's facilitative Roles	0.0%	15.4%	36.8%	51.8%	60.0%	33.6%
Total	Count	30	26	19	56	15	146
	% within location	20.5%	17.8%	13.0%	38.4%	10.3%	100%
	% within the leader's facilitative Roles	3.6%	10.5%	37.0%	45.7%	57.7%	33.6%
NOTE: SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagreed, SWA= Somewhat Agreed, A= Agreed, SA= Strongly Agreed							
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2=79.095$, $df=8$, $p=0.000$)							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

The results in Table 7.2 show that the majority of the respondents who participated in the survey agreed, for the most part, that leadership significantly influences community involvement in the implementation of the National Policy on PPP. In Badagry, for instance, over 75% agreed in varying degrees. The figure that disagreed was quite low. Similarly, about 80% of the members of the community groups in Epe agreed. While the total of those who strongly disagreed and disagreed was barely 20% in Badagry; less than 10% disagreed in Ikorodu. The data obtained in Ikorodu Division was striking as it contradicts the data that was obtained in Epe and Badagry Divisions proportionately. Over 80% of the members of the community groups in Ikorodu strongly disagreed that leadership abilities had a significant impact on community involvement. The results implied that the abilities of some community leaders determined the extent of involvement of their communities' involvement the execution of PPP infrastructural projects in Badagry and Epe. In Ikorodu, the participants' expressed the divergent view that the ability of group or community leaders has no impact on why the community was involved or not involved in the National Policy on PPP. The divergent views of the participants in Ikorodu strongly suggest that a leader's ability facilitated the involvement of the host community in the execution of PPP infrastructural projects unlike in Badagry and Epe.

To ascertain that the result of findings was not based on chance, a Chi-Squared test was carried out. The Chi-squared test result ($\chi^2=79.095$, $df=8$, $p=0.000$) indicates that the result obtained was significantly influenced by the location of the project. From findings, the majority who agreed (51.8%) were from Epe while over half of the respondents who disagreed (52%) were community group members from Ikorodu. A little over half of those who somewhat agreed (52.6%) were located in Badagry.

There is a study that demonstrates that grassroots communities with innovative ideas and growth are products of leadership activism and shared networks and skills facilitate community activism and networking for building a niche for building by working with innovatively. For instance, while most of the communities blame the government and cast aspersions on the project handlers, the Badagry Community leadership appears to have a grip on the situation. Investigations revealed that the leadership seemed to exhibit more tacit knowledge and have demonstrated that he is capable of building a network of relationship between his community with the project handler, political representatives and spots local talents to involve from the project activities at the initial stages like the enumeration exercises, land mapping activities and so on. It appeared therefore that the community leaders played a tremendous part in the project processes and in arousing community

involvement. This was because not all the communities showed interest to be involved in the initial stages. As at the time of this report, through the leading voice and efforts being made by the project promoters, most of the dissenting communities had chosen to embrace the project except the *Aivoji* community which still maintained an opposing stance. To further exemplify the different views, data were also sourced from active community groups. A question was posed to know if they attributed their involvement or non-involvement to the role of the community leaders. Table 7.3 (p.192) is an illustration of the data obtained from various project locations.

Table 7.3: My community would have been more involved if my community leaders had been more active

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD	D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	4	7	8	20	8	47
	% within location	8.5%	14.9%	17.0%	42.6%	17.0%	100%
	% within leaders' activism & involvement	14.3%	36.8%	29.6%	43.5%	30.8%	32.2%
Ikorodu	Count	23	10	9	5	3	50
	% within location	46.0%	20.0%	18.0%	10.0%	6.0%	100%
	% within leaders' activism & involvement	82.1%	52.6%	33.3%	10.9%	11.5%	34.2%
Epe	Count	1	2	10	21	15	49
	% within location	2.0%	4.1%	20.4%	42.9%	30.6%	100%
	% within leaders' activism & involvement	3.6%	10.5%	37.0%	45.7%	57.7%	33.6%
Total	Count	28	19	27	46	26	146
	% within location	19.2%	13.0%	18.5%	31.5%	17.8%	100%
	% within leaders' activism & involvement	3.6%	10.5%	37.0%	45.7%	57.7%	33.6%
NOTE: SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagreed, SWA= Somewhat Agree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree							
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2=53.821$, $df=8$, $p=0.000$)							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

Table 7.3 shows the responses to the question that was asked to elicit the thoughts of some active groups with the community whether their involvement would have been better if their leaders had been more proactive. In Badagry, over 60% agreed that the community would have been more involved if their leaders had been more active. 17% somewhat agreed while about 25.5% did not agree. Those who disagreed did not see their community involvement as a function of their community leaders' ability. While few respondents in Badagry and Epe held the opinion that their non-involvement does not correlate with their leaders' activeness; over 60% of the respondents in Ikorodu upheld this notion strongly. In Epe, for instance, over 70% agreed that their communities would have been better involved if their leaders had been more active. Overall, 99 of the 146 respondents (representing 61%) across the division held the opinion that their communities would have played a more active role if their leaders had been more active while 44% saw no correlation

between their leadership role and their involvement. The opinion of the latter group was that if the government wanted to involve them, they would do it regardless of the leadership abilities. A large percentage of this group was respondents from Ikorodu Division.

A Chi-squared test was conducted to ascertain whether the data above has statistical significance. Based on the Chi-squared test result ($\chi^2=53.821$, $df=8$, $p=0.000$), it is evident that the responses were not by chance. This implies that the location of respondents has a significant impact on the data obtained. The result from Ikorodu community groups differed significantly from the results obtained from the other community groups in Badagry and Epe. Comparing the data from Table 7.3 (p.192) with the data in the previous table (Table 7.2. p.190), a trend that demonstrates a positive correlation was observed in the two results. The comparison strongly shows that Ikorodu communities did not see the impact of leadership on the involvement or non-involvement of their communities, unlike Badagry and Epe. The result indicated clear evidence that the data in Table 7.3 is not a product of chance.

Synthesising the results from qualitative and quantitative data provide important insights into the general perceptions of community leaders and groups about the facilitative roles that leaders play in the community involvement of the governance of the PPP projects. Whereas the bureaucrat at the LOPPP held the view that leadership had no influence on government plans and activities at the institutional level, investigation at the community level disputes this. Qualitative data gathered across the divisions offered contradictory evidence that leadership has a significant role to play in facilitating the involvement of his communities in the project activities. On the other hand, despite much support for community leaders as facilitators or inhibitors of the collaborative process; we cannot ignore the qualitative data obtained from Ikorodu and its implication. The initial observation from this result seemed to suggest that the community groups did not find a link between the activities of community leadership as having any influence on community involvement as shown in Table 7.3. (p.192). If one compares the results from Table 7.2 (p.190) and Table 7.3 (p.192); the community groups at Ikorodu paid less premium on the role of community leadership as demonstrated in Table 7.2 (p.190) and this appears to have influenced the results obtained in Table 7.3 Given all that has been mentioned so far, one may suppose that the majority of the respondents across the divisions held that leaders' active role impacted positively on the community involvement.

7.2.2 Leadership education and capacity building: What significance?

As mentioned earlier, the purpose of this chapter was to investigate how leadership at the community level facilitated community involvement in the PPP infrastructural project. The principal theoretical implications of the findings suggest that community leaders' education correlates with the level of community involvement. However, the theoretical explanation of this finding remains imprecise. This is because some communities whose leadership lacks basic education appear to be more active in the agitation for involvement therefore the agitation for involvement cut across the education line. We found shreds of evidence that seems to show that educated leaders were circumspective in mobilising their community for an active role. In all this, they were also able to articulate different community groups' interests. Conventionally, leadership at the community in South Western Nigeria did not subscribe to the belief that leaders must be educated before they assumed leadership roles. The position is based on a monarchical and cultural heritage system. Another essential point is that the *Obas* who appoint the *Baales* were appointed in consultation with the deities and in line with customary procedures. Hence, the positions of community title holders are well respected and considered sacred (Oladimuye, *et al.*, 2014). An interviewee, while alluding to the importance of education in community facilitation and development, substantiated the claim that education is not the first criteria to appoint traditional leaders. He concluded, however, that traditional laws and customs take precedence in the selection and appointment of community leaders (EPPDINT001, Field survey 2019). In recent times, developments are indicators that political interference is among other factors influencing the erstwhile traditional beliefs and customary practices in the appointment of traditional leaders in Nigeria, particularly Yorubaland. In this regard, an interviewee pointed out that "leadership at the community level is not only about education, but it is also about tradition". To further support his claim, he stressed that:

Some leaders are educated yet they lack the wisdom to lead. They talk anyhow, reason and behave anyhow. Whether a traditional ruler is educated or not, that should not affect what he deserves as the occupant of the leadership position that custom has placed him in.

Although, this opinion was not a general opinion, however, the expression of the participants during the FGD demonstrates tacit concurrence with the position of the speaker. In reaction, a discussant said during the FGD that:

It all depends on the standard and exposure of the person. The way we appoint a leader is sometimes wrong. Community leader must be learned, exposed, informed and has a good network with people in the business and government of a community unless we have

a qualified leader the right of the community can be sold away (IKODFGD02, Field Survey, 2019)

This view received a vehement criticism during the FGD from a discussant who held the opinion that the level of education of the Aivoji community leader is a contributory factor to his decision to restrict his entire community from involving themselves in the Badagry Deep Seaport project. He remarked that:

Exposure is very important. The ability of the leader and education, enlightenment are very important. For instance, in Aivoji, the leader there, perhaps due to [lack of] education, is not willing to cooperate despite all. (BADDFGD05 Field Survey, 2019)

The interviewee further stressed that the “interest of the community should take the utmost priority in a leader’s life”. He added that a leader needs to have the exposure because a leader cannot lead his community beyond his level of education and exposure (Field survey, 2019). During the interview section, another expression in support of the above was offered by a community chief and representative of the communities in a committee that was set up involving the state, the PHs, and the communities to work out the modalities for pre-project execution planning. Like most discussants during the FGD, the Chief berated the leadership of those communities who declined involvement describing their reasons as ill-informed, myopic and retrogressive. This extract below captures his views:

The reason is myopic. It lacks merit and foresight. It is still based on the education of the leader. He is not ready to bring change or development because of any religious or cultural background. Mine [My view] is that we can’t remain where we are. The land has been there for over 200 years and all the land by law remain the property of the state (BADDINT01)

The statement shows that the community recognised that leaders should be exposed and educated to attract better things to the community. The speaker also talked about a leader being able to build a network with other stakeholders in the interest of the community. The expression received nods from some discussants during the FGD. This implies that there are people who still hold the conventional view that traditional leaders do not need to be educated because leadership attributes have been entrusted to them by spiritual endowment (Adeleke, 2017). This view was countered. Nevertheless, the majority of the interviewees and discussants at the community levels stressed the importance of education and alluded to the fact that education does play an impact on leadership’s facilitative role positively at the community level and makes things easier for the community (see Matrix 7.1 (p.207) for the detail). This position appears to be the general view expressed during the interview and the

FGD. Moreover, there was evidence that demonstrated that communities with educated leaders were more involved than others. To further illustrate this finding, it was earlier mentioned that some communities declined to cede their land for the developmental project because the land was their heritage and that "their ancestors would not be happy".

Of course, a variety of perspectives were expressed by participants but there were recurrent themes during the interviews and discussion which created a unified consensus amongst interviewees and discussants that education played a strong role in facilitating community engagement. To further elicit wider information from the cross-sections of the community members, questionnaires were distributed among community groups to discover whether or not there is a link between community leadership education and the extent to which the communities were involved in the project. The results obtained from the responses to the question that measured the extent to which community groups agreed that the education of leaders and their communities' impacted the level of involvement is presented in Table 7.4. (below):

Table 7.4: We do not have well-educated leaders, that is why my community is not involved

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD	D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	6	11	12	15	3	47
	% within location	12.8%	23.4%	25.5%	31.9%	6.4%	100%
	% within leadership education	16.2%	24.4%	34.3%	68.2%	42.9%	32.2%
Ikorodu	Count	25	19	3	1	2	50
	% within location	50.0%	38.0%	6.0%	2.0%	4.0%	100%
	% within leadership education	67.6%	42.2%	8.6%	4.5%	28.6%	34.2%
Epe	Count	6	15	20	6	2	49
	% within location	12.2%	30.6%	40.8%	12.2%	4.1%	100%
	% within leadership education	16.2%	33.3%	57.1%	27.3%	28.6%	33.6%
Total	Count	37	45	35	22	7	146
	% within location	25.3%	30.8%	24.0%	15.1%	4.8%	100%
	% within leadership education	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NOTE: SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, SWA= Somewhat Agree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree							
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2= 47.649$, $df=8$, $p=0.001$)							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

Table 7.4 shows the response to the question asked in this regard. Responding to the question in Badagry, 25.5% of the 47 participants somewhat agreed that their community did not have well-educated people as leaders, and this impacted their level of involvement in the PPP project implementation. A total of 38 and 36 percent agreed and disagreed respectively. Of the 50 people

sampled at Ikorodu, the percentage of those who disagreed with the statement was surprisingly high at 88%. An insignificant percentage of 12% of the respondents agreed. This implies that the active community groups in Ikorodu somewhat that they were involved in the PPP project because their leaders were not well educated. A similar trend was observed at Epe; the percentage of those who disagreed was higher than those who agreed. The former was 56.1% while the latter stood at 16.3. However, those who somewhat agreed constitute 40.8 of the respondents at Epe. Overall, the rate of those who disagreed was slightly higher than those who agreed.

A Chi-Squared test was carried out to find out if the location of the respondents had any influence on their views. Going by the Chi-squared test results ($\chi^2= 47.649$, $df=8$, $p=0.001$), the data obtained in the survey cannot be attributable to chance. The result is a clear indication that the data obtained were rather influenced by the location of the respondents. Hence, there was a strong association in responses based on the location. The result implied that more participants (about 67.6%) who disagreed that their community involvement or non-involvement was connected to the level of education of their community leaders were from Ikorodu while about 68.2% of those who agreed with the statement were from Badagry.

Through the participants' responses to issues of community leadership and the need for leaders to be educated and to be informed, the researcher saw the need to find out whose responsibility was to educate the communities. Institutionally, the role of the LOPPP as an institution is to provide the public with general information and education (this was discussed in Chapter 5). The probing question therefore was: Does LOPPP acknowledge its role in this regard? This theme surfaced mainly during an interview at the LOPPP. Traditionally, 'communities' are associated with educational backwardness. On the contrary, from the bio-data survey it can be seen that a large percentage of community members across the division have above secondary education qualifications, therefore the communities appear to value education. The major research question in this regard aims to find out whether or not the ability of community leaders to facilitate their communities for effective participation and involvement depends on this leader's level of education. Again, it was important to know the perception of LOPPP and the PHs regarding leadership development at the community level through an institutionalised capacity-building process. At the institutional level, the overall response to this question was very positive. In his reaction to the question, the interviewee at the LOPPP said:

Meetings are held to inform and educate them about the project and to solicit their cooperation. There is a limit to which they can contribute if they are not well educated.

Most of the Obas got their titles through traditions and not by education. Not all of them are educated to know but it is easier to relate more with the educated ones. Because they understand better and they can explain things better to their subjects. Education is very important (Field survey 2019, OOPPINT001)

The above statement seems to be political because the investigation revealed that there has not been any form of activity towards leadership capacity-building in any of the communities. Pieces of evidence suggest that the LOPPP recognised the place of the traditional institution in the system. However, the organisation merely provided information on the project and made no effort to educate the community leaders. Our finding in Chapter 5 showed that there is no institutionalised role for the local communities in the broad policy framework of the state implementation agency which mirrors the National Policy for Public-Private Partnership which might be one of the restrictive factors. Issues related to the duty of public managers were not particularly prominent in the qualitative data. Therefore, a question was raised to elicit more information from members of the community groups through the questionnaire to find out whether or not the community groups see it as a duty of public managers to build the capacity and to empower community leaders for active involvement. The data in Table 7.4 (p.196) and 7.5 (p.197) illustrate the responses gathered from groups within the communities in respect of community leadership and education.

TABLE 7.5. *Public managers are to build capacity and to empower community leaders for active involvement in PPP*

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD	D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	1	3	9	20	14	47
	% within location	2.1%	6.4%	19.1%	42.6%	29.8%	100%
	% within leadership capacity building	25.0%	42.9%	75.0%	26.7%	29.2%	32.2%
Ikorodu	Count	2	2	0	20	26	50
	% within location	4.0%	4.0%	0.0%	40.0%	52.0%	100%
	% within leadership capacity building	50.0%	28.6%	0.0%	26.7%	54.2%	34.2%
Epe	Count	1	2	3	35	8	49
	% within location	2.0%	4.1%	6.1%	71.4%	16.3%	100%
	% within leadership capacity building	25.0%	28.6%	25.0%	46.7%	16.7%	33.6%
Total	Count	4	7	12	75	48	146
	% within location	2.7%	4.8%	8.2%	51.4%	32.9%	100%
	% within leadership capacity building	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NOTE: SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, SWA= Somewhat Agree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree							
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2=27.597$, $df=8$, $p=0.001$)							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

It is apparent from the data in Table 7.4 (p.196) that there were similarities in responses across all

the divisions to the effect that there was a need for the government and the PHs to build the capacity of community leaders towards their effective involvement. Results from Badagry show that 28.8% strongly agreed and 46.6% agreed with this. Those who strongly agreed that the project and public managers need to build community leader's capacity in Ikorodu and Epe were 52.9% and 16.3% while 40.0% and 71.4% agreed respectively in the two divisions. A small number of respondents disagreed in the three divisions but this was less than 10%. Overall, a total of 135 respondents constituting 92.5% of the entire surveyed sample across the divisions agreed in varying degrees that LOPPP should educate and build the capacity of community leaders for effective participation in the project's governance. While 32.9% strongly agreed, 51.4% and 8.2% agreed and somewhat agreed respectively that there is need for the government to assist in building the capacities of the community leaders to enable them to participate actively in the decision-making process and in projects that have been brought to their domain.

To ascertain that the result of findings was not based on chance, a Chi-Squared test was carried out. Based on the Chi-squared test result ($\chi^2=79.095$, $df=8$, $p=0.000$), it is evident that the result indicated that an association existed between the location of respondents and the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statement that public managers are required to build capacities of leaders in the communities to enable them to participate effectively in policy implementation and the PPP project activities in their domain. The overall response of respondents to the question across all the locations was positive. The result indicates a high association in responses across the study locations.

Taken together, these results demonstrate that the majority of the participants in the study agreed that the education of community leaders has a role to play in community involvement in the PPP project governance in their domain. Both qualitative and quantitative data did not significantly differ concerning the finding that suggests a correlation between leadership education and community involvement in the PPP project. Further analysis showed that the respondents to the questionnaires that sought to know whose responsibility is it to provide necessary education and training to community leaders agreed across the board that it was the duty of the public managers to build the capacity of community leaders towards playing specific roles in the projects. This section has discussed and analysed the education of leaders at the community level and how this facilitated community involvement. It argued that an educated community made greater efforts to involve community members than communities that were less educated. The next part of this study will examine whether or not leaders' affiliation to political parties has any influence on community involvement or non-involvement.

7.2.3. Community leaders' affiliation: Any influence on community involvement?

Politics is a dominant factor in personal, communal and inter-communal existence. Politics is seen in the light of the struggle for power and control. A reputable and popular definition by Harold Lasswell simply perceives politics as a consistent struggle for control and a fair share of state resources. As mentioned in Chapter Two of this study, politics, particularly in a democratic dispensation, plays a significant role in shaping policy implementation and in who gets what, when and how. It is shaped by political favouritism and loyalty, hence, community leaders are now involved in what Pacewicz (2015) describes as the neo-liberal game to maintain a non-partisan posture for the benefit of their communities. In this regard, this study intends to know whether or not political affiliations of the communities have any connection, whatsoever, on the interaction of the communities with the state government, through the LOPPPP and the PHs.

Given the aforesaid, this section sought to determine whether the projects were sited for political reasons or to favour the communities as studies have shown that distribution of wealth is characterised by political loyalty or party affiliation in most developing countries (Chaponda & Allen, 2019). From the information that was gathered at the LOPPPP, the interviewee claimed that politics had no influence on their operations and their relationship with other stakeholders. The interviewee further argued that:

"a responsible government will not be sharing dividends of democracy by politics. Not everybody in every community will belong to a single political party some will vote for the government in power and others will vote against it and some will not even belong to any political party. Ordinarily, traditional rulers should not belong to any political party. Even if they have their preference for any political party, they should not make it obvious. Therefore, political affiliation has nothing to do with bringing development to the people".

Similar results were obtained at the community level. For instance, a paramount ruler interviewed at Badagry maintained that their relationship with the private stakeholder had nothing to do with any political affiliation of community leaders. According to one of the interviewees, the private investors related to the communities because it was essential for image-making and not on the dictates of any structural arrangement or for political reasons.

A contrary view was expressed during the FGD by one of the participants when a question was raised to know if they felt that the process of implementation was compromised based on political factors. Reacting to the question, a discussant promptly responded with a rhetorical question: "Can

anything be done in Nigeria without politicking?” (BADDFGD04, Field survey, 2019). The discussant implied that the process was riddled with politics. When the issue was raised in another division, in what seems to confirm politicisation of the process and in support of the earlier position, an interviewee said:

This is one area I have issues with our politicians. The politicians don't care. They are after their selfish interests. Some of them are private investors. The politicians are behind the private firms and they acquire it [them]. Sometimes, they bid for the contract as part of the government and they now acquire the assets of the people without recourse to due process. They stylishly claim the heritage of the people for their selfish interest (IKODFGD02, Field Survey, 2019)

However, these divergent views were not substantiated by the sponsors. Besides, the claims are outside the purview of the objective of the study. These opinions, do, however, provide important insights into the mindset of some community members who hold the opinion that the politicians are always caught up in the administration of projects. However, this view failed to get the support of other discussants. The result of interviews and discussion across the divisions, in essence, ruled out politics or political affiliation as a factor inhibiting community involvement in the implementation. One recurrent theme in the interviews and in the FGD was a sense amongst interviewees that the majority of the community belonged to the ruling party, the All Progressive Congress. If that was the case, they ought to have been more involved and ought to have benefited more.

Questionnaires were distributed to community groups to elicit wider information on the subject. Table 7.6 (p. 202) presents the illustration of data obtained from each division in the subsequent analysis. The major question raised in this regard was to determine the extent to which the groups agreed or disagreed that their community involvement in the infrastructural governance was based on their community leader's political affiliations.

Table 7.6. Community involvement in infrastructural governance arrangements is determined by the community leader's affiliation to the political class in power.

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD		D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	1		6	18	20	2	47
	% within location	2.1%		12.8%	38.3%	42.6%	4.3%	100%
	% within leaders' affiliation to Politics	12.5%		25.0%	32.1%	44.4%	15.4%	32.2%
Ikorodu	Count	6		16	18	3	7	50
	% within location	12.0%		32.0%	36.0%	6.0%	14.0%	100%
	% within leaders' affiliation to Politics	75.0%		66.7%	32.1%	6.7%	53.8%	34.2%
Epe	Count	1		2	20	22	4	49
	% within location	2.0%		4.1%	40.8%	44.9%	8.2%	100%
	% within leaders' affiliation to Politics	12.5%		8.3%	35.7%	48.9%	30.8%	33.6%
Total	Count	8		24	56	45	13	146
	% within location	5.5%		16.4%	38.4%	30.8%	8.9%	100%
	% within leaders' affiliation to Politics	100%		100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NOTE: SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagree, SWA= Somewhat Agree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree								
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2= 36.226$, $df=8$, $p=0.001$)								

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

Table 7.6 shows similarities in responses across all the divisions that the political affiliations of community leaders influence the involvement of their communities in the execution of PPP projects. From the results obtained across the divisions, quite a large percentage of respondents agreed that political affiliations of community leaders have a significant impact on community involvement in the implementation of NP4. Responding to the question in Badagry, 38.3% of the 47 somewhat agreed that their community did not have well-educated people as leaders, and this impacted negatively on their level of involvement in PPP project implementation. A total of 46.9 and 14.9 per cent agreed and disagreed respectively. Of the 50 people sampled at Ikorodu, the percentage of those who disagreed with the statement was higher at 44%. A lower percentage of 20% of the respondents agreed; however, 36% somewhat agreed. This implies that the active community groups in Ikorodu did not agree that the political affiliation of their rulers or community leaders had an impact on their community involvement in the Lekki Deep Sea Project/LTFZ. At Epe, the percentage of those who disagreed was lower. 6.1% of the respondents disagreed while a higher percentage of 53.1% agreed. However, those who somewhat agreed represented 40.8% of the total respondents. Overall, the rate of those who disagreed was lower than those who agreed.

A Chi-Squared test was carried out to determine whether or not the location of the respondents had any influence on their views. Going by the Chi-squared test results ($\chi^2= 36.226$, $df=8$, $p=0.001$), the data obtained in the survey was not attributed to chance. The result clearly showed that the extent to which the respondents agreed or disagreed depended on the location of the study. Hence, responses to the statement that community involvement was determined by community leaders' affiliation with the political class in power were largely influenced by respondents' location. From the result, the majority who disagreed (75%) were respondents from Ikorodu. On the other hand, those who agreed were greater in number in Epe (48.9) than in Badagry which accounted for 44.4% of those who agreed that political affiliation of community leaders determined the extent to which the communities were involved.

Taken together, both qualitative and quantitative data seem not to correlate as shown in the data above. The result, therefore, shows that two divergent and conflicting discourses emerged from the two investigations. While some interviewees argued that the processes were free of any political influence or manipulations, a few others expressed the view that the entire process was muddied by political manipulations. The responses of community groups from Ikorodu gave this clear indication. The result of the qualitative data that suggested that an association exists between the two concepts was not convincing because it was a minority view and the statement lacks fact or support data. However, in as much as one may wish to consider the statement as a minority view; responses from community groups strongly suggest otherwise. Comparing the two results, a minority of those interviewed ruled out political affiliation as a factor that influences their relationship with the PHs and government over the PPP projects. A few minorities, during the FGD, alleged the possibility that the politicians are behind the entire project using the PHs as a cover-up. Nevertheless, the allegations were doubtful and called for a further probe by the researcher. The outcome of further investigation was reported in the discussion section. One unanticipated finding that emerged revealed that all the divisions were aligned with the ruling party in Lagos State. Hence, the results in this section made it rather difficult to establish that community involvement in infrastructural governance arrangement was determined by the community leaders' affiliation to the political class in power. Furthermore, traditional leaders were meant to be apolitical although the investigation revealed that the party in power dominated the political landscape of the entire state. Contrary to expectations, this study did not find any significant relationship between political affiliations of the community leadership and their involvement or exclusion in the PPP policy implementation. The overall results of quantitative data further gave credence to this finding.

The next section moves on to present the details of qualitative information at a glance. The matrices 7.8 and 7.9 give an analysis of the discussion to provide necessary detail on the subject matter of this chapter. The chapter aimed to find out the influence of community leadership in facilitating participatory governance in the selected communities in the implementation of NP4.

7.3 Matrix analysis for qualitative data using the categorised themes

At a glance, the matrix analysis of quantitative data in Matrix 7.1 (p.207) presents the data that was generated based on the themes relating to facilitative leadership. It is evident from the matrix that the values ascribed to various themes varied based on the approaches, the project locations as obtained through the interview as well as the FGD. The varied responses between the interviewees and those of the discussants suggest that the community traditional rulers with whom most interviews were held responded to issues based on their level of involvement and information at their disposal. However, the thoughts were articulated, summarised and synthesised to reduce the volume of data based on categorical themes and sub-themes to generate the matrix. The matrix records the aggregates from the wider spectrum of responses from the community groups.

Matrix 7.1. Analysis of qualitative data on community leadership role using categorised themes

Themes/Sub-themes	Facilitative leadership	Relevant Quotes /Field Sources
Leadership facilitative capabilities (Item 14) Singaravello, 2010; Skelcher, 2006; King <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	- To what extent do community leader's abilities determine the level to which the community is involved?	- <i>Yes, we have a forum that brings us together to meet and discuss. We also develop our agenda for the project which I will not want to discuss with you now. (BADDINT01)</i> - <i>Yes, we have a forum that brings us together to meet and discuss. We also develop our agenda for the project which I will not want to discuss with you now. (BADDINT01)</i> - <i>I am the focal person for the entire community, and I have to ensure that all interests are well protected. (BADDINT01)</i> - <i>The leadership of the community said because the land is their heritage. His ancestors will not be happy if he should release the land for developmental projects because they have shrines and their family houses on it. (BADDINT01)</i>
Leadership activism and involvement (item 15) Behren, 2014; Morse, 2008; Munro <i>et al.</i> , 2008; Fung, 2006	Does a leader's participatory ability (e.g. level of education) have any impact on the community engagement in the collaboration?? <i>There is a limit to the extent to which they can contribute if they are not well educated (BADDINT01).</i> <i>They can't do without implementing it. They know me very well. (BADDINT01).</i> - <i>We are raising the consciousness of our children and our youth to embrace personal development in terms of career and education. (BADDINT01)</i> - <i>As I said before, leadership is about sacrifice and being able to fight for the interest of your community. I can say that the little benefit we have gotten so far from the LFTZ is because we have leaders who are committed to fighting for the interest of the community member (EPPDINT001).</i>
Leadership education/Capacity building (item 16) Skelcher, 2006; King <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	- What is your organisation doing towards empowering the leadership at the community level?	- <i>The best we can do is to explain the brain behind the project and to educate them about its relevance to the development of their communities and Lagos State at large (OPPINT001)</i> - <i>Education is very important. However, leadership at the level of the community is not only about education, it is tradition. Some leaders are educated yet they lack the wisdom to lead (EPPDINT001)</i> - <i>The Government has not been doing enough at all. They are neither here nor there. Sometimes it is difficult to think that the Government prefers to do the will of the private investors than caring for its citizen (EPEDINT001)</i>
Leadership affiliation to political parties (item 18)	- Does community involvement have any relationship with the leader's political involvement? - Community involvement in infrastructural governance arrangement is determined by the community leaders' affiliation with the political class in power.	- <i>A responsible government will not be sharing dividends of democracy by politics (OPPINT001)</i> <i>political affiliation has nothing to do with bringing development to the people</i> - <i>Well this does not have to do with the political affiliation of community leaders (BADDINT01)</i> - <i>So, I don't think it has anything to do with the party. Our government only needs to be more responsible and responsive. (EPEDINT01)</i> - <i>Of course, that has always been there. Can anything be done in Nigeria without politicking (BADDFGD04)</i>

Source: Field survey, 2019

Due to the large textual information generated from the FGDs and interviews conducted concerning the objective of this chapter a framework was designed to summarise the qualitative data employing a cross-case analysis. The outcome is logically presented in a simple and well-structured manner. The researcher employed a matrix to shed more light on the relationship between the different themes and levels of the dataset. The themes derived from the analytical framework guiding this study and literature as earlier presented in Table 7.1 (p.187). Having identified and coded the data using the descriptive themes, a summary of quantifiable matrices of responses for the emerging variables were presented in Matrix 7.2. (below)

Matrix 7.2. Summary of qualitative data on facilitative leadership activities (Quantifiable Matrix).

Categorised themes	Badagry	Epe	Ikorodu	Badagry	Epe	Ikorodu
	Focus group Discussion			In-depth Interviews		
Leaders as Facilitators	Focus group Discussion			In-depth Interviews		
Leadership capabilities to mobilise	3	3	3	3	2	1
Leader’s activism as a factor	2	2	1	3	1	1
Leadership capacity building	1	2	1	2	1	0
Leader’s Education/awareness	2	2	2	2	2	1
Political influence	0	2	2	0	0	1
Legend: Existent (E) = 3; Partially-Existent (2) = 2; Not Yet Established (NYE) = 1, Non Existence (NE)= 0						

Source: Field survey, 2019

At a glance, Matrix 7.2 (above) illustrates the aggregates of qualitative data from the wide spectrum of responses obtained from the community. It is evident from the case-cross matrix that the values ascribed to various themes varied based on the data-gathering approach and the project locations. The approaches were interviews as well as FGDs. While there was uniformity in responses in the two approaches (to the FGD and the Interviews), each community had its peculiar interactive experience with the project handlers which seem to influence the data that were obtained. Looking at the values in Matrix 7.2 (above), the data gathered during the interviews varied significantly from the data gathered from the FGDs. The values were relatively higher for the FGDs in the entire themes reviewed. However, one deduction that can be made from this output is that

the paramount rulers with whom most interviews were held and some of the community leaders that were involved in the discussions responded to issues based on their level of involvement and information at their disposal.

In the previous sections, attempts were made to analyse data obtained from both qualitative and quantitative inquiries. Findings were synthesised and various results of quantitative data were cross-tabulated to find out the degree of association in results based on the locations. The next section aims to look into the outcomes of our previous analyses to discuss the findings and to align the same with the literature.

7.4 Findings and discussions

The goal of this chapter is to examine the influence of community leadership on facilitating participatory governance in the implementation of the National Policy on Public-Private Partnership. The results of the themes that were analysed in the preceding sections are now highlighted and the findings from the analysis are presented for discussion in line with the theoretical postulates guiding the study. The bases of analysis include community leadership facilitative abilities, leadership education and the political affiliation of the leadership. This section discusses the findings on the role of community and traditional leaders as facilitators of community involvement in policy formulation and implementation and the extent to which they play their roles.

7.4.1 Leadership education and capacity building

In this study, there were important findings made concerning the role that education plays in community leadership and how this influences community involvement. Firstly, there are various categories of leaders in the communities viz. the paramount ruler (*Oba*), the community head (*Baale*) and leaders of various groups and forums. It is important to note that education is not the first criteria to appoint traditional leaders. The evidence presented during the analysis supports the notion that traditional laws and customs take precedence in the selection and appointment of community leaders. Another, interesting finding that emerged from this current study is that communities that have educated leaders were more involved than communities with leaders who possess a lower level of education. Thirdly, on the question that aimed to find out whose role is it to build the capacity and to educate the community leaders for community engagement. It is interesting to note that the qualitative results from across the locations are positively skewed to the side of the LOPPP. Over 90% of the respondents in PPPs observe conventions and customs, such as those considered in South Western Nigeria when traditional rulers are to be appointed. The traditional practices were based on stereotypic

patriarchal philosophy, The chosen-one syndrome and deity consultation (Arias, Villar & Pernas, 2019; Adeleke, 2017). These old practices fly in the face of educational values, democracy

and gender equity. The traditional rulership position is based on monarchial and on a cultural heritage system. Another essential point is that the *obas* who appoint the *Baales* were appointed in line with customary procedures which sometimes involved consulting the deities. Hence, their positions were considered sacred and respected (Oladimuye, *et al.*, 2014). In reviewing the literature, many studies have examined the role of traditional rulers and community leaders as integral to governance (Edet, 2018; Osakede & Ijimakinwa, 2015).

Studies have reported the strategic role of community leadership in project implementation. The methods of these studies are largely theoretical and their focus centres on project implementation and the traditional and, at the same time, strategic roles of community leaders (Abayan & Aduke, 2018 and Sally & Rosemary, 2017). The findings match those observed in earlier studies by Cocciolo & Ghisololfi (2017) and Yoo (2004). Yoo had remarked that communities that have a high level of civic involvement and a safe environment for policy implementation are those communities that have a high level of education, and a high level of social and economic resources (Yoo *et al.*, 2004). The previous findings commonly stressed the need to integrate community leadership into project implementation which the current finding also corroborates. However, the most significant finding of this study is the report that relates community leaders' education to community involvement which was not previously described in the literature. Nevertheless, there is a point of congruity between the major finding and recent scholarly articles that investigate the importance of education in leadership and empowerment (Oluwade, 2019; Arias, Villars & Pernas, 2019; Cocciolo & Ghilosolfi, 2017). While the current finding is similar to the outcome of the work of Arias *et al.*'s investigation into education and community leadership, the latter study has a narrower view in terms of methodology and focus. The study which was carried out in a Colombian local community demonstrates that education influenced processes of community empowerment and participation. This study is in tandem with Cocciolo & Ghilosolfi (2017) whose study confirms that educated leaders place a higher value on community participation in community-driven developmental (CDD) projects.

Another essential point is that the LOPPP recognised the importance of traditional rulers as the custodians of community values and as agents that promote a stable system of governance at the community level. Therefore, it is usual to pay homage to them and to seek their cooperation. The attitudes expressed by the LOPPP as revealed in this study support the general conclusion of Abayan & Aduke (2018); Edet (2018) and Oganwu & Eshenake, 2017 who, in their various studies, recognise the strategic role of traditional rulers and call for their recognition in any community development

programmes or policy. However, the organisation merely accorded them recognition by passing out information about the project and not by involvement. Therefore, it made no effort to engage the community leaders. A possible explanation for these results may be linked to the lack of an institutionalised role for the local communities and its leadership in the broad policy framework as our investigation revealed in Chapter 5. Going by the personal view of the researcher, it appeared that the LOPPP did not find any basis to either build the capacity of community leaders or to educate them until the policy framework of NP4 is redesigned to create specific roles for the traditional rulers and other community group leaders including the women's forum following the recommendation of Arias *et al.*, (2019) and Hora (2014). Together these results provide important insights into the role of education in boosting community leader's facilitative skills for good community involvement.

The next section will provide a discussion on the analytical findings of the investigation that sought to determine the influence of leaders' political affiliations on community engagement in the implementation processes of the NP4 infrastructural projects.

7.4.2 Community leaders' facilitative abilities

This study set out to assess the role of community leadership in facilitating community involvement. Earlier studies have established that a strong relationship exists between leadership and collaborative governance (George, 2016; Behren, 2014; Morse, 2013). The reports in the literature also reflect that the leader's facilitative role is key to community involvement in any collaborative set-up (Kim, 2016; Ansel & Gash, 2012; Morse, 2008). This current study established that community leadership and the abilities of the focal person have a significant influence on the benefits derived by some communities in terms of social and economic empowerment in the administration of PPP Policy implementation in Lagos State. Some insinuations seem to suggest that leadership had no influence but the largest cluster of community leaders expressed the thought that leadership abilities had a significant effect on their community's involvement. As shown in the results, Badagry had recorded the best engagement. Despite that, the project has yet to commence operations. Badagry youths were involved in the preliminary work, but this seemed to be more of a practical approach being used by the Badagry community leadership. For instance, they had started raising the consciousness of the community members, especially the youths, to go get the necessary knowledge ahead of the commencement of the project so they could feature significantly in the project. The effort was a good display of facilitative leadership, unlike other communities whose leaders clamoured for involvement without making conscious efforts to prepare community members for the challenges ahead. As

mentioned earlier, the observed differences between the opinion expressed by the community groups in Ikorodu and by a few interviewees that leadership did not influence community participation were not significant. because the vast majority of the respondents held the view that shows that communities that had benefitted or that were involved in the project implementation were those that were being led by community leaders who displayed some characteristics like passion, good communication skills and persuasiveness compared to other stakeholders in the project. The present findings seem to be consistent with other recent research which found out that community leadership does have an impact on community development projects. The findings strongly support a recent study reported by Famakinwa & Adisa (2020). The authors investigated how leadership characteristics influence local leaders in community development. The study identified certain behaviour that enhances the facilitative abilities of a community leader towards the actualisation of community objectives. They identified emotional stability, dispute management, consistency, group membership, communication ability and skills amongst others. Similarly, the finding also corroborates the ideas of Martiskainen (2017), whose study shows that community leadership aids grassroots innovations through knowledge. The author recognises the ability of community leaders to network, delegate and spot local talent for the benefit of the project. The author pointed out certain qualities that are important for leaders to fit into a social network of project or policy implementation which include: learning skills, networking skills, shared decision-making abilities, and practical management skills that include project management and networking skills to connect with other communities. In contrast to earlier findings, however, the central focus of this research was not on community development or government projects but on projects of collaboration between government and private investors operating in the local communities that are strongly to be part of their capacities as hosts. However, studies have shown that in a situation where traditional leaders, are greedy and self-centred they also posed a serious barrier to the inclusion of local communities in developmental projects. This was confirmed in a study that examined the role of traditional leadership in community participation in Mining development in the post-apartheid democratic dispensation in South Africa (Llewellyn, 2019). The

study demonstrates that corruption and political collaborations involving the local council chiefs, traditional leadership and the mining companies have deprived the local communities of certain inalienable rights involving the activities of the miners in their communities.

Linking the findings with the theoretical tenets of the Network Governance Theory, public policy-making processes, implementation and service delivery are viewed as a web of relationships among autonomous yet interdependent government, business and civil society actors. It, therefore, requires that leaders of communities must possess networking skills and they should use their skills to build a relationship and a shared vision when they are embedded in the social network which the PPP collaborations depict. The findings observed in this study mirror those of the previous studies in their attempts to integrate leadership as an integral component of successful collaborative governance (Opawole & Jagboro, 2017; Behrens, 2014; Silvia, 2011). The most interesting deduction from the findings in this study is that: rather than communities' leaders waiting for the government to clarify their roles, leaders with facilitative abilities were already creating a niche for their communities by discussing areas of collaboration within the PPP framework. The efforts being made by community leaders in Badagry, to some extent, were good steps in this regard.

7.4.3. Community leaders' political affiliations and influence on community involvement?

One of the sub-themes of this chapter is to further support the earlier finding that there is significant political affiliation involved in community leadership. Some studies have demonstrated that most government policies and programmes are influenced by political loyalty, political patronage, political godfatherism and compensation in Nigeria (Ahmed & Alli, 2019; Aja *et al.*, 2018). Politics in its simplest description is about the struggle for power and resources. Given this, authors have maintained that one of the problems facing policy implementation in the third world revolves around excessive politicking (Kurebwa, 2020; Grindle, 2017). Consequently, policy on infrastructural development cannot rid itself of this menace. Thus, the consensus at a recent Public Investment Seminar organized by IMF in collaboration with AFRITAC West 2 and the European Union was that political interference is the most intractable challenge in infrastructure development globally (Chaponda & Allen 2019). Hence, it was difficult to draw a dichotomy between genuine government intentions and activities that have political undertones. National Policy on PPP is an infrastructural policy that has various stages of implementation namely: project development phase, project procurement phase, project implementation phase and post-implementation phase (see section 3.7.3 for details). PPP procurement and implementations phases are stages that create a good avenue for

political manipulation and corrupt practices. At these stages, political pressure is asserted to

influence the selection of a 'loyal' bidder. Opawole & Jagboro (2017) have identified this issue as a limiting factor in most concession-based PPPs in Nigeria. Although there were responses during the FGD that alleged that politicians were behind PPP (IKODFGD02). According to the discussant, the PHs cared less about involving the communities because they were indirectly the private partners and they also formed part of the policymakers i.e. the government. They were neither protecting the public nor government interest but their private interest. This impression, no doubt, negatively impacts the trust and support for the project.. As illustrated in Figure 7.1 (below), this response is a miniature reflection of the larger public opinion which insinuates that PPP is another form of privatisation perpetuated by the politicians to buy over public infrastructures for commercial exploitation.



Figure 7.1: Protest staged by the Civil Society Coalition for Good Governance

Source: *Premium Times Newspaper*, April 16, 2019.

While the researcher recognised the weightiness of this notion as one of the factors that are likely to influence trust and support for PPP projects in Nigeria, less attention was deliberately accorded to it. The focus, in this chapter, was to find out if the involvement or non-involvement of the communities in the implementation of PPP infrastructural projects has any connection with the political affiliation of the community leaders because the allocation of resources in Nigeria is governed by political manipulations, interest and undertones (Adama, 2018; Nweze, 2016; Aliu *et al.*, 2018). Contrary to expectations, this study did not find any significant relationship between

community leaders' affiliation with political parties and community involvement in the PPP infrastructural project governance. This result was considered to be questionable based on the fact that literature has emerged, more recently, that offers the finding that infrastructural governance is characterised by political interference in Nigeria (Chaponda & Allen, 2019; Forcest, 2019; Thurson, 2018; Nwufor-Orizu *et al.*, 2018). Specifically, it is somewhat surprising that the study could not establish any relationship between the community political inclinations and their level of involvement in projects, which contradicts the findings of Olorunfemi *et al.*, (2017). In an empirical study that examined the failure of the Zamfara Dam (PPP) project in Northern Nigeria, Olorunfemi and his team found that the project failed because it was politically motivated. They, therefore, conclude that political factors play a significant role in the failure of project implementation in Nigeria. Moreover, the interview which was conducted at the LOPPP and that which was conducted with the community's traditional rulers, reveals the apolitical nature of the LOPPP and traditional rulers. This study was unable to demonstrate that the LOPPP operations in the implementation of PPP infrastructural policy at the community level are politically influenced. (Thurston, 2018; Adeleke, 2017; Bolaji & Gray, 2015). Thurston (2018), for instance, examined the activities of bureaucrats during the political process in Nigeria concluded that bureaucrats could no longer be referred to as technocrats because they are already trapped in the web of politics. The author, therefore, rejects the proposition that public servants are apolitical in Nigeria. A similar conclusion was earlier drawn by Bolaji & Gray (2015). Returning to the question posed regarding the objective of this chapter which intends to find out if the actions of the LOPPP with the communities were politically motivated; there seems to be no evidence to support the claim. Nevertheless, it may be difficult to rule out biases in responses of the Public Officers at the LOPPP.

It is interesting to note that, despite the popularity of the All Progressive Congress, in all the communities involved in this study, there seems to be no evidence that suggests that the leadership in the community was *partisan*. Therefore, our findings did not indicate political compromise by community leaders as found in a study conducted by Mapfumo (2019) which established that political compromise inhibits participatory governance with the informal sector in the management of flea markets in Zimbabwe. This further gave credence to the position of many scholars in Nigeria that every activity of government is politicised and to have a fair share, you must be identified with the political party in government. This finding is similar to the outcome of a study that found community leaders always seem to be apolitical (Facewicz, 2015). The author found that community leaders avoid being identified with any political party because such affiliation stigmatises their

communities and could make or mar their community chances in a competitive situation. Again, such a conclusion should be drawn with caution because the outcome of this study partially substantiates that the community leaders across the divisions detached themselves from politics for unsubstantiated reasons.

Theoretically, facilitative leadership coordinates and brings together all stakeholders for integration into the collaboration framework. Ansell and Gash (2008) hold the opinion that power distribution and incentive to participate are stronger and have a significant effect on collaborative governance than the presence of trust or absence of conflict. This largely depends on the involvement of a reliable facilitator at the community level if the host community is to play its role. It will be difficult to achieve meaningful discourse at the community level regarding collaboration or partnership arrangements without involving community leaders. Therefore, any discourse without the right kind of leadership at the community level will be a farce. It is hypothesised that the degree of influence that any collaborative process will have on the people is largely determined by the level of community members that are empowered through the process. In other words, for any collaborative process to be successful, such effort requires a broad-based leadership influence on diverse community members and groups in line with the collaborative theoretical framework of governance. Moreover, the democratic governance theory supports the distribution of decentralising political authority for de-concentration to stakeholders and public interest groups for ease of administration. This process also facilitates horizontal communication and coordination among actors, especially through governance approaches that have a network, partnership and collaborative character in line with the institutional analysis and development (IAD) framework system. Irrespective of the static or dynamic nature of policy at the national and sub-national level (state), the outcomes are still felt at the local level. The institutional analysis framework developed by Polski & Ostrom (1999) (see Section 2.2.3.; Figure 2.1) gives an insight into how policy objectives are transformed into desired outcomes and the categories of actors that should be involved bearing in mind the institutional arrangement with the community. The local actors, in this case, include traditional rulers, community leaders, forum leaders, societies and NGOs, on the one hand, and other stakeholders who work for the development of the infrastructural projects on the other hand. The lopsided implementation technique has been demonstrated in a report by Phillip & Peter (2013). The study found that policy implementation fails because policymakers only recognise the MDAs neglect of the institutional arrangement within the implementation arena. As can be seen in the case of NP4, they do not engage community leaders, NGOs and CSOs right from the project development stage

up to the implementation stage. An existing institution within the local community arena must also be involved in interpreting the policy in line with the NP4 institutional context as shaped by social, legal, economic political and technological attributes dominant in the policy environment for a robust participatory implementation.

In conclusion, going by the network theory philosophy, the projects and their host communities share a level of interdependence. Therefore, the community leaders may be described as the nuclei of indirect stakeholders in the PPP partnership arrangement. We found that the community leaders act as facilitative participants in the relationship of the PPP projects and the host communities, and their roles do have an influence on public acceptance of the PPP policy. Conversely, there were pieces of evidence that suggest that some community leaders were neither well-informed nor involved with the PHs. Further to this, Arnstein (2015) through the ladder of participation theory argued for the need to redistribute power from the government institutions to grassroots institutions. She explained that local power can only be boosted through information-sharing and participatory decision-making. Based on this, it will be instructive to evaluate the quality of community leadership involvement in the PPP implementation at the community level. Findings are suggestive of the fact that rather than creating opportunities for the leadership, ‘manipulation’ and ‘therapy’ were being used in some communities. The rung of ‘*citizens’ power*’ which Arnstein described as advocating for ‘*partnership*’, ‘*delegated power*’ and ‘*citizen control*’. These concepts can only manifest themselves if the skills and capacities of community leaders are further broadened for effective involvement. The leaders should be able to negotiate and be involved in decision-making on behalf of their communities. The current data highlights that the level of education of some community leaders was instrumental in the facilitation and mobilisation of their community for effective participation. Apart from formal education, there should be training workshops, seminars and symposiums organised for community leaders. For instance, in the MoU, it was jointly agreed that the communities will have their representative on the Board of the managing companies. This appeared good on paper. Nevertheless, the existing arrangement falls short of partnership and empowerment which placed their involvement at the lower rung of ‘*manipulation*’ or ‘*therapy*’ based on Arnstein’s ladder theory. There are authors who have offered theoretical explanations for excluding communities from developmental projects (de Beer & Swanepoel, 2005). The claim of the authors stems from the explanation that most local communities lack the basic human, technical and material resources to sustain a partnership status. The onus, therefore, lies with the LOPPP to provide the necessary incentives that would facilitate community participation by employing a local benefits matrix of infrastructural intelligence

(Stafford, 2014). Community members expressed the belief that there would never be any meaningful community engagement. The results of this finding support the idea that, until the traditional leaders are well-equipped for effective representation, their communities' involvement will remain elusive. It is important to reiterate that while this study focuses on community leadership, institutional leadership is critical because, the performance of community leaders will be influenced by the act of leadership that the public managers exhibit as conveners (Scott & Thomas, 2017). It is worth noting that the role of the conveners is very strategic in the policy implementation network.

7.5 Summary of the chapter

The objective of this chapter was to find out the influence of community leadership in facilitating participatory governance in the selected communities while implementing the NP4. The chapter began with the introduction and a preliminary review after which both qualitative and quantitative data obtained from the field survey were presented and analysed. Findings showed that community leadership and the abilities of the focal person have a great influence on the benefits derived by some communities in terms of social and economic empowerment in the PPP Policy implementation in the selected communities. Findings further revealed that communities that have educated leaders were more involved than communities with leaders with a lower level of education. Lastly, this study did not find any correlation between leaders' political affiliations and affected communities' involvement. Conclusively, the chapter aligns the findings with the theoretical framework of democratic governance theory to establish that policymakers and implementors need the leadership of the institutionalised community groups for inclusive governance. The next chapter will be examining the participatory mechanisms employed and their effectiveness in guaranteeing a more participatory community involvement in the PPP project governance.

CHAPTER EIGHT

PARTICIPATORY MECHANISMS IN NP4 IMPLEMENTATION

8.1 Introduction

Based on the fourth research question, this chapter analyses the existing participatory mechanisms and processes at the sub-national level and their effectiveness in fostering inclusive governance regarding NP4 implementation in selected communities of Lagos State. The chapter commences with an overview of all the sections highlighting the themes that define these sections. The major sections of the chapter are committed to the analyses of both qualitative and quantitative data. The two sets of data are then synthesised into a triangulated nested flow to draw out salient issues for further discussion in each succeeding section. The succeeding sections also tie up the various theoretical and empirical strands emerging from the data in respect of the identified theme. The various dimensional issues that emerged were harmonised using both inferential and descriptive statistics to aid the researcher in reaching conclusions about the participatory governance mechanisms that apply in the selected communities. The last section presents the summary of the entire chapter.

8.2 Identifying participatory mechanisms and their roles in community involvement

It is not impossible to have a policy that is “well known and well understood but not accepted by the group that must apply or conforms to it” (Aluko *et al.*, 2007: 3). It is the level of involvement and participation that determinate the acceptance of policy by the people. The participatory process is a cyclical process that revolves around communication, trust, commitment, understanding, and outcomes (Aluko *et al.*, 2007; Huxham, 2003). To begin with, this section explains the orientation of the participatory process at the sub-national level and their effectiveness in fostering inclusive governance for the NP4 in the selected communities of Lagos State. The concept of participatory mechanisms has been described in Chapter Two (Section 2.4.4.). They are referred to as “symbolic policy instruments” through which the citizens participate in governance (Boussaguet, 2015:109). Therefore, any discussion on public involvement in policy implementation is regarded as piecemeal if participatory mechanisms involved in the process are abjured (Newig *et al.*, 2018; Leifsen *et al.*, 2017). Consequently, the focus of this chapter will be to analyse the participatory mechanisms that were used in the selected communities to promote a collaborative process amongst the stakeholders, particularly, the affected communities and their members. In line with the objective, four themes

were identified based on the theoretical background of this study and the literature. As demonstrated in Table 8.1, the researcher highlights the construct of a participatory mechanism and presents the themes that emerged from the construct. Questions for analysis were drawn from each of the four themes in line with the relevant literature. There are varying dimensions through which the identified variables were applied in the scholarly works.

Table 8.1. The Government in partnership with the private investors needs to identifying area of joint needs that will motivate participatory mechanisms

KEY CONSTRUCT	EMERGING THEMES FROM LITERATURE	EMERGING QUESTIONS FROM THE SUB-THEMES (MODIFIED)
The role of Participatory mechanisms	Joint identification of interests, roles and capacities joint meetings and discussion (Item 8, 19, 20, 22) Newig <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Osei-Kyei & Chan, 2017; Aluko <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Huxham & Vangen 2003	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Are there locally-based planning mechanisms? - Is there any need for the government to engage the project managers and the community in a dialogue to address issues of interest to both parties? - Are there areas of common values jointly identified by the project manager and the community?
	Dialogue as a deliberative strategy (application and efficacy) Item 19, 21 Scott & Thomas, 2017 Innes & Booher, 2003; Parker, 2002	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To what extent were the communities engaged in a dialogic process? - What role does dialogue play in fostering collaborative engagement amongst stakeholders? - What is the flow of information and communication, 'bottom-up or top-down'?
	Sourcing local knowledge/resources through negotiation and collaboration Item 22 Jo & Nabatchi, 2018; Newig, 2018; McClulloch <i>et al.</i> 2017; Norton & Hughes, 2017; Adedeji <i>et al.</i> , 2016	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What are the mechanisms in place to accommodate local clientele? - Is there any existing policy framework for local resource engagement and utilisation? - To what extent does the MoU entered into by the stakeholders address the engagement of local people or resources?
	participatory mechanisms across divisions Item 23, 24 Newig <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Boussaguet, 2015; Emerson & Nabatchi, 2015; Albert & Passmore, 2008; Smith, 2003; Innes & Booher, 2004	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What participatory mechanisms are being used to engage the communities? - Is there a common participatory method prevalent in all the communities? - What mechanism is most prevalent? - What is the most popular mechanism and how effective is it in fostering participatory governance?

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

Table 8.1 (p. 217) vividly illustrates the emerging themes of participatory collaborative governance philosophically derived from scholarly works. The emerging variables constitute the basis upon which questions were derived to gather both qualitative and quantitative data for subsequent analysis and discussion.

8.2.1 Joint identification of areas of common interest

It is common knowledge that meaningful interactions only take place when people identify the areas of common interest. Realising the need for policymakers and implementors to have good interaction with the host communities in the implementation of NP4, the policy document mandates public authorities and their private partners to work with the communities. It pointedly envisaged that such interactions would “mitigate socially unacceptable outcomes” in the implementation of PPP policy (ICRC, 2013: 12). Foundational to this, the Nigerian Constitution stipulates that every policy of the state will be implemented in a manner that “prevents exploitation of human or natural resources in any form whatsoever for any reason, other than the good of the community” in furtherance of social order (1999 Constitution, Chapter 2, paragraph 17d). Owing to this, it is pertinent for the LOPPP and the PHs to identify areas in which the communities could actively participate in the PPP policy implementation so as not to feel exploited as stakeholders.

During interview sections, issues were raised to discover if there were issues of common interest between the government, project handlers and the host communities which were jointly identified. The interviewee at the LOPPP revealed that there were areas of common interest that concerned mainly environmental safety and job creation. The interviewee further said that the attention of the government was directed to these areas and that the government was looking into these issues for the benefit of the entire community. However, discussants across communities do not differ on this. In their various accounts of the events surrounding the expression of common interest for participation, the discussants' issues of environmental safety and job creation were germane but there seems to be no evidence to suggest that the issues were collaboratively discussed. In his exact words one of the participants during the discussion at Ikorodu identified some areas that require joint reviews at Ikorodu as follows:

One, they spoiled our roads during construction due to heavy trucks. Two, our waters are now polluted. Three, they didn't engage our children in employment and if they do, what percentage applied? How many did they employ? Four, they are supposed to have special compensation for us ... (IKODFGD05)

Above were some of the issues raised during our discussion. The discussants, especially at Ikorodu, claimed that neither the government nor the PHs was willing to engage with the communities until there was public agitation. They argued that it was their agitation that had brought the communities close to the project handlers and it had also yielded certain benefits for the communities which included the provision of certain basic amenities, like boreholes and basic fishing equipment for fishermen. This was one-sided as it had no benefit to the overall interest of the communities within the area of the project. One of the discussants further pointed out that, sometimes, the meetings were only held for record purposes and not to discuss the issue of mutual benefit to the communities. During FGD at Ikorodun, a participants responded that although government “*often invite us to the meetings for record purpose, not for anything else* (IKODFGD01).”

There were pointers to the fact that the issues facing the communities in each of the divisions were multi-faceted and that the approaches also varied. For Badagry and Epe Divisions, some issues revolved around resettlement, compensation and disaffection in respect of the members of the communities who were involved in some of the activities. There were issues of misrepresentation in committee meetings. However, Ikorodu communities were facing problems of environmental degradation due to the projects as explained earlier (p.226). In Badagry, an interviewer explained how the selection of community members who participated as members of the implementation committee was undertaken. Below is the extract;

.... they were selected only at the communities who are directly affected by the project. They picked them right from the hinterland here. From ‘the Point of No Return’, Some from Ganyikoh Quarters, then on the other side, we have Gberefun, Yorovon and Kweme. The selection was made from the youth, women, elders and community chiefs (BADDINT01)

A few minority groups expressed the view that the PH’s did not do enough to ensure the participation of every stakeholder within the communities. Other emerging issues were raised. For instance, a discussant at Ikorodu argued that:

If they [PHs] must use community land, it must be based on partnership with the community with the communities having their shares. This will automatically place a learned member of the community on the Management Board. Ordinarily, the framework should have been designed in such a way to accommodate one or two educated members of the community on the Management Board. But what we have now is far from that. (IKODFGD03)

In Badagry, there was a consensus among discussants that the communities would wish to be part of

the shareholders. One participant commented: “communities are clamouring for a joint partnership. The communities & ATM Terminals representatives have agreed in principles [with the] allocation resettlement conditions, but the issue [in contention is] of share profits” (BADDFGD05). The opinion expressed at Epe is quite different. While some individuals stated that they shared similar views on the aforementioned issues, another commented that beyond environmental issues, there were the issues of compensation for land, job creation and partnership. These issues had already been addressed in the MoU but beyond the aforesaid, he mentioned that:

The community could still be used to maintain the facilities. Under special arrangement and appropriate training, the communities can assist in the maintenance aspect and provision of security. If they can be empowered through financial support, they can also function in the area of material supply and so on. (EPPDFGD02).

From the above, it is a glaringly obvious that the people wanted more than just the provision of basic amenities. They wanted a sense of belonging in the project. As mentioned earlier, the researcher tried to elicit more information from the various community interest groups through the administration of questionnaires. In the questionnaire, a question was asked to know whether or not the community groups saw the need for the PHs and the administrators to engage the community to explore areas of mutual concern. Table 8.2 (p.221) presents the responses obtained from community interest groups across the divisions.

Table 8.2. *There are areas of common values that have been jointly identified by the project manager and the community*

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD	D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	1	1	21	18	6	47
	% within location	2.1%	2.1%	44.7%	38.3%	12.8%	100%
	% within areas of common values	25.0%	50.0%	36.2%	34.0%	20.7%	32.2%
Ikorodu	Count	2	0	9	17	22	50
	% within location	4.0%	0.0%	18.0%	34.0%	44.0%	100%
	% within areas of common values	50.0%	0.0%	15.5%	32.1%	75.9%	34.2%
Epe	Count	1	1	28	18	1	49
	% within location	2.00%	2.0%	57.1%	36.7%	2.0%	100%
	% within areas of common values	25.0%	50.0%	48.3%	34.0%	3.4%	33.6%
Total	Count	4	2	58	53	29	146
	% within location	2.70%	1.40%	39.7%	36.3%	19.9%	100%
	% within areas of common values	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NOTE: SD =Strongly Disagree, D = Disagreed, SWA= Somewhat Agreed, A= Agreed, SA= Strongly Agreed							
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2=35.277$, df=8, p=0.001)							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019.

Table 8.2 (p.221) shows responses based on locations as the majority of the respondents agreed there

are areas of common values jointly identified by the project manager and the community. Results from all the divisions show that the number of the respondents that agreed was far higher than those who disagreed. Ikorodu recorded a high agreement rate of 78%. The rate of those who somewhat agreed was higher in Badagry and Epe with 44.7 and 57.1 percent respectively. An insignificant number disagreed with the statement across the divisions. The overall response to the question was very positive. Of the 146 respondents who completed the questionnaire, 82 respondents (56.2%) agreed to varying degrees, areas of common values were jointly identified by the PHs and the communities. 58 respondents constituting 39.7% somewhat agreed while just 6 people (4.1%) disagreed in varying degrees.

To ascertain that the result of findings was not based on chance, a Chi-Squared test was carried out. The Chi-squared test result ($\chi^2=35.277$, $df = 8$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0001$) indicates that participants' location significantly influenced their views on the existence of shared values jointly identified by the project manager and the community. Further analysis of the result shows that a little over half (51.1%) of those who strongly agreed were community groups from Badagry and Ikorodu Divisions. In Epe, there was no clear-cut distinction in the choice of respondents. About 50% of those who somewhat agreed were from Epe. Besides, the views of the participants in Ikorodu and Badagry strongly suggest that the community groups identified areas of common values that could be explored for mutual gains when they create the opportunity to involve the communities in infrastructural projects.

Analysis of qualitative and quantitative results reveal that the participants expressed a common view concerning the need for the PHs and the government to engage the community in a discussion or to collaborate with them in certain areas. In their accounts of various events surrounding the project implementation during the FGD it was established that the community leaders would wish to collaborate with the project handlers to solve some of the identified problems in certain areas. Areas identified include job creation, infrastructural improvement, environmental safety, issues revolving around land acquisition and displacement. All the community groups responded positively to the questionnaire. The next section tries to analyse the extent to which dialogue has helped to foster a healthy collaborative process between the communities and the project handlers.

8.2.2 Dialogue as a strategic tool for deliberative involvement

Qualitative data results show that the government was unwilling to enter into dialogue after initial information was provided to the communities especially at Epe. However, the efforts of the government were vehemently resisted by the communities until SERAC (Social and Economic Rights Action Centre) intervened. The organisation facilitated the process of dialogue which resulted in the drafting of the MoU. After the MoU, some actions were taken which made it appear that the government was willing to carry the community along and further involve them in the project.

To complement the qualitative information, questionnaires were distributed to community groups. The essence of the questionnaire was to elicit further information from the various community groups regarding the extent to which they consider the relevance of dialogue as a participatory strategy in community involvement. Table 8.3 presents the result of the data obtained regarding dialogue as an important participatory strategy towards exploring areas of mutual gains by the major stakeholders and the community.

Table 8.3: Both the government and the project managers need to dialogue with the community to explore mutual gains

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD	D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	0	0	5	16	24	47
	% within location	0.0	4.3%	10.6%	34.0%	51.1%	100%
	% within community engagement	100%	41.7%	32.0%	29.3%	32.2%	100%
Epe	Count	0	0	2	4	44	50
	% within location	0.00	0.00%	4.00%	8.0%	88.0%	100%
	% within community engagement	0.0%	16.7%	8.0%	53.7%	34.2%	0.0%
Ikorodu	Count	0	0	5	30	14	49
	% within location	0.00	0.00%	10.20%	61.20%	28.6%	100%
	% within community engagement	0.0%	41.7%	60.0%	17.1%	33.6%	0.0%
Total	Count	0	2	12	50	82	146
	% within location	0.00	1.40%	8.20%	34.2%	56.2%	100%
	% within community engagement	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NOTE: SD=Strongly Disagree, D = Disagreed, SWA= Somewhat Agreed, A= Agreed, SA = Strongly Agreed							
Chi-Square Tests Result: ($\chi^2=33.173$, $df=6$, $p=0.001$)							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

Table 8.3 shows responses based on locations as the majority of the respondents across study sites concurred that project managers and administrators need to engage the community in a dialogue to explore mutual gains. Over 80% of the respondents from Badagry either agreed or strongly agreed that both the government and the project managers need to dialogue with the community to explore mutual gains. Similar results were obtained in Epe and Ikorodu division. Over 80% of the

respondents agreed to a varying degrees that the project handlers and the administrators have not been engaging the community in dialogue to explore the area of mutual gains. An insignificant number disagreed with the statement across the divisions. The overall response to the question was very positive. Of the 146 respondents who completed the questionnaire, 132 respondents (over 90%) agreed to varying degrees that there were interactions with their communities. 12 respondents constituting 8.2% somewhat agreed while just 2 people (1.4%) disagreed.

The study sought to determine if the location of the respondents had any association with their views. A Chi-squared test result ($\chi^2 = 33.173$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.001$) ruled out the possibility that the finding was based on chance. The result indicates that there was a higher percentage of respondents from Epe Division who strongly agreed than those from Badagry and Ikorodu. The results, therefore, indicate that the community groups in Epe (88%) felt strongly that there is a need for the government and the PHs always to engage the communities in a dialogue to address issues of interest to both parties. The results indicate that the result obtained from the table above is statistically significant. The Chi-square test reveals that the results were not based on chance as evident from the results relating to the responses. This, therefore, suggests the need for dialogue between all stakeholders to explore areas of mutual concern.

Overall, qualitative data reveal that the community leaders emphasised the strategic role of dialogue in their various accounts of their relationship with the government and the PHs. It can be deduced that some communities agitated before they were given audience to dialogue. The interview and the FGD also revealed that the communities were to a large extent dissatisfied that there was no constant dialogue over certain issues that could facilitate a harmonious relationship. The constant crisis experienced in some communities was avoidable if there had been a constant dialogic arrangement. The MoUs that were signed in Badagry and Epe was the end-product of early dialogue that took place in the division. Some opinions suggested that aside from the early dialogue at the initial stages, there had not been any sustainable pattern of dialogue across the division, particularly in Epe and Ikorodu divisions. The data from the table give, support to the results which state that project managers and administrators need to engage the communities more in dialogue to further explore mutual concerns Data obtained from community groups across the divisions substantially, as shown in Table 8.3, (p.223) buttressed this finding.

In summary, the result shows that the members of the communities were not yet satisfied, and they wished to have more dialogue with the major stakeholders. However, the undeniable fact is that the communities and other stakeholders were able to draw up the memorandum of understanding (MoU)

after they had dialogued. The MoU highlights key areas of mutual concern to all the parties to the project, viz: the Lagos State Government, the Local Government, the private investors and the affected communities. One important element of the MoU is the involvement of the community resources in the PPP project activities. The next section analyses how the PHs fulfill this part of the agreement and the extent to which this boosts the collaborative involvement of the communities.

8.2.3 Involvement of local clientele/local content

As shown in the earlier result, through dialogue, the community and other key stakeholders drew the MoU which recognises the vital importance of local knowledge and skills. Therefore, the PHs were encouraged “to increase the utilisation of local raw materials and open wealth creation opportunities for the affected communities and surrounding villages” (MoU, SERAC, 2007: 2). During the interview held with the Public Officer at the LOPPP, questions were raised to determine if there were structures in place to accommodate local clientele (human & material resources) from the host communities. He acknowledged that it was necessary to consider the interest of the community. In his exact words, interviewee at the LOPPP said that:

The approach to be adopted depends on the model (i.e.. PPP model) sometimes it depends on the kind of negotiation. There are different approaches to PPP arrangement. For instance, the way they do Lekki Concession is different from LEDCO. The issue of local content was spelt out and entrenched in the MoU (OOPPINT001, Field Survey, 2019)

The fact is that no framework makes it mandatory to use the local resources (human or material); therefore, community involvement and participation is situational. For instance, the operators of the Badagry Deep Seaport engaged the communities more than the other divisions. Although Badagry communities appear fairly spartan, the communities seemed to be better engaged than others. The community leader alluded to this as matching the “need of the project to what the community has to offer” to the survival of the project (BADINTO1, Field Survey, 2019). In the previous section, it was established that the participatory capabilities are limited due to exposure and education except there is a policy that institutionalises local empowerment. This is one area where most interviewees expressed disappointment with the government. The majority of the interviewees felt that the government is not doing enough to boost the participatory capacity of the local people to ensure their active involvement. In his exact word, an interviewee said:

Government is neither here nor there. Sometimes it is difficult to think that the Government prefers to do the will of the investors than caring for its citizens (EPEDINT01, Field Survey, 2019).

Further to the above, the researcher carried out a content analysis of the MoU due to the peculiarity of the Epe project (LFTZ/Port Project) in terms of host community agitation. The major stakeholders were expected to act under the provision of the MoU regarding this. Therefore, Paragraph 4 subparagraph 'h' mandates the Lagos State Government to:

“... Implement or ensure the implementation of workforce development initiatives such as capacity building, skills training, job creation and micro-enterprise development designed to boost employment and economic well-being of the affected villages and communities”.

In the same vein, in paragraph 6 subparagraph (g) of the document confers an obligation on the LWIL as a major stakeholder to “carry out formal on-the-job training of personnel recruited from the affected communities for operation on the LFTZ project”. Observations that emerge from the data above show that the community members felt short-changed by the activities of the government and the private investors. Response from most of the interviewees suggests disappointment and regrets. Expressing his disappointment on the issue, an interviewee strongly lamented as follows:

It hurts to see that people can break their promises. It's like taking advantage of someone because he is powerless. I know things will not be like this forever. One day our children will grow and join us to push forward our expectations and our rights.

To further elicit information on the subject, questionnaires were distributed to community groups. The questionnaires were distributed to respondents across the division to source qualitative data and the results are illustrated in Table 8.4. The table provides the results obtained in respect of question that sought to know whether or not the project managers had been seeking to negotiate or dialoguing with the communities to explore local resources in line with the content of the MoU which was signed by key partners and the host communities at the initial stages of the projects. The table also summarises statistics for the Chi-square result.

Table 8.4. *The project managers have not been involving local clientele and expertise in their operations*

LOCATION OF STUDY	RESPONSES	SD	D	SWA	A	SA	TOTAL
Badagry	Count	2	11	12	16	6	47
	% within location	4.3%	23.4%	25.5%	34%	12.0%	100%
	% within local clientele involvement	33.3%	39.3%	19.0%	39%	75.%	32.2%
Ikorodu	Count	2	15	30	2	1	50
	% within location	4.0%	30.0%	60.0%	4.%	2.0%	100%
	% within local clientele involvement	33.3%	53.6%	47.6%	4.9%	12.%	34.2%
Epe	Count	2	2	21	23	1	49
	% within location	4.1%	4.1%	42.9%	46.9%	2.0%	100%
	% within local clientele involvement	33.3%	7.1%	33.3%	56.1%	12.5%	33.6
Total	Count	6	28	63	41	8	146
	% within location	4.1%	19.2%	43.2%	28.1%	5.5%	100%
	% within local clientele involvement	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
NOTE: SD=Strongly Disagree, D= Disagreed, SWA= Somewhat Agreed, A= Agreed, SA= Strongly Agreed							
Chi-Square Tests Result: $\chi^2=39.831$, df=8, p-value = 0.000							

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

Table 8.4 is a display of the data that was gathered in respect of the statement that the project managers have not been involving local clientele and expertise in their operations. Of the 47 respondents in Badagry, over 70% agreed in varying degrees that project managers have not been involving local clientele and expertise in their operations. The result of Badagry varied to some extent with the result obtained at Ikorodu where only 66% of the respondents agreed in varying degrees with 60% of them somewhat agreeing. Significantly, a total of 34% disagreed that the project managers have not been involving local clientele and expertise in their operations in Ikorodu. In Epe, results show that 48.9% of the respondents simply agreed that the project managers have not been involving local clientele and expertise in their operations. The percentage of the respondents who disagreed was 8.2%. Overall, 112 respondents who constituted 76.8 % agreed; 34 respondents (23.3%) disagreed with the statement that the PHs have not involved local clientele and expertise in their operations. Surprisingly, Ikorodu recorded the highest proportion of respondents that somewhat agreed and disagreed with the statement. This output was not convincing enough. Findings have shown that most agitation from the community groups was recorded at Ikorodu, it is therefore expected that the result would be convincingly negative. A possible explanation for the unconvincing result is the fact that the period of investigation coincided with some community members receiving some benefits from one of the private investors handling the refinery project with the LFTZ. Therefore, it might be difficult to rule out biases in responses.

The study sought to determine whether or not the location of the respondents had any impact on their views. The Chi-squared test result ($\chi^2=39.831$, $df=8$, $p\text{-value} = 0.000$) shows that the results in the data did not just come about by chance based on the p -value. The result implies that the data obtained in Table 4 were influenced by factors other than chance. Therefore, it can be concluded that the location of the respondents did have a significant influence on the responses to the statement that the PHs have not been involving local clientele and expertise in their operations.

Overall, the results of interviews and content analysis of the MoU provide some important insights into the feelings of the community leaders towards the major stakeholders. Some revelations suggest that the key partners have not been fair to the community in terms of local capacity building for involvement in the infrastructural governance in their domain. The field study conducted across the divisions suggests that there was distinctiveness regarding the extent to which the communities dialogue with the PHs. As revealed during interviews and the FGDs, the Promoters of Badagry Sea Port Project involved the communities more although Badagry communities appear remote than other communities across the divisions. Unlike other projects, the Sea Port is in its procurement stage. Nevertheless, the Youth Forum was trained and engaged in enumeration exercises The Resettlement Committee also comprised members of the communities drawn from various community groups within the affected communities. It is important to note that some community members expressed dissatisfaction over the selection of members that served on the committee and those who were selected for special training from the community by the PHs. The aggrieved community members claimed that the selection was void of fair selection procedures and representation. This allegation was dispelled by most community leaders. While Badagry had issues that had more to do with internal strife (intra-communal); the same cannot be said about other divisions. For instance, Ikorodu and Epe had serious issues with the project handlers and the government.

8.2.4. Collaborative mechanism in place

This section examines the entire participatory processes and the mechanisms adopted by the government and private partners to involve the communities. Community involvement in government projects is not the result of happenstance. It requires a conscious effort by policymakers and policy implementers with other stakeholders to create the right environment for effective participation of every stakeholder (Yong, 2010). Therefore, to avoid mutual suspicion between every stakeholder, all the stakeholders must be involved adequately and be made to know what they need

to know in respect of the project. Any PPP policy that fails to accommodate other network members like the host communities and other groups is a PPP that is implemented based on outdated models (Verhulst and Zahuranec, 2018). Considering the foregoing, there is a need for a shift from the typical contract-based model of PPP to cross-sector collaboration. This process could take a bottom-up and top-down approach (Leifsen, 2017), formal or informal (Flynn, 2008). Whichever participatory format is adopted, an inclusive participatory mechanism de-emphasises shared risk and places more emphasis on shared outcomes. The outcome could only be facilitated by the collaborative mechanisms that are put in place and in which every stakeholder is involved.

In a bid to promote PPP inclusivity, public managers need to facilitate the participatory process. It is their role to determine the ways and manner in which that participation takes place and what methods work best. Therefore, this section attempts to find out the participatory mechanisms that were adopted to engage the communities with the government and private partners. Hence, having identified the various participatory mechanisms, it may be unrealistic to adopt a single process as pointed out in Chapter Two. In this regard, questionnaires were distributed amongst community groups to elicit information regarding participatory mechanism applied in the communities. The attempt was to analyse the existing participatory mechanisms at the sub-national level and to assess their effectiveness in fostering inclusive governance concerning NP4 implementation in the selected communities of Lagos State.

Table 8.5. Showing responses to the mechanisms in use in the divisions in which respondents had participated

PARTICIPATORY STRATEGIES	FREQUENCIES			TOTAL	PERCENTAGE (%)
	BADAGRY	IKORODU	EPE		
Publications/media	6	10	2	18	8.23
Public Meetings	18	14	19	51	23.3
Public Dialogue	11	6	10	27	12.3
Area/Neighbourhood Forums	10	10	12	32	14.6
Shared Interest Forums	4	-	10	14	6.40
Cooption/Committee Work	15	2	15	32	14.6
Focus Groups Meetings	3	8	2	13	5.94
Workshop	6	-	-	6	2.70
E-participation	-	-	-	-	0.00
Complaints & Suggestion Scheme	2	13	-	15	6.84
Question & Answer Section	2	-	1	3	1.34
Nil	2	4	2	8	3.66

Note: The totals in the above do not represent the total number of respondents but a reflection of multiple choices made.

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

The responses in Table 8.6 show that most of the respondents indicated their preference for public meetings across the three divisions. Overall, public meetings had the highest respondents' rate of 23.3%. This is followed by the area/neighbourhood forums and committee work which tally with 14.6% each. A cursory look at the data shows that the two participatory strategies are, on average, mostly applied across the communities respectively. The above results demonstrate that participatory mechanisms are extremely heterogeneous and multifaceted. Therefore, reconciling the heterogeneity becomes more complex because the choices are determined by factors like locality, policy design, policy environment, institutional framework and implementation structure in place (Dean, 2018; Cocciolo & Ghisolfi, 2017; Zhang *et al.*, 2014). Nevertheless, the data also revealed the peculiarity of some communities. Aside from public meetings, members of Ikorodu community groups were more involved with complaints and a suggestion scheme while most members from Badagry and Epe served mostly in committees. Moreover, Badagry community group members seem to have a wider range of involvement in the various participatory strategies like workshops

and in a complaints & suggestion scheme. In all, the data in the table indicate that Badagry has the widest spread of various participatory mechanisms. The next section attempts to look at the matrix analysis for qualitative data using categorised themes.

8.3 Matrix analysis for qualitative data using the categorised themes

For better illustration of qualitative data, the data obtained from focus group discussions and from interviews with key stakeholders especially the traditional rulers and community leaders are reflected in Matrix 8.1 (p.232) which illustrates the various responses in respect of how the existing participatory mechanisms foster participatory governance in the implementation of PPP infrastructural projects in the selected communities of Lagos State.

For instance, the general feelings of respondents at Ikorodu revealed that there was less involvement of the community in the project. Unlike what was gathered in other divisions, the outcome of this information suggests that the others did not link their non-involvement or involvement to any political affiliations. The varied responses between the interviewees and those of the discussants suggest that the community traditional rulers with whom most interviews were held and some of the community leaders that were involved in the discussions responded to issues based on their level of involvement and information at their disposal. However, the thoughts were articulated, summarised and synthesised to reduce the volume of data based on categorical themes and sub-themes to generate the matrix. The matrices (Matrix 8.1 and 8.2) illustrate the aggregates from a wider spectrum of responses from the respondents who participated in a qualitative study in an abridged form to provide a clearer insight based on information gathered during qualitative inquiry.

Matrix 8.1. Analysis for qualitative data on participatory mechanism using categorised themes

Themes/Sub-themes	Participatory Mechanism	Relevant Quotes /Field Sources
<p>Identification of areas of common interest (Item 8, 19, 20, 22) Aluko <i>et al.</i>, 2007; Huxham, 2003</p>	<p>- Either project managers or the community leaders should initiate processes through which both can jointly identify areas of common interest.</p>	<p><i>Suggestions and recommendations towards environmental safety are brought forward and the government looks into it for the benefit of the entire community (OOPPINT001)</i></p> <p><i>The community could still be used to maintain the facilities If they can be empowered through financial support, they can also function in the area of materials supply and so on. (EPPDFGD02)</i></p> <p><i>If they must use community land, it must be based on partnership with the community with the communities having their shares. (IKODFGD03)</i></p> <p><i>The communities are clamouring for a joint partnership. The communities & ATM Terminals have agreed in principles in allocation resettlement, but the issue of sharing profits remains..... BADDFGD05</i></p>
<p>Dialoguing Item 19, 21 Scott & Thomas, 2017; Innes & Booher, 2003; Parker, 2002</p>	<p>- Do PHs or LOPPP maintain consistent dialogue with the communities</p> <p>- To what extent has this facilitated the relationship between parties?</p>	<p><i>Yes.... We have dialogue during conflicts. Most times we have meetings. They allow a question and answer session (EPPDINT001)</i></p> <p><i>They engaged in discussion especially when they wanted to provide certain amenities. Secondly, they invite us to meetings. This is the major participatory strategy being used (IKDDINT01).</i></p>
<p>Involvement of local clientele/local content Item 22 Jo & Nabatchi, 2018; McClulloch <i>et al.</i> 2017; Norton & Hughes, 2017; Adedeji <i>et al.</i>, 2016</p>	<p>- What are the mechanisms employed to have communities' inputs (human & material) in the projects</p> <p>- How has local sourcing of human and material resources have been negotiated for collaboration or partnership?</p>	<p><i>It depends on the need of the project and what the community has to offer (OOPPINT001).</i></p> <p><i>sometimes it depends on the kind of negotiation there are different approaches in PPP arrangement (OOPPINT001)</i></p> <p><i>It hurts to see that people can break their promises..... (EPEDINT01)</i></p> <p><i>....it is the responsibility of any responsible organisation to seek ways to engage members of the community in their operations (IKDDINT01).</i></p>
<p>Collaborative mechanism in place Item 23, 24 Cocciolo & Ghisolfi, 2017; Albert & Passmore, 2008; Smith, 2003; Innes & Booher, 2004</p>	<p>- The project managers have been involving local clientele and expertise in their operations</p>	<p><i>-We usually use neighbourhood forums and public meetings. We also create an opportunity for questions and answers during meetings with them. (OOPPINT001)</i></p> <p><i>- Government has not been doing enough at all. They are neither here nor there. (EPPDINT001)</i></p> <p><i>- It is usually through meetings. Town Hall meetings too sometimes (IKODFGD02).</i></p> <p><i>- we are still negotiating with them by engaging different forums to reason with the government. It is all still talk about the level of education and awareness of the leader which we talked about the other time. (OOPPINT001)</i></p>

Source: Field Survey Data, 2019

For better illustration and analysis, a framework was designed to summarise the qualitative data employing a cross-case matrix. The researcher employed this matrix to shed more light on the relationships between the different themes and levels of the dataset. This matrix was necessary due to the large quantity of textual information generated from the FGDs and interviews conducted to answer the research question that aimed to find out how the existing participatory mechanisms fostered participatory governance in PPP implementation in the selected communities of Lagos State. The outcome of qualitative responses is logically presented in a simple and well-structured manner using the themes that were derived from the theoretical framework guiding this study which was highlighted in Table 8.1. Having identified and coded the data using the descriptive themes, a summary of quantifiable matrices of responses for the emerging variables were recorded in Matrix 8.2 (below):

Matrix 8.2. Summary of qualitative data on participatory mechanisms (quantifiable matrix).

Categorised themes	Badagry	Epe	Ikorodu	Badagry	Epe	Ikorodu
	Focus group Discussion			In-depth Interviews		
Jointly identified areas of common concern	3	3	2	3	3	2
Regular stakeholders meetings	2	2	1	1	2	1
Use/application of local clientele/content	2	2	2	1	2	2
Site safety & Coastal protection	1	2	1	1	2	1
Collaborative mechanisms	2	2	1	3	1	0
Dialoguing	1	2	1	3	3	1
Legend: Existent (E)= 3; Partially-Existent (2)= 2; Not Yet Established (NYE) = 1 Non Existence (NE)= 0						

Source: Field Survey, 2020

Table 8.2 illustrates the summation of qualitative data in quantifiable terms. As shown, both the FGD and interviews score 3 points which show that Badagry communities, the PHs and Badagry Seaport promoters jointly identified areas of common interest as identified earlier. Similarly, the result indicates that there was a joint agreement in Epe Division too as evident in the MoU. Ikorodu

Division scored 2 points because the communities seem to lack any concrete agreement. Nevertheless, private investors made a consultation with the communities to make certain provisions. Analysis of the other themes within the categorised themes showed that the values are relatively higher in the interview than in the FGD. A possible explanation for the variation in value stems from the fact that not all the community leaders who participated in the FGDs take an active part in the entire scheme. Another factor that best explains the discrepancy is attributable to the PHs and even government officials communicate directly with the paramount rulers with whom most interviews were held. However, the FGD discussion was necessary to have a wider opinion and to elicit the feelings of the entire community leaders in all the affected communities; hence, the inconsistencies in the values of both sets of data.

Follow up on the above, item #24 on the questionnaire asked the respondents to indicate the option they considered to be the best amongst the participatory strategies. Figure 8.1 (below) offers a pictorial presentation of responses.

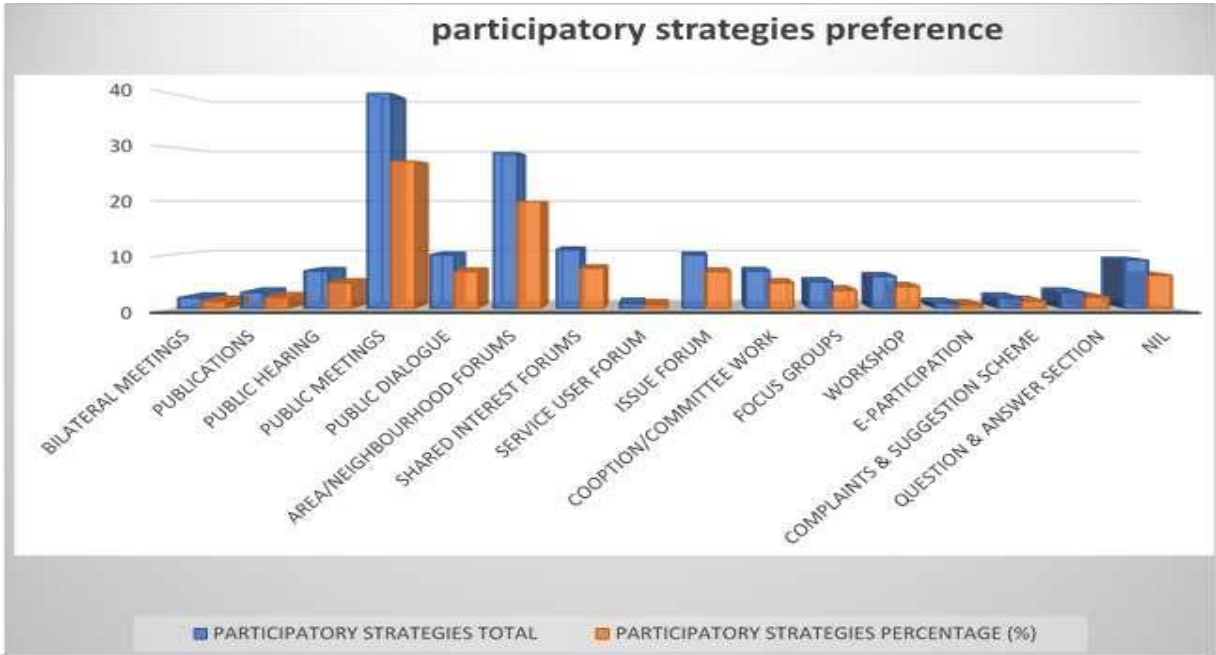


Figure 8.1: Respondents' preference for participatory strategy across the divisions

Source: Field Survey Data, 2020

Figure 8.1 illustrates the respondents' preference for a participatory strategy. In the distributed questionnaire, question 23 requested the participants to pick from amongst the options. The chart reveals that Public meetings have the highest number. 27.4% of the participants had a preference for public meetings. The score was followed by 29 respondents who chose area/neighbourhood forums.

The group constitutes 19.9% of all the respondents. Moreover, 7.8% of the respondents considered shared interest forum as the best participatory strategy. Other participatory strategies which the participants selected were public dialogue and issue forum which had 6.9% each. The participatory mechanism with the least percentage score is e-Participation and 0.9% of the respondents did not respond to the question. The analysis demonstrates that public meetings remain the popular participatory strategy being used by the PHs. Public meetings might be formal or informal but they were usually “transparent, democratic and representative” and are considered effective in meeting specific issues concerning community groups regarding involvement in programmes of public importance (Mapfumo, 2019: 123). Nevertheless, the efficacy of public meetings as an effective democratic participatory mechanism did not reflect in the responses across the divisions as disaffection and howls of marginalisation were still recorded during interrogations in some quarters.

8.4 Analysis as an emerging issue about participatory mechanism: the community involvement vs. quality service delivery debate

While this study established that there is popular support for community participation in project governance, the researcher finds the need to bring to the fore the dissenting view that emerged while discussing participatory mechanism. The participatory mechanism is a two-way process that could be *bottom-up* or *top-down*. According to Leifsen et al., (2017), most local populations contest the *top-down* approach to implementation especially when their resources are affected. Authors have established that the extent to which community members initiate participatory processes from the *bottom-up* is influenced by the way they perceive community involvement and service delivery (Leifsen et al., 2017; Vivier & Wentzel, 2013). Given this, a question was asked to ascertain community perception regarding their preferences for quality service or community involvement to establish that the reason why the community groups did not take the initiative towards initiating participatory processes from the bottom up has a link to their preference for quality service delivery as against participation based on the literature (Vivier & Wentzel, 2013). Figure 8.3 (below) vividly captures the response of community groups to this question.

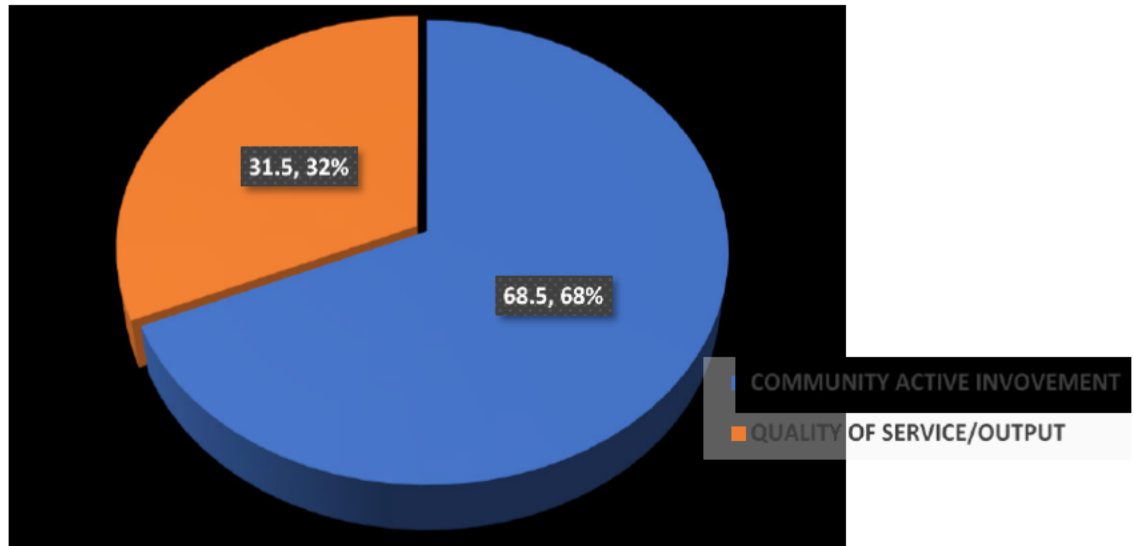


Figure 8.3. Community groups' preference for involvement or quality of service

Figure 8.3 is a pictorial representation to show the analysis of respondents. From the chart, it can be seen that the majority of those who responded to the question (68%) expressed their preference for community involvement in the project. Forty-six (46) participants representing 32% of the respondents' said that they prefer to have a better output and quality service delivery rather than to be involved in the project. The result, therefore, shows that large members of community groups indicated that they would wish that their community is actively involved in the project. The response to this question lends further support to the results earlier obtained in response to the research question that aimed to know whether or not the participatory mechanism in place had direct impact on the people. The response was positive. Importantly, the result established that the lack of initiative on the part of the community to initiate a bottom-up participatory process has no correlation with their preference of quality of service delivery because the majority of respondents expressed their preference for community participation.

Having analysed the various participatory mechanisms and synthesised the results of the two data sets in the preceding sections there will now follow a discussion of the findings in connection with the research questions and objectives of this chapter.

8.5 Discussion of findings

This section integrates findings and broadly discusses issues that emerged from the analysis earlier presented in line with the objective of this paper. As earlier stated, the objective of this chapter was to analyse the existing participatory mechanisms at the sub-national level and their effectiveness in fostering inclusive governance concerning NP4 implementation in the selected communities of

Lagos State. The discussions were based on the following highlighted themes:

8.5.1 Joint identification of areas of common interest

In line with the argument of collaborative theorists, collaborative governance is assessed based on how well it addresses the common interest of stakeholders (Newig et al., 2018). The result of investigations carried out to ascertain whether or not the communities were engaged in a discussion of mutual interest suggests that there were participatory inconsistencies. Findings show that all the communities expressed reservations with PHs but were unable to express this due to government involvement and lack of detailed information. Some communities were persuasively involved to address areas of conflict while conflicts still lingered in some communities because they were not jointly engaged. This study identified areas that required joint consultation such as project governance and management (involvement in board membership), capacity building, environmental safety, job creation, skills acquisition and compensation for already acquired lands and user charges. Moreover, some results suggest that participation in the decision-making process in the identified areas was selective. Beyond identifying issues of common concern, the study found that the low resources of the local communities pose a major threat to their involvement in high-powered meetings which were often held outside the community. Similar to the findings made by Rockloff & Moore (2006), most community leaders were incapacitated and lacked the wherewithal to attend meetings fixed outside of the community. A case was reported during an FGD where members of Ikorodu communities were invited to meetings outside the community to address ecological problems facing the communities. The community leaders appeared to be uncomfortable with the arrangement. The attitude displayed by the community leaders seemed to buttress the argument that most of the communities lacked the capacity and resources to function in participation beyond community level due to cost and other factors among which is the psycho-social factor. (Cocciolo & Ghisolfi, 2017; Antonini *et al.*, 2015; Rockloff & Moore, 2006; Fung 2006). It is possible; therefore, that the low-level capacity of the community representatives placed some restriction on involvement in a joint discussion.

Investigations revealed that each community had its peculiar challenge. for instance, in Badagry, some communities were not willing to allow the project to be sited on their land. They even instituted a legal suit against the state government which called for lengthy negotiations. Nevertheless, compromises were reached in some communities through meetings. While some communities were circumspect and became actively involved, others felt marginalised and therefore became docile. The type of participatory involvement adopted did not occur in isolation, while some communities

were engaged in a robust, engaging discussion, while others communities appeared to become more that more docile due to complaints of non-involvement. For instance, some communities at the Thermal Plant, Ikorodu did not have any joint meeting with the stakeholders until there was massive degradation to the environment and pollution to the natural habitat which made the community groups request for a meeting with the PHs. Another finding about to this suggests that public meetings were held post-ante to resolve environmental problems that arose after the PHs had commenced operations. The study recorded a high impact response that suggests that project managers and administrators engaged the community in a dialogue to explore areas of mutual concern in all the divisions. However, in line with the theoretical conclusion of Huxham & Vangen (2003), the coming together of the practitioners and the community, rather than promote partnership and equity, offered a collaborative advantage to the practitioners at the expense of the communities. The meeting was consultative towards resolving issues and it implies the absence of or connection with the project governance. They were involved because they felt it was necessary to address certain issues of social responsibility jointly and others which include environmental degradations and ecological problems. This, again, violates the views expressed by the democratic governance theorists (Bhoroma, 2018; Campbell & Im, 2016) that the legitimacy of every policy is promoted through wider participation. In conclusion, the attitude of government and the PHs seems to make their view of participatory governance appear as a choice rather than a necessity (Newig et al., 2018). This is because most of the affected communities were not engaged in a two-way discussion that should have allowed them to have input regarding the project development plans, their stakes and areas of opportunities and threats.

8.5.2 Involvement of local clientele/local content

This study established that the host communities to the PPP projects entered into an MoU agreement that promotes local content (MoU, 2006 Section 5c). However, the study found massive infractions and breaches of the agreed obligations regarding local sourcing of manpower and resources as contained in the MoU by the key partners i.e. the government and the private investors. Another important result, complementary to this, was the discovery that suggests that, beyond compensation and employment, the communities would wish that their entrepreneurial capabilities are boosted by localising resource supplies to the projects. For instance, the PPP projects under study are within the coastal region and the coastal communities are agricultural-based; they may require support to bring their produce to the quality and quantity standard of the private firms or project site to create relevance and involvement for them in the PPP operations. The concept of local content compels

firms to source manpower locally and to procure local goods and services from within the locality of its operation, at least, where non-technical jobs are concerned. Therefore, there is a need for the key partners to identify the participatory capacities of the communities viz-a-viz its members for effective engagement.

It is noteworthy that the Nigerian Government recognises the need for local communities to take ownership and control over their resources; therefore, laws have been enacted to build participatory capabilities of Nigeria and its constituents through their inclusion in large industrial projects with international affiliations. An example of such laws is the *Local Content Development Act, 2010*. However, this Act in Nigeria is contextualised within the framework of the Indigenisation Policy to build the local capacity in the oil and gas sector. Some empirical studies have analysed the impact of the Act (McCulloch *et al.*, 2017; Adedeji *et al.*, 2016) and have concluded that the policy has helped in building local capacity, in reducing youth restiveness, agitations and participatory capacity of the host communities in the oil & gas mining industry in Nigeria. Recently, participants at the Nigerian Economic Summit advanced the need to strengthen the backward integration of the local content policies in other sectors including infrastructural development (NESG Report, 2017). In this regard, it is imperative to build the skills and capacity of local communities as a precursor to implementing the local content procedure. The need to explore local resources, both human and material, would yield enhanced active involvement of the communities in the projects (Markantoni, *et al.*, 2018). This study discovered a wide gap in the obligation of the key partners about the sourcing of indigenous manpower and capacity building of community members for effective involvement. For instance, suppliers within the community could not get contracts to make a supply for PPP projects. This was because they could not meet the requirement to bid for the contracts. Secondly, their youths could not secure job placement because, according to them, the manpower needs of the projects were externally sourced. The need to explore local resources would have created avenues that would have enhanced the active involvement of the communities in the projects. Regrettably, most of the agreement reached in the MoU which stipulates that the managing organisation should create employment opportunities for the local people as well as build their entrepreneurial development was ostensibly disregarded in their operation across the divisions except Badagry where the project is still at the procurement stage.

8.5.3 The efficacy of the participatory mechanism and instruments

From the results that were derived during the analysis of data, the most applicable instruments by which most respondents appeared to be involved in the project remained public meetings. Public meetings were favourably applied across the communities. It was also evident from the responses that the modern participatory methods like the technology-based community participatory mechanism like the e-participation were not applied in any of the divisions. This shows that the PHs and government adopted the traditional participatory system. They are yet to embrace technology-driven community participatory mechanisms. The finding that shows that public meetings remain the conventional participatory mechanism in the communities shares some similarities with the outcome of earlier studies by Mapfumo (2019) and Shittu & Musibaudeen (2016). Although Shittu & Musibaudeen (2016) confirmed that conventional or traditional system of public participation is still predominantly used for community information, consultations and involvement in Lagos State. In contrast with another finding by Shittu & Musibaudeen (2016), there seems to be no evidence to suggest that the conventional public participation mechanisms had any positive impact on community involvement in decision-making, support and trust. This finding corroborates the conclusion derived by Swapan (2016: 77) who believes that the participatory aspirations of the community people in most developing countries are quite limited going by the dominance of the traditional participatory system. The limited choice may explain why activism is seen as that which determines *who gets what* in terms of participation in the political context. With the current COVID-19 pandemic situation globally and the emerging technology, the developing economies must begin to shift from the traditional participatory strategy. However, there is a need to weigh the issue of trust and cost and benefits of face-to-face participation based on the opinion of collaborative governance theorists (Michel, 2017; Kim, 2016; Ansell & Gash, 2008). Perhaps this will make them explore a technologically inclined participation mechanism.

Additionally, an investigation found a public meeting to be the most popular participatory mechanism adopted across the divisions to earn community trust and support. From the data gathered, we also found that large numbers of participants have a preference for public meetings. A possible explanation that motivated their choice of the public meeting was attributable to their experience because the strategy should, ordinarily, create more room for wider participation and give a sense of belonging (Mapfumo, 2019; Adams, 2004). Our findings showed that the PHs considered public meetings as an escape route to involve the community. These public meetings were usually called upon in cases of emergency or crisis periods. The meetings were typical of

manipulative strategy to feign “high-sounding rhetorics of grassroots participation” in line with Arnstein’s theory (2015: 221). It was gathered that the meetings were poorly organised and, in most cases, no agreements were reached.

Therefore, this study made an effort to know the role that dialogue played in facilitating the relationship between stakeholders involved in the PPP projects and the community. Findings in this regard also revealed that LOPPP is empowered to facilitate interaction and negotiation between every stakeholder within the PPP framework; i.e the partnering MDAs, the private investors, and the local communities. Moreover, Section 8 subsection 19 of the *PPP Act* recognises the community groups, NGOs, Civil Organisations, etc. These groups were identified as external stakeholders. Participants in this study, at both the institutional and community levels, were interviewed based on the indications that the communities were not usually engaged in dialogue until the various groups within the community agitated for this to happen. Going by the institutional arrangement, the public managers at the LOPPP facilitated dialogic interactions that should have enhanced collaborative decision-making, reduced tension and created social cohesion amongst the various stakeholders through the meeting (Scott & Thomas, 2017; Goodlad *et al.*, 2005). Although, the public managers initiated the maiden meeting that introduced the PHs and launched the programme to the community after that they become apathetic and docile about happenings between the PHs and their host communities.

Nevertheless, it was recorded that a considerable level of dialogue was held in Badagry and Epe during the initial stages of the project. A possible explanation in this regard may be linked to the imminent resettlement of some communities in the two divisions. Therefore, there was a need to employ various strategies and more dialogic mechanisms like the use of co-option committee work, neighbourhood forums, public dialogue and media publications. As contained in the MoU, it was the duty of the local government to facilitate the dialogue and negotiations between the communities and the major stakeholder (MoU section 5c).

Studies were found that demonstrate that the active involvement of the citizenry in decision-making processes largely depends on the level to which the planning agencies involve the people through a functional collaboration through high-powered participatory mechanisms (Newig *et al.*, 2018; Swapan, 2016). The mechanism used in citizenship participation is very symbolic as a policy instrument (Boussaguet, 2015). Nevertheless, there seems to be little attention given to how participatory mechanisms are applied by planning agencies in PPP project governance and community stakeholding in Nigeria. The result of this current investigation reveals that the

consultation of planning agencies with the communities at the initial stages was merely to inform the community leaders that the community had been chosen as the best location for the infrastructural project. The agencies do not see the need to make wider consultation until the various groups within the community protest. Findings from Ikorodu and partly from Epe confirmed this. Meetings were held with a few community leaders to inform them about the project. Again, we found that selective participation was one of the problems in the communities. Our earlier finding has shown that early involvement had an impact on the participatory process (detail in Chapter 6). This finding corroborates the ideas of Swapan (2014: 193) who established that the “diminishing level of trust at the initial stage discourages community members from taking roles in the participatory process”. Although the current study is based on a small sample of participants, however, going by the descriptive analysis of section 8.4, most community members agreed, in principle that they would wish to collaborate rather than, receive basic benefits from the projects. The finding, therefore, shows that the apathy demonstrated by members of Ikorodu communities towards involvement was more of socio-psychological withdrawal as a result of their alienation (Cocciolo & Ghisolfi, 2017; Falanga & Antonini, 2013). There is, therefore, a definite need for the project handlers and the LOPPP to meet the psychological needs of the community members in respect of the project being the first step to achieve participation and trust-building.

It is apparent from our findings at the community level that the aspirations of the community members to be involved were still at their lowest ebb. Based on the theoretical postulates of the ladder of citizenship participation, participation in the PPP project governance across the divisions was still at the level of *non-participation*, or at most, *tokenism* in most of the communities. Investigation across the communities showed that some of the communities still operated under a non-participatory level, although, they were involved in a ‘therapeutic’ group meeting, the forum meetings, the question and answer session that could, more or less, be described as manipulative based on Arnstein’s ladder theory. The involvement through some of the participatory mechanisms did not connote involvement in real terms. The study found that whilst a few community members have participated in one form or the other, the vast majority in the communities were not involved beyond the public meeting that launched the projects. The few influential members of the communities, who were involved, realised that their involvement is better described as ‘tokenistic’. It was obvious that the involved community leaders and groups were searching within the cluster of *information*, *consultation* and *placation*. The dialogue held in some communities seems promising. For instance, the dialogue that brought about the MoUs between the communities and the key

stakeholders in Badagry and Epe seemed to want to take the communities beyond the level of tokenism to the level of partnership and control. Nevertheless, the situation, as at the time of this report, is still far from the ideal because of the contentions and disaffection that were observed among the members of the host communities in respect of the PPP projects.

Illustrating participatory mechanisms within the context of collaborative governance theory sharpens our understanding of the ideal PPP-PIF that drives community participation. Amongst several scholarly works on public involvement using the theoretical framework of collaborative governance, this study identified a thin gap. The identified gap in the literature relates to the need to refine the mindset of the citizenry, in this case - the communities that it is possible to form a mutually beneficial alliance with the government as the government begins the shedding of some of its erstwhile activities through collaborations and partnerships. Therefore, collaboration within the PPP framework should avoid the paternalistic philosophy which dominates the top-down vertical model that was naturally entrenched between the state and the people in the Nigerian system. Community collaborative governance, emphasises the horizontal network-based system or a system that supports a hybrid system (Adama, 2018; Michel, 2017; Kim, 2016). Because of this, prior studies have argued that collaboration ought to create opportunities for non-state actors to be involved in the processes of public policy and implementation (Newig *et al.*, 2017; Emerson & Nabatchi, 2015).

It is interesting to note that most host communities appeared to be perceptive of their stake in the projects which ought to warrant their involvement. They were however aware that they had limited capacity for meaningful involvement. Nevertheless, authors such as Yuesti & Sumantra, (2017) and Markantoni *et al.*, (2018) have argued that most communities would require support through empowerment before they can add value to developmental projects around them. The conclusion drawn from this is that most of the communities investigated required external support to boost their participatory potentials and that they should talk less about collaboration at this stage. Nevertheless, there are still areas in which they could participate if they create necessary harmonious relationship which can only be promoted through effective participatory strategies and design. In light of the foregoing, we conclude that participatory mechanisms available to the communities and the level of community empowerment are major determinants of the extent of their participation in any policy implementation. Furthermore, the participatory mechanism will promote learning through a network system. The learning phase will be a precursor for future collaboration. In conclusion, this study found proof that demonstrates that the communities wished to be a stakeholder in line with the

dictates of democratic elements in network governance theory, but they recognised their present incapacitation. Therefore, it could be conceivably hypothesised that what matters to the community at this stage, is the involvement that will give them a sense of belonging in the projects and not really collaboration if we are to go by the position of collaborative theorists (Newig, 2018; Emerson & Nabatchi, 2015).

8.6 Summary of the chapter

The chapter set out to analyse the influence of community leadership in facilitating participatory governance in the selected communities while implementing the National Policy on Public-Private Partnership (NP4). The chapter began with an introduction and a preliminary review after which the data obtained from the field were presented and analysed. The findings from interviews and the FGD were complemented by the results obtained from the returned questionnaire that project managers and administrators had been engaging some communities in a dialogue to explore areas of mutual concern in a few communities. The research also demonstrates that public meeting was the most popular participatory mechanism adopted across the divisions towards earning community trust and support. From the data gathered, a large number of respondents expressed preference for public meetings. Moreover, this study discovered a wide gap in the obligation of the key partners to have rapport that would allow them to source an indigenous workforce within the communities. Despite their preference, conclusions were drawn that community involvement in PPP project governance was still at a therapeutic stage because most community members were not involved beyond the public meeting that launched the projects. The chapter added to the growing body of research that indicates that every community desires to have a sense of belonging in any activities going on in their communities. The onus is on key players to develop a participatory strategy that will give the community that belongingness irrespective of the level of their technical knowledge and competence. The next chapter, which is the concluding chapter of this study, will present the synopsis of the entire thesis. Major highlights of the chapter include a summary of the entire work, the conclusion, recommendations and contributions of the study to the existing body of literature.

CHAPTER NINE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND GENERAL CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

This final chapter presents the overall report and summary of the research findings, the researcher's recommendations and the conclusion. The researcher's broad objective was to analyse the involvement of the host communities in the implementation of the NP4 and the extent to which the ICRC Act, 2005 (national) aligns with the Lagos State PPP Law to promote ideal collaborative values that build trust and that promote shared governance in selected PPP infrastructural projects in Lagos State. Supported by different theories and relevant literature, this current study draws substantially from the themes of the collaborative governance model to arrive at certain specific objectives. These objectives determine how the implementation of the *National Policy on Public-Private Partnership* framework promotes or inhibits host community participation through its institutional design, initial stage involvement, leadership at the community level and, lastly, through its participatory processes. Other sub-themes emerged from the afore-mentioned themes upon which the researcher generated two sets of data that were analysed and subsequently discussed.

The overall structure of this chapter takes the form of 12 key sections including this introductory section. In the next section, the researcher shall present a summary of the main outcomes of both qualitative and quantitative data analysis. A section of this chapter shall succinctly give a synopsis of the literature review. The fifth section will show the summaries of the previous chapters (Chapters 1-8). The basic recommendation in respect of the study will then be presented. A section will highlight the limitations of the study after which suggestions for further investigations will be made. The potential contribution of this study to the knowledge of policy implementation and community stakeholding will also be detailed. The last section will make a general conclusion that marks the end of the thesis.

9.2 Restatement of research objectives and research questions

Generally, this study sought to analyse the place of the host communities as stakeholders in the implementation of the National Policy on PPP, to identify the problem with the current policy framework using the constructs emanating from collaborative governance and to develop a workable model based on experiential findings. Table 9.1 illustrates the research questions vis-à-vis the specific research objectives.

Table 9.1 Restatement of research questions and objectives of the study

Research Questions	Research Objectives
1. How has the institutional framework for the implementation of NP4 facilitated community participation in the execution of PPP infrastructural projects in selected communities of Lagos State?	1. To investigate the extent to which the institutional framework for the implementation of the National Policy on PPP facilitates the involvement of the host communities in the execution of PPP infrastructural projects in the selected communities of Lagos State.
2. How do the involvement or non-involvement of the communities at the outset of the implementation impact on trust and community support for the NP4 in Lagos State?	2. To ascertain the impact on of early involvement or non- involvement of the communities in the implementation of the Policy on Public-Private Partnership on trust and community support for NP4.
3. What impact has community leadership made on their community involvement In the implementation of NP4 in the various Communities?	3. To find out the influence of community leadership in facilitating participatory governance in the selected communities in the implementation of National Policy on Public-Private Partnership.
4. How has the existing participatory mechanisms fostered participatory governance of the key stakeholders and the host communities in the implementation of PPP in the selected communities of Lagos State?	4. To analyse the existing participatory mechanisms at the sub-national level and their effectiveness in fostering inclusive governance concerning NP4 implementation in the selected communities of Lagos State.

9.3 Summary of each chapter

Structurally, this study was presented in nine chapters. The summary of each chapter is outlined as follows:

Chapter One: The chapter presented the background to the entire study which aimed at examining the involvement of the host communities in the implementation of the National Policy on PPP in Lagos, Nigeria. The chapter begins with the presentation of the broad background of the study where the fundamental problem of PPP implementation in Nigeria stemming from the agitation from host communities is explained. The chapter traced the historical background of National Policy on PPP at the national level and how the Lagos State Law on PPP emerged. The researcher problematised the concepts of community participation with regard to developmental policy using the theoretical perspective of collaborative governance. The constructs of collaborative governance theory (i.e. institutional design, early involvement, facilitative leadership and collaborative design) form the basis upon which the four research questions and objectives of the study were derived. Highlights of the research objectives vis-à-vis the research questions were presented as shown in Table 9.1 (p.246) of this chapter. Another important aspect of Chapter One includes the significance of the study, the scope of the study, limitations and structure. These items provided an overview of the study and laid the foundational framework upon which the study was built. Each chapter usually ends with a

section that summarises the entire chapter.

Chapter Two: The chapter began with a preliminary review of scholarly works concerning the subject of this study. The chapter outlined the conceptual and theoretical dimensions of this study. Four theories that underpinned the study received considerable attention in this chapter. The theories were collaborative governance theory, the ladder of citizenship participation, network governance theories (and Institutional Analysis and Development (IAD) theories. Also, the conceptual framework was discussed. The conceptual framework of the study was built around the following constructs: institutional design, early involvement, facilitative leadership and participatory mechanisms. These concepts were discussed and other related concepts like PPP, public participation, and collaborative governance, were broadly explained with reference to other scholarly works. Importantly, having presented a broad review of scholarly work in the subject area, the researcher identified a space for this study amongst the existing literature.

Chapter Three: The chapter offered a general overview of PPP in the Nigerian context. The chapter also presented the overview of infrastructural development in Nigeria and highlighted the efforts made by successive governments through their neo-liberal policies that culminated in the launch of PPP. The chapter also offered a description of the projects being studied. The chapter brought to the fore the institutional framework and policy analysis of PPP in Lagos State and undertook a content review of LUA and MoUs as well as other resource materials that were considered instrumental for analysis. The crux of the chapter rested on community freehold rights to land expropriated for developmental projects.

Chapter Four: The chapter concerned itself with the details of the methodology and various methods through which data were gathered and analysed. The chapter established the philosophical orientation upon which the study was framed using the Research Onion. Moreover, the chapter offered an insight into the population of the study and also highlighted how the sample was determined using a Yemane formula which was adjusted to determine the exact sample size. The chapter highlighted the method of analysis as well as the research approach. Moreover, the chapter spelled out the various analytical tools for both sets of data collected and the justification for the adoption of different quantitative and qualitative analytical tools was offered. The chapter concluded by stating that the research study was carried out in strict compliance with the ethical guidelines laid down by UKZN Research Ethics Office.

Chapter Five: The analyses and discussion of the findings of the study were carried out to determine how the institutional framework of the NP4 in conjunction with Lagos State Law on PPP facilitates community involvement. Two sets of data were analysed and synthesised for further discussion. Analysis conducted in Chapter five reveals that the institutionalised framework recognises community relevance; however, there was no established role for the community in the entire framework. Both qualitative and quantitative data pointed to the need to design an institutionalised framework with established roles and communication systems for the communities as stakeholders.

Chapter six: The chapter carried out the qualitative and quantitative analysis to know whether or not there were incentives to engage the people early enough in the implementation process and how the process built the trust and community support for the project. In all, both qualitative and quantitative data corroborated the notion that early involvement impacted the trust and confidence of the community members and groups positively. The chapter demonstrated, based on statistical results, that communities that had strong support for PPP projects were those communities that were involved at the earliest stage of project implementation by the PHs.

Chapter Seven: The chapter aimed to find out the influence of community leadership in facilitating participatory governance in the selected communities during NP4 implementation. The chapter began with the introduction and a preliminary review after which both qualitative and quantitative data obtained from the field survey were presented and analysed. Synthesis of results showed that community leadership and the abilities of the focal person have a great influence on community involvement. Also, this had a great impact on the benefits derived by some communities in terms of social and economic empowerment in the PPP Policy implementation. Findings further revealed that communities that have educated leaders were more involved than communities with leaders with lower levels of education. Lastly, this chapter did not find any correlation between leaders' political affiliations and affected communities' involvement. In Conclusion, the chapter aligns the findings with the theoretical framework of democratic governance theory to establish that policymakers and implementors need the leadership of the institutionalised community groups for inclusive governance.

Chapter Eight: The chapter determined the influence of community leadership in facilitating participatory governance in the selected communities while implementing the National Policy on Public-Private Partnership (NP4). The chapter commenced with the introduction and preliminary review after which both qualitative and quantitative data obtained from the field survey were

presented and analysed. Both qualitative and quantitative data found a high impact response that suggests that project managers and administrators had engaged the community in a dialogue to explore areas of mutual concern in all the divisions. The chapter gave evidence that the state institutions did not play their facilitative role required for effective participation between the PHs and their host communities. This study found no ‘unified’ ‘participatory mechanism endorsed by the state for the PHs by which their relationships with their host were guided. Hence, their strategies were disaggregated such that volatile communities benefited in dialogues that have resulted in some form of benefits to the communities. This was not the in some other communities. There were indicators that most of the communities were engaged in ‘window dressing’ sort of public meetings. From the information gathered, the researcher was able to deduce that the meetings were used a ‘manipulative’ participatory strategy to avoid hostilities from the communities and to have interaction with them rather than involving them. Other forms of participatory strategies used negatively to anipulate and manouver the communities include complaints and suggestion schemes, question and answer sections, publication and media in the case of the larger public. The chapter also established that a wide gap existed in the obligation of the key partners to source an indigenous workforce and to build the capacity of community members. Moreover, the chapter found the need to put an effective participatory system in place by the key stakeholders through wider consultation and effective application of other participatory mechanisms, both conventional and modern, as the only way to ease the disaffection amongst community groups. It concluded that the participatory mechanism should promote learning through networking towards future collaboration in line with the governance theories.

9.4 Summary of research findings of the objectives of the study

The findings that were derived from the study have been analysed and discussed in detail in previous chapters. By convention, the highlights of the findings need to be summarised in this chapter. Hence, the researcher captures the highlights in line with the research objectives as follows:

9.4.1 Institutional design

OBJECTIVE #1: To investigate the extent to which the institutional framework for the implementation of the NP4 facilitates the involvement of the host communities in the execution of PPP infrastructural projects in the selected communities of Lagos State.

Major findings:

- The NP4 policy document that established NP4 (national) and the law that established PPP

implementation (LSPPP Law, 2011) recognise the host communities as a critical stakeholders in the success of PPP.

- The study found no institutional role entrenched for the host communities in the PPP-PIF at the state and national levels.
- The study found no coherent, uniform or standardised procedure for the PH to relate to their host in the project domain. Hence, the processes of community involvement were left to the discretion of the PHs. Therefore, while some communities enjoyed the benevolence of the PHs in some divisions, others had to agitate for attention.
- The study found no feedback review system in place by which the PPP policy implementers know how the project affects the various communities, interest groups and members.
- The administrator demonstrated open reluctance and indifference towards facilitating community involvement across all the affected communities

Emerging theoretical proposition from findings from Objective #1: Beyond compensation, host communities to PPP projects wish to have institutionalised roles crafted for them in PPP-PIF as stakeholders in the infrastructural governance of the state.

9.4.2 Early involvement

OBJECTIVE #2: To ascertain the impact of early involvement or non-involvement of the communities in the implementation of the Policy on Public-Private Partnership on trust and community support for NP4.

Major findings:

- The PHs conducted initial advocacies across divisions. The intensity of free, prior & informed consent (FPIC) varied across the communities. The cause of the variations is connected to the lack of a coherent institutional policy framework identified during the analysis of the first objective of the study.
- Some communities were disingenuously involved in the planning process, but their involvement drastically reduced during the implementation phase of the projects.
- There were dissenting communities outrightly rejected ceding their lands for the projects but had little or nothing to do when decisions were already legitimised against their will due to state government involvement. Some communities felt deceived when they realised it was a collaborative venture in which private partners play a dominant role.
- Another finding linked to the preceding point is that some communities lacked detail knowledge

about the project in the initial stages. This invariably led to some communities becoming docile and apathetic.

- Initial advocacy carried out by the PHs in some communities created a good forum for a mutually beneficial discussion at the outset of project implementation between the host communities and the PHs in a few communities.
- Most communities expressed dissatisfaction with their level of involvement from the outset of the projects which significantly hampered their trust and support for the projects.
- Against recommendation by FAO Voluntary Guideline on the Governance of Tenure (VGGTs) and World Bank's Land Governance Assessment Framework (LGAF), the EIA and SIA were carried out in major communities without the input and awareness of local communities.

Emerging theoretical proposition from findings from Objective #2: Early involvement through open participation and participatory planning does not only build trust but it has a multiplier effect of mobilising initial support for the projects in most communities.

9.4.3 Facilitative role of community leaders

OBJECTIVE #3: To find out the influence of community leadership in facilitating participatory governance in the selected communities in the implementation of the NP4

Major findings:

- Community leadership and the abilities of the focal person have a great influence on the benefits derived by some communities in terms of social and economic empowerment in the administration of PPP Policy implementation in Lagos State.
- This study established that no correlation existed between community leaders' affiliation with political parties and their community involvement or non-involvement in the PPP infrastructural project governance. Education of some community leaders was helpful for effective interaction and negotiation with the PHs and government on issues related to the community stake in the collaborative process.

Emerging theoretical proposition from findings from Objective #3:

- Communities that have active and educated leaders were more pro-actively involved than communities with leaders who are less active and possess a lower level of education.
- The involvement or non-involvement of the communities did not correlate with leaders' political affiliations.

9.4.4 Collaborative process (a participatory mechanism)

OBJECTIVE #4: How have the existing participatory mechanisms fostered participatory governance of the key stakeholders and the host communities in the implementation of PPP in the selected communities of Lagos State?

Major findings:

- Some communities were persuasively involved at the initial stage of PPP projects implementation and encouraged to jointly identify areas of collaboration and to address issues of common concern;
- The low resource capacity of the local communities posed a major threat to their involvement in high-powered meetings which were often held outside the community;
- The stage of the project and level of activism of community leaders are major determinants of the participatory approach adopted by the PHs;
- Active communities were exposed to a wider range of participatory process than docile communities;
- The study records massive infractions of the agreed arrangement towards participatory governance regarding local sourcing of manpower and resources as contained in the MoU; and
- The public meeting which was the most popular participatory mechanism adopted across the divisions remains a mere avenue to relay information to the community. Such meetings were superficial because they were not dialogic.

Emerging theoretical proposition from findings from Objective #4: There was no evidence to suggest that the conventional public participation mechanisms had any positive impact on community groups' suspicion and lack of trust in the projects.

Having presented the findings as well as the theoretical propositions that emerged from each of the objectives of this study, the next section sets out to explain the conclusions drawn from the results as well as implications. Recommendations that are considered critical to the results shall also be made in the various sub-sections.

9.5 Conclusions, Implications and Recommendations

The researcher made some summarised interpretations in this section. Conclusions were made in line with the implications of findings on each of the governance constructs that make up the objectives of this study. Recommendations were made in terms of policy and practice based on the interpretation of the findings.

9.5.1 Institutional design

Conclusion

This study established that the adversarial challenges facing the host communities to PPP projects in Lagos State are fundamental and the problem will not abate until policymakers recognise the host communities as institutions whose stakeholding is strategic to Lagos State PPP policy framework (LSPPP Law, 2011). It is instructive to note that PPP recognise the host communities as stakeholders, but either by omission or commission, they fail to accord any institutionalised role to the host community within the policy framework. Hence, the PHs exercised wide discretionary powers by establishing interactions with the host communities of their own volition. Significantly, this study has been able to invalidate the theoretical argument that dominates research space that most host communities only require compensation for land and community resources affected in the course of the project. The more significant evidence that emerges from this study suggests that, beyond compensation, the host communities to PPP projects wish to have institutionalised roles crafted for them in PPP-PIF as a stakeholder in the infrastructural governance of the state. The study established that most crises that rocked project sites were avoidable had there been an institutional framework that creates room for feedback from the community arena. Generally, the study concluded that the framework for the implementation of NP4 in Lagos State has been regimented, over-bureaucratic and fragmented thereby making it difficult for the host-community to initiate a bottom-up participatory process.

Implications of study (Objective #1)

This study has identified some fundamental theoretical implications for the general body of research on public participation in policy implementation to consider. The researcher has combined some basic and applied research elements to practical problems of policy outcomes. Based on empirical findings, the study found results that suggest that the host communities are conscious of their stakes in the project. They are, therefore, likely to continue to agitate for involvement until they are integrated into the institutional framework for PPP policy implementation.

Through the community-based approach, the study was able to discover high-impact inconsistencies, incoherencies and disharmonised rapport between the PHs as the end-product of the lack of a harmonised institutional framework. An important element in collaborative systems is how the institutional design accommodates public involvement in the collaborative governance framework. A key implication of this research study is the finding that exposed the incongruencies in the way and manner the PHs operations were being carried out. Despite the similarities of the PPP projects under study (Joint ventures), established under similar contexts and circumstances (institutional PPP) and similar characteristics of all the 31 affected communities (coastal communities with similar socio-economic features); the benefits derived from the host communities varied. This study seems to be the first attempt to thoroughly examine and determine that the approach adopted by the PHs in their community relations across project sites was not guided by any established guideline within the context of an institutional framework. This understanding explains the reason why some communities will continue to enjoy the benevolence of the PHs in terms of advocacies, CRS and interactive communication while many other communities suffer neglect and exclusion.

It is important to note that the study's analysis of institutional design opens up the essential questions regarding the evaluation of policy impact, evaluation and review. The investigation exposed a major institutional laxity that did not receive adequate attention from the policymakers and bureaucrats. This laxity emanated from the seeming non-existence of effective communication channels and feedback mechanisms occasioned by the alienation of the community from the implementation process. This study found explanations that suggest that the underestimation of policy feedback, which community networks should have promoted, offered theoretical reflections on policy impact evaluation, early conflict resolution, and collaborative management.

Recommendations for policy and practice:

Having found the framework for the implementation of NP4, at the community level to be regimented, over-bureaucratic top-down in approach and fragmented, the study offers the following recommendations:

For Policymakers: The policymakers would need to redesign the NP4 so that the host communities are empowered with specific roles as stakeholders in the existing infrastructural governance arrangement. Their roles should be institutionalised within the confines of the PPP-PIF rather than leaving the decision on whether or not to involve the community to the discretionary powers of the bureaucrats and the PHs. The challenge now is to re-design the institutional framework in a way that incorporates the communities into the partnership network. The policymakers need to seek inputs from the community to inform PPP policy decisions regarding project design and feasibility studies using advocacy, and advisory approaches to provide key information that would facilitate the take-off of the project. They should commit human, material and intellectual resources valuable for the survival of the projects and should do so in a way that creates a good climate that will facilitate implementation. To look down on the prowess of the local communities may spell chaos that often results in the failures of viable projects.

It is practically impossible to get any policy right in the first instance; hence the need to put a mechanism in place for policy feedback and review. Because of this, the subsisting situation requires that a stakeholder roundtable conference be held to take a holistic view of how the plight of the host communities can be addressed by all concerned stakeholders. In relation to this, policymakers need to put machinery in place through which it assesses performance and activities of the PHs and administrators over time. In this regard, the policy makers could design a participatory impact assessment (PIA) framework for the national or LSPPP policy framework. Through the PIA, this could identify key questions as well as specific methods to implement some of the recommendations made in this study. Policy makers could outsource this responsibility or assign this to the LOPPP design the framework.

Moreover, policymakers need to realise that the role of the communities is strategic to policy monitoring and evaluation. Given this, there is a need to point out that to involve the community in any policy process does not, in any way, connote supplying information and supporting them; rather, it is about creating a sense of community belongingness and empowering them to play an active role in the participatory process. The researcher offers the following as the medium through which the community can be well informed and empowered for an active role in the collaboration process.

For practitioners/bureaucrats: The bureaucrats ought to assist the government in the following areas:

- *Community education:* For the community to play an active role, the government needs to provide complete and balanced information that will enrich their knowledge to make informed decisions. This can be done through circulars, seminars, workshops and dialogue.
- *Community input:* Input from the community will assist in soliciting opinions from the host communities through advising, advocacy or call for papers or memorandums. For the input to be effective, effective feedback mechanisms must be in place. Such mechanisms will be of immense benefit to the policymakers, the government, the implementation agency and the community. It will assist the community to know the influence that their input has on the overall policy outcomes.
- *Community interaction and dialogue:* There is the need for constant interaction between the government, its agencies and the host communities. Such interactions should be organised by the government in such a way that it will facilitate the exchange of information and ideas among community members, planners and decision-makers towards consensus. Moreover, the interaction reduces friction as it creates room for mutual expression that will promote the spirit of cooperation and trust.
- *Design and administration of PIA:* While participatory impact assessment was recommended for policymakers, the responsibility lies with the administrators to design the framework, to ensure its efficient administration and to feedback reports to all the stakeholders including the policymakers. The feedback should measure the project and non-project participatory impact of PPP infrastructural development on the host communities.

For academics and scholars: This study, in line with the first objective, has linked the major challenge of community involvement to the defective institutional design. The study has revealed the inadequacies and made its propositions. However, there are still gaps to be filled by future researchers and authors in policy study, public management and cognate fields.

Researchers and policy authors should begin to describe collaborative governance beyond the engagement of the private sector in a formalised way in various dimensions of public life. Scholars have much to do to change the narrative of PPP policy design to ensure that community stake holding is embedded in PPP institutionalised structure

9.5.2 Early involvement

Conclusions

This investigation has demonstrated that early involvement builds trust and project support. It was established that communities, where there was a level of public mistrust, were communities with a low level or non-involvement at the initial stages. Generally, lack of transparency and inappropriate advocacy recorded at the initial stage breeds docility and apathy in most communities owing to a lack of basic knowledge about the projects. Moreover, communities that seemed to have been well engaged at the initial stages only experienced ‘therapeutic’ and ‘manipulative’ involvement because (1) there was a flagrant disregard for initial agreed-upon principles and tenets of participatory planning at a later stage (2) the promoters did not do enough to have all-inclusive advocacy with community groups. The exclusion of community groups in planning and initial advocacy accounted for the resilience recorded in most communities.

Implications of the study (Objective #2)

The literature that addressed the issue of initial stage involvement did not advance our insight beyond normative understanding. This study seems to be the first coordinated investigation on community early involvement in infrastructural governance. The study has highlighted the practical implications of how the building of trust at the earlier stage determines the extent to which the host communities give support to the project. As it stands, the community that made the greatest demands on the PHs were those communities that lacked coordinated processes through effective policy advocacy in the early stages. If Lagos State and, indeed, Nigeria wants to ensure appropriate systems in its collaborative infrastructural governance system, services and support for initial involvement of the host communities in PPP implementation should be given a policy priority by the policymakers.

The problem-solving approach adopted for this investigation has gone some way to enhance our knowledge base and also to make positive contributions to our understanding in the following key areas:

- Advocacy impacted positively on the trust and community support for the PPP programmes in communities; and
- Most communities did not participate in the conduct of EIA and SIA.

Moreover, this study has made a notable contribution to the debates concerning early involvement.

The implication of the study's contribution to this debate was not based on theoretical speculation. The result that supports early involvement as demonstrated in the empirical evidence was an end-product of a community-based pragmatic approach. This result constitutes an excellent step towards resource planning which would involve every stakeholder right from the outset of the policy implementation process.

Recommendations for policy and practice

For policymakers: There is a need for policymakers to develop a comprehensive participatory planning system in collaboration with LOPPP for PPP implementation in Lagos State. The system should take cognisance of the need to evaluate the grievances of the community regarding non-involvement in preliminary processes of environmental impact assessments and social impact assessments and should devise a strategy to make up for the flaws especially at Ikorodu and Epe communities. Device to address the system should not be based on single measures; multiple measures should be put in place to promote the satisfaction of stakeholders at the inception. Below are few suggestions in this regard:

- Policymakers should initiate bills that will make it mandatory for community representatives to be part of the Board for the project as soon as the location for the project has been determined. This bill when passed should supersede the MoU which, from the researcher's findings, has not been respected by the key parties to the partnership.
- As demonstrated in Chapter 6, the evidence from this study suggests that the EIA was contracted out by the LOPPP in most of the communities. Findings further expressed the possibility that the communities neither participated nor accessed the report. The assessment was done without considering local interests. This invariably violates international conventions and best practices. This study strongly condemns this and recommends that policymakers should include the community representative as a signatory to the EIA and SIA report before it becomes authenticated.
- Policymakers should ensure that PPP policy is given a human face right from the earliest phase of conception to procurement and development. The policy design should have a level of flexibility that will not prompt the administrators to take some initiatives that are sensitive to community concerns and which would cause forestall resentments. As it stands, the policy purpose is good but initial stage policy processes regarding community stakeholding seemed to be frailed with insensitivity to other stakeholders.

In conclusion, policymakers in Lagos State are urged to understand the intricacies of community involvement and they should challenge the non-involvement at the early stage of PPP implementation to preserve acceptance of the policy. In this regard, Lagos State House of Assembly needs to revisit the Lagos State PPP law enacted in the year 2011 to ensure that the Law governing the implementation of PPP in Lagos State provides that community representatives must constitute members of any committee on infrastructural projects from the inception. Community contributions to early planning decisions should be at the centre of the discussion on participatory planning. Issues such as land-use decisions, neighbourhood planning consultations, first-line labour engagements, community advocacy should be the focus of the national or state PPP policy review.

For practitioners/bureaucrats

- *Engagement of Community Relations Officer:* As a matter of urgency, the ICRC and LOPPP should create an office that will facilitate inter-communal relations and employ a community relations officer, a graduate with significant experience in community relations, whose role would be to coordinate, facilitate and maintain a harmonious relationship between the key stakeholders and their host communities.
- *Need for re-orientation and training of front-line personnel:* The field officers of the LOPPP and ICRC need to be offered specialised training for astute implementation of the policy. The field officers should be inducted and well informed about how to conduct community engagement practices and about the role they are to play in facilitating harmonious relationships among the key stakeholders and host communities. There is also the need to re-orientate the administrators that are glued to the bureaucratic orientation. Most of the resentments witnessed from the community were avoidable if the administrators had played their role well during the advocacy stage with the community leaders on behalf of the government. LOPPP should collaborate with similar agencies in other countries to emulate the successful practices of PPP in the context of stakeholders' involvement.
- *Ensure compliance of every stakeholder with the agreed terms in the MoU:* The finding reveals an utter disregard for the agreed terms of the MoU by the project managers, which has always resulted in conflicts between the PHs and their host communities. It is the responsibility of the public managers to ensure that PHs respect and act on the agreements of the signed MoU.

For the communities: The evidence from this study suggests that the communities lack the requisite knowledge to negotiate during the EIA and SIA conducted at the early stage of a project. For that reason, it is recommended that the communities should engage the services of professionals like lawyers, civil society organisations, architects and environmentalists to assist them in negotiations during the early stages. Although, most communities were excluded from the exercise, nevertheless, some of the communities that were carried along expressed suspicion of foul play. The communities made insinuations that suggested manipulation. To forestall this undesirable situation, they should engage their trusted professionals to bargain on their behalf. Moreover, as much as the MDAs need to embark on advocacies with the communities, community leaders should do some advocacy too to take active interventions towards influencing government policy in their favour. They need to parley with the government and also align with the private investors and PHs right from the onset rather than maintaining an antagonistic position.

For scholars: While this study has tended to give attention to the interpretive significance of the activities of the PHs in the initial stages, the researcher could not engage with the PHs for a more balanced report due to constraints beyond the researcher's control. Therefore, this research study has prompted many questions that need further investigation for authors who may wish to further the knowledge in this subject area. Further research is needed to account for the varying levels of initial involvement across the communities; such research will require that the PHs take centre stage in the investigation.

9.5.3 Facilitative role of community leaders

Conclusion

By and large, the study has established that the activities did not meet with a commensurate level of achievement in terms of positioning the communities in the real sense of the word. By implication, community leaders were not considered suitable to fit into a social network of project or policy implementation, the process was to be facilitated by the bureaucrats. Overall, the investigation on community leadership strengthens the idea that the abilities of the focal person have a great influence on the benefits to be derived by the host communities in terms of involvement in PPP project execution in their domain. The empirical findings in this study have provided a new understanding that the involvement or non-involvement of the communities did not correlate with leaders' political affiliations. Moreover, it was evident that, beyond political affiliation and education, community leaders who displayed passion, good communication skills and persuasiveness in relation with other key stakeholders did well in positioning their communities for recognition. While this study has

demonstrated that community leaders' education plays a very important role in facilitating community involvement, there is evidence that suggests that the community leader's ability to position the community for involvement is not only a function of education but of a host of other leadership cognitive skills which should include the ability to inspire, motivate and to mobilise.

Implications of the study (Objective #3)

Before now, a most existing understanding of the subject matter was conceptual and characterised by arm-chair speculation. This study produced results that suggest that traditional leaders were appointed through a system that berates educational values, democracy and gender equity. Nevertheless, a practical implication from the research analysis showed that community leadership was not a function of education singly but of a host of other leadership skills. In the researcher's opinion, the result which showed that the involvement of the community does not necessarily depend on the technical ability or education of community leaders helps us to understand why some of the communities were not engaged beyond the existing status quo.

While the data obtained from this study clearly emphasised the relevance of a leader's education in facilitating community involvement, this study found a good base to hypothetically argue that host communities that lend more support to PPP projects from inception were those communities whose leadership mobilised community support due to the interaction between the leaders and project handlers. We may then want to conclude that education played roles in such an interaction. The outcome here should create reflections in our mind that facilitative community leadership goes beyond the position of authorities, policies or processes, it is about a community member's feelings and perceptions and the best form of empowerment is to engage them with information and constant dialogue.

Another significant implication of this study is a finding that discredited the insinuation that the activities of government and the communities were selective and based on political prejudices. Rather, this study possibly demonstrated that leaders' political affiliations had no impact on the involvement or non-involvement of the communities. It was established that the traditional rulers were *non-partisan* but the ruling party dominates the political landscape of Lagos State yet we found communities that made unfounded allegations. Before this study, there were anecdotal insinuations that suggested that every action of government had political undertones. It was thus easier for some community members to allege that they were 'sidelined' due to their political involvement and affiliation. As it stands, the allegations remain unfounded. The practical contribution of this result

provides a good ground to argue that the non-involvement of some communities did not correlate with the community leaders' political affiliations as speculated but the interplay of so many other factors among which weak institutional framework.

Recommendations for policy and practice

Policymakers: Policymakers must realise that in the community traditional rulers wield so much power and influence; hence, the need to design the PPP policy framework in a manner that accommodates them in the scheme of implementation efforts. Every policy process includes multiple participants drawn from across the socio-political spectrum of the policy environment and, unless policy implementers identify community group leaders with considerable influence in the community to embrace the project, crisis-free implementation will not be attained. This paper has argued that empowering leaders is a framing activity that gives legitimacy to policy implementation practices and outcomes. Therefore, policymakers should adopt a synergistic strategy where the LOPPP, community leaders, regardless of educational background and political affiliation, are co-opted members of an advisory committee for the project governance. PHs should develop a working relationship with community leaders to identify areas that are mutually beneficial and make the best use of them for community support and effective engagement. Our analysis of demographic statistics of respondents reveals that the host communities had educated members. Therefore, to conclude that the community lacks the prerequisite to be engaged in meaningful engagement was myopic and ill-conceived.

For the host communities: The customary way of choosing leaders based on deity consultation and other patrilineal practices should give way to the selection of leaders based on charisma and capabilities. It is necessary to ensure leaders are appointed based on their abilities or skills to represent their communities well and to protect their collective interests. Again, the traditional leaders should endeavour to earn the support of the community groups' leaders who appear to be more charismatic, influential and possess better facilitative skills, at least, over their groups. The Obas and the Baales should always involve the group and forum leaders where decision or negotiation of PPP magnitude is concerned. We realise that community group leaders, who represent the active part of the community, did not participate during early discussions until there was a breach. They were only used to facilitate protests and demonstrations whenever the situation got beyond control.

It is recommended that policymakers should initiate interventions aimed at building the capacity of

community leaders for meaningful engagement. Some findings that specify that the community leaders have some capabilities to lead, however, there were other issues of concern like lack of technical skills and experience to function in a PPP megaproject environment of global status. Hence, policymakers need to initiate a policy that will recruit and mentor future community leaders today for future community challenges. A trust fund like the UK's Local Improvement Finance Trust (LIFT) can be created to take care of community leadership capacity building and host community services. The fund could be generated from profit tax of corporate bodies in collaboration with support from promoters of the project.

For scholars: This study takes a form that is exploratory because it appears to be the first empirical study to explore PPP and the role of community leaders in facilitating their community involvement. This subject area of community facilitative leadership has created quite a number of opportunities for future research. For instance, future research could examine how and why group leaders bypass the traditional leaders to spark off collective actions in most cases against the operations of the PHs in various communities as we experienced in the Lekki Toll crisis and the crisis at the LFTZ.

There is also the need for an investigative study to ascertain the points of convergence and divergence between the various traditional leaders (the *Baales*) and community group leaders. There were indications that they were different in perceptions and approach to the issue of infrastructural governance. Such divergence does not promote the unity of purpose. Moreover, this study recognised the role of women forum leaders in protest against the PHs operations in some communities. However, the researcher did not dwell extensively on this area of concern. Therefore, investigating the role of women in the agitation against community exclusion in PPP implementation will be intriguing for a future interested researcher.

9.5.4 Collaborative process (participatory mechanisms)

Conclusion

This study has been able to identify areas requiring joint consultation as project governance (involvement in board membership), capacity building, environmental safety, job creation, skills acquisition and compensation for acquired lands and user charges. However, except for a few communities in Badagry, most of the affected communities were yet to have any strong involvement pattern with either the PHs or government in the identified areas. Moreover, the investigation regarding the use of local manpower and procurement of local resources ordinarily creates an avenue for collaboration and partnership with the community but these grounds were yet to be explored.

Moreover, this study discovered a wide gap in the obligation of the key partners to have a rapport that would allow them to source the indigenous workforce within the communities. Some indicators led us to the conclusion that despite several participatory mechanisms, traditional and modern, open to government agencies and PHs, only traditional methods like neighbourhood meetings, public dialogue, committee work, and workshops were explored. Public meetings remained the popular choice for the key stakeholders and the communities. There seemed to be no inclination from either side that suggested community partnership or collaboration which are the fundamental tendencies of collaborative governance.

Implications of the study (Objective #4)

The findings seem to have gone some way to enhance our understanding of the conceptual categories of participatory mechanisms and their application by the PHs in the various communities of operation. Given the data and the analysis, the study explained why the application in most communities failed to yield the desired result and these results offered the insight to decision-makers that the post-ante application of participatory mechanism failed to address the problem of trust and mutual suspicion. Significantly, the empirical results add to the body of conceptual studies which have concluded that for a participatory mechanism to make an impact it must commence early enough and it must be inclusive of the community representatives.

Moreover, this study offers the opportunity to validate the opinion that community members have a firm preference for involvement in projects as stakeholders rather than to enjoy the quality of service from the projects. Using a deductive analogy to verify the concepts and constructs that emerged from the study's case analysis, this research generated queries about the disintegrated mechanisms which were merely to inform and not to involve the communities in important decision-making processes. Significantly, this study has shifted emphasis from the key partners to awakening the consciousness that communities can and should, indeed, initiate participatory process from the *bottom-up*. This study presents an excellent argument for community self-awareness. The view should spur community consciousness to do more to position itself in an advantageous position to negotiate real involvement by collaborating with key partners in critical areas that it has core competence in, according to the theoretical dictates of collaborative governance.

Overall, this study strengthens the idea that the key stakeholders see wider consultation and effective application of other participatory mechanisms, conventional and modern, as a priority issue. This is necessary to ease the disaffection that was observed amongst community groups against the projects

and their promoters. However, the current investigation made revelations that showed that community involvement in PPP project governance in Lagos State was still at a therapeutic stage in Lagos State because most community members were not involved beyond a public meeting that launched the projects.

Recommendations for policy and practice

Policymakers: The government needs to create necessary publicity and awareness through an appropriate medium like a brochure, mass media, a suggestions and complaints platforms, question and answer sessions, sensitisation programmes and public meetings. The mechanism should be such that will involve a wider range of community members to facilitate support for the policy.

Participants should be drawn from across different house committees, MDAs and community groups. The meeting should comprise Lagos State House of Assembly Committees on Waterfront Infrastructure, Physical Planning and Urban Development, Works and Infrastructure, Information & Strategy, Local Government Administration & Community Affairs representatives from relevant cognate ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) and representatives of the affected community groups. The terms of reference will be to review the LSPPP Law right from inception and to improve the extent to which the policy has achieved its vision of private-sector driven infrastructural development and inclusive governance.

In conclusion, the present governance arrangement indicates that several important arrangements still need to be made to make PPP policy more participatory with host community involvement. It will be important to create a Department of Collaborative Governance in the Ministry of Works, Power & Housing. The idea of this Department would be to emulate South Africa's Department of Collaborative Governance & Traditional Affairs (CoGTA). CoGTA was established to promote shared understanding across different levels of government and the society about how best to manage urbanisation and to achieve development through job creation and improved standards of living through its Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF). The vision of IUDF is to build a functional development through a local governance system to “promote cooperative governance and build institutional resilience alongside administrative capacity” (CoGTA, 2000). Governments at various tiers in Nigeria needs to make communities and their intra- groups have a sense of belonging and be partakers in policies in which they are affected. The government needs to consider them through mobilisation or by co-opting them for community works modelled on the South African system.

For Project Managers/bureaucrats: The long-term objective of the partnership is the efficiency and

effectiveness of the use of resources. This is only achievable by creating a stable and safe and positive public perception of interventions. In this regard, the best incentive for the local communities is to partner in the areas of resources and collaboration in exploring local expertise and skills. An Office of Community Collaboration and Relations should be created by the PHs to ensure that they minimise grievances. Besides, the inter-relationship with the communities becomes healthier and more robust, and conflicts can be addressed early enough to avoid undesirable outcomes.

The onus lies on the PHs to develop empowerment for the community members and groups within the community. The investors might create leverage for small-scale business owners so they can compete favourably with other outsiders. This can be done by creating soft loans or by advance payments to ease the financial burden. Capacity building through skill acquisition programmes could also be initiated for community groups. If there is a vacant opening, community members with requisite education but without experience should be considered. Quota method could be applied in the interest of the two parties and cost-efficiency. The quota allocated to the community in terms of employment without experience may undergo skills acquisition training or on the job training

There were indicators that LOPPP staff lacked the consciousness that they had a part to play in facilitating the advocacy process. They should understudy the various participatory processes and learn to apply them accordingly. Moreover, public managers should not act unprofessionally due to self-esteem and reluctance to lose status and control. They should identify the need of the communities beforehand and apply appropriate measures. Furthermore, they should carry out their duties without being seen to be manipulative or bias. There is a need for public managers to be as professional as they should. Therefore, they should not be manipulative or unfavourable to any party within the network.

It is observed that most of the communities involved have populations that are educated but lacked the requisite skills for negotiation or collaborative bargaining. However, the PHs may build on their existing knowledge to offer training that will further boost their capacity in identified areas of need. Offering training to community groups could take any form of workshop, symposium, group discussion, role-playing, public lecture, or even e-Learning. The face-to-face training could also create opportunities for the PHs to learn from the local communities. The project managers will need to ensure that community training programs align with the operational demands of the project. In Badagry, for example, some educated youths with low skills were selected and trained for preliminary survey and enumeration exercise. Some others were offered training in critical skills for

the take-off of the projects. Other PHs need to emulate this. Community-based training is guided by certain principles amongst which are: problem-based, existing knowledge-based, learning by doing, teaching in mother-tongue, and host of others.

Lastly, with the current COVID-19 pandemic situation globally and emerging technological innovations to interactive meetings, the developing economies must begin to shift from the traditional participatory strategy. However, there is the need to weigh the issue of trust and cost and benefits of face-to-face participation based on the opinion of collaborative governance theorists. Perhaps this will make the people to explore a technologically inclined participatory mechanism; at least, the smartphone is accessible to the vast majority of community members.

For the communities: The community should embark on a self-help strategy like creating cooperative societies for self-empowerment through which they can raise funds should there be any contract outsourced to them. The communities should also look for assistance externally for skills acquisition, training, and education. They need to initiate income-generating schemes that will prepare them for active roles in any government scheme or make them the beneficiaries of the government policy.

Community leaders and leaders of community groups need to join forces to fight a common course by allowing leaders of community groups to be involved in community dialogues with other stakeholders and organisations. Moreover, the groups should enhance their negotiating stance with the PHs and should also mobilise the local populace towards taking an active role in matters involving community programmes and development. The community leaders should allow the forums and the CSOs to expand their influence to negotiate with the state and local government and other service providers in the interest of the communities. Information should be made available by traditional leaders to other interest groups.

For Scholars: This study has shown a strong shortfall in the governance arrangement revealing the lacklustre attitude of key stakeholders about community stakeholding in participatory governance of infrastructural development. However, the study did not assess the participatory agenda of the PHs now or in the future; hence, an investigative study with a focus on the PHs agenda could produce more interesting findings. Such research can shed more light on the dynamism of participatory governance probing into whether there are supporting structures or resources for the community to build on for collaboration or partnership with the PHs. More broadly, research should examine the likely facilitator and inhibitors to the application of the participatory mechanisms and strategies. Overall, Table 9.2 captures all the recommendations using the four thematic constructs.

Table 9.2. Summary of recommendations based on thematic constructs

Thematic constructs	Role Players	Actions
Initial Stage Involvement	PHs, MDAs & Community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Meeting with community leaders and forum leaders b. Conduct advocacy across community spectrums -Offer detailed information about the policy and the project -Engage community member for site clearing and othersupport services -Assure the community of safety and benefits -Seek input on EIA -Organisation of training workshops and symposiums -Identify vibrant community groups and leaders and engagethem in participatory planning -Initiate empowerment programmes for active involvement from the start
Institutional Design (Need for redesign)	Government (with likely input from relevant stakeholders including the community)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The government need to do critical analysis to identify gapsin the current framework -Re-design a unified policy framework and institutions by benchmarking countries that have implemented PPP successfully e.g South Africa -Create institutionalised community roles in the implementation framework -Ensure strategies that engage the community early enough are entrenched -Joint management board is constituted -Develop a well-crafted compensations plan for affected individuals, households and groups -Make provision for MoU adherence
Facilitative leadership	PHs & Community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -De-emphasise deals with traditional rulers only. -Ensure adequate involvement of community groups CBOs, CBAs, CDAs, forum leaders and professional groups within the community -Organise training and empowerment programmes for community leaders
Participatory Process and Strategy	MDAs, PHs & Community groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Target community groups and address various groupconcerns -Ensure adequate community mobilisation through communication and information networks -The community should not be apathetic, they should initiate a participatory process where necessary (<i>bottom-up</i> participatory initiative) - Meetings involving community leaders should be held within the communities and when it is necessary to hold meetings outside the community; appropriate provision shouldbe made for community leaders. -Carry out media advocacy for image-making- Constant and consistent advocacy and dialogue -Explore community human and material resources through collaboration and partnership Put in place an efficient feedback mechanism. -Need to embrace the modern and technological participatory systems

9.6 Suggested model for community involvement in PPP project governance

Based on research findings, the researcher recommends policy re-design that accommodates the host communities as an integral element for the survival of PPP implementation. Given this, the researcher proposed a community-centred model for PPP policy implementation in figure 9.1.(below) The model places the host community at the heart of PPP implementation. The development of this model was greatly influenced by various authors of collaborative governance (Ansell & Gash, 2008; Kim, 2016, Emerson *et al.*, 2012) and writers of community participation (Noron & Hughes, 2017, Yoo *et al.*, 2014; De Beer & Swanepoel, 2005). The model advocates for the institutionalisation of the roles of the host communities in PPP policy design and implementation in Nigeria.

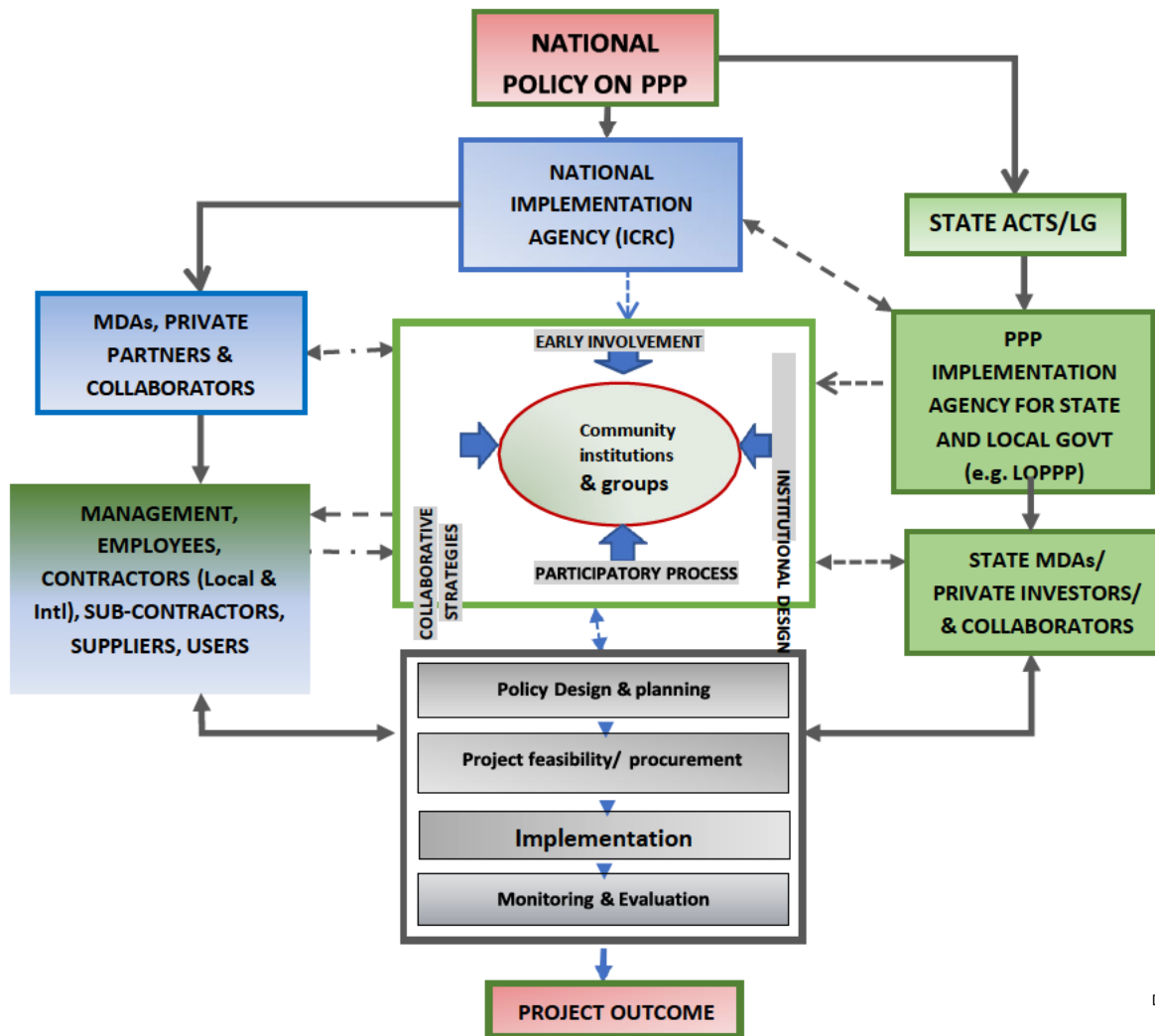


Figure 9.1. Proposed community-centric model for PPP policy implementation (Conceptual)

NP4 is the supreme policy document for the implementation of PPP for the entire federation and the ICRC regulates the policy affairs and its implementation in Nigeria. Each state is empowered to develop its statutory Acts, which spell out the legal and institutional framework for PPP implementation. The existing Lagos State framework was presented in Figure 3.1 (p.70). This study viewed this framework to be complicated and it also fails to recognise the host communities in their entirety; therefore, it is problematic and calls for a review.

In the proposed model developed in Figure 9.1 (p.270) the researcher recognised the autonomous power of the state. However, there is a need for horizontal bilateral inter-relationship between the implementation agencies: ICRC (national) and the LOPPP (Lagos State) to stimulate cohesion in the PIF. Of course, PPP can be implemented without recourse to community involvement, but theoretical studies have identified community involvement as a success factor that is critical for PPP implementation. Studies conducted in the developed countries have shown that the communities are at the heart of PPP implementation (Mehraz, 2016; Osborne, 2000; McQuaid, 2000). In the proposed model, it is possible to bypass the community – a reflection of what is presently obtainable in the cases studied. The thick lines denote the way PPP is being run. As of now, the host communities who are at the Centre of project implementation are side-lined. However, the ideal PPP model should have the community at the heart of its implementation with the constructs of collaborative governance. The perforated lines in the model are based on the community-centric strategy, which shows the relationship that should exist between the community and other key stakeholders. The two-pronged perforated arrow reflects that the other stakeholders (employees, suppliers, users and others) are, one way or the other, produced by a community, and they also feed the community with information from within the organisation. Therefore, the so-called closed system (Cori, 2019; Musawa *et al.*, 2017) is opened to the community. Of course, the PPP system could still function without integrating the communities; however, compliance with the perforated line represents the ideal system. The ideal conceptual model recognises the community stakeholding and suggests the need for the PHs and or the government to develop a workable synergy between the PHs and other stakeholders in certain areas of operation in respect of the project implementation. Table 9.2 (p.269) summarises the suggestions and offers the collaborative synergy for community collaboration in line with the thematic constructs of this study.

9.7 Limitations and suggestions for further studies

Amidst several works of scholars that have examined public participation and PPP, the study examined community involvement in the implementation of PPP as infrastructural development policy tools. The study focuses its attention on Lagos State which a microcosm and a reflection of the broader PPP implementation in Nigeria. The result of the study showed that the host communities have different expectations of the PPP policy that were not met because they were not adequately involved in the planning and implementation process. The scope of this study was limited to community-based institutional PPPs; therefore; there is abundant room for researchers who may wish to replicate the study in contractual PPPs or concessions.

Moreover, indications from the study confirmed that the strategy employed by the PHs varied in their relationship with the communities; while some PHs partially engaged the community; some engaged them in a superficial relationship while some accorded no recognition to the host communities at all until the community agitated. Building on the results of this study, the future researcher could explore what motivates and demotivates the private investors to involve or not involve the communities as there were constraints that restricted the researcher from engaging the private investors. On a final note, future researchers might also consider weighing the costs of collaboration with the communities in terms of risks and benefits.

9.8 Contributions to knowledge

This study could claim to have made some invaluable contributions to knowledge in three areas which are broadly discussed as follows:

9.8.1 Research value

This research further discredited the widely held notion that PPP is a model of governance that describes the relationship between two principal actors for business concerns. Most governments, therefore, design PPP policy frameworks based on the notion that PPP only describes arrangements involving the public and private sectors working together to the exclusion of other stakeholders, especially the host communities. This perception is restrictive, and it forms the basis of the problem in contextualising PPP. This study advocates that PPP should be exogenous. Being exogenous implies that the PIF should not be confined to the two principal owners. It should extend to the external stakeholder, including community groups, by creating a positive and constructive role at every stage of the process to earn local support for infrastructural development in the local terrain.

9.8.2 The ingenuity and significance of the research study

This is probably the first study to give attention to the plight of the host communities in the implementation agenda of PPP as a policy instrument for infrastructural development in Nigeria. The previous conceptualisations of this plight were circumstantial. The study underscores the top-down policy approach which characterised the PPP policy at the national and state level in Nigeria and leans in favour of a bottom-up policy implementation strategy that creates the opportunity for the host communities to take an active role in every stage of the policy implementation and project governance.

9.8.3 Development of a community-centric policy implementation model

The measurement of policy success depends on how well the policy “lessens or resolves social, economic or physical problems” (Patton & Sawicki, 1993: 21). It requires that policy analysts measure the physical and socio-economic impact of the policy by constantly monitoring the implementation. The analysts must ensure that implementation is effectively monitored to assuage unintentional outcomes (Perret, 2016; Patton, 2011). Regrettably, the concern of policy authors and academics over the years has been on the making of a good policy. The art and process of policy implementation were neglected (O’Toole, 2000). Moreover, the theoretical models found in the extant literature do not seem to address the peculiar nature of PPP implementation in Nigeria viz-a-viz community exclusion and its attendant problems. Therefore, this study sees community involvement as critical to the success of PPP policy implementation. Having identified lacunas in the entire process, the study proposes a community-centric model for improved policy implementation. The model is a problem-solving one that is not restrictive for future researchers to build on. Moreover, the model is open to scholars and practitioners for further critical analysis.

9.9 General Conclusion

This study employs both theoretical and pragmatic research approaches to show that the implementation of the NP4 is still facing some adversarial challenges in Nigeria. Studies from scholarly works demonstrate that PPP implementation offers inclusive opportunities for various community institutions and groups; viz., local government, community chiefs and leaderships, political groups, voluntary groups and, indeed, the entire community. The groups were substantially involved in the PPP policy making, policy implementation and evaluation. In contrast, the same cannot be said about the Nigerian situation. It is found, through this study that the host communities in PPP projects in Lagos State, Nigeria seemed to be neglected in the PPP initiative. Specifically, this

study found evidence that demonstrates that the institutional framework of the National Policy on PPP in Nigeria is not all-inclusive. This study demonstrates that the Lagos State Government was still experimenting with the PPP implementation network. Therefore, what is obtainable presently reveals the inadequacies of the PPP infrastructural governance about community stake-holding and involvement which should draw the attention of concerned authorities in Lagos State. The study further established that Lagos State Government in its implementation of PPP makes a policy statement that promotes collaborative governance hinged on shared governance, good leadership, wider involvement transparency, public accountability, responsibility, fairness, and stakeholders' interest but failed to incorporate these values in the PIF. The implementation framework for PPP project governance seems to lack the regulatory and enforcement provision that promotes ideals. Therefore, the private investors, are oftentimes profit-motivated, thus they are oblivious of the 'publicness' in the terrain they have ventured into through the PPP. The study found that the inclusion of the host communities in planning and project governance induces trust and public support for PPP implementation and support policies.

Rather than relying on the framework which was initiated by the PPP international support agencies like the PPIAF, OECD and so on. The PPP implementation agencies at various tiers need to re-design the existing framework in line with the socio-political realities of the implementation environment in Nigeria. Once the processes that empower and spell out the roles of the host communities are entrenched in the PIF, the private partners in Nigeria will key into it without any hesitation. The researcher is quite aware of the problems relating to policy redesign processes. These include a weak institutional framework, government insensitivity, legislative and administrative bottlenecks, over-bureaucratisation and politicisation. It is suggested that the MoUs signed between the communities and the key stakeholders should be binding on every party to it and should be strictly adhered to by all concerned.

This study advocated that affected communities need to push beyond mere benefiting from CRS, regular meetings, employment and community support to achieve the level of partnership with equity holding in the collaborative PPP (joint venture) projects. They need to identify and harness their core competence and to build capacity to enable them to collaborate or even partner with the PHs and the government as stakeholders. Moreover, it is the duty of PHs and implementation agencies to build the capacity of their host communities by being exogenous in outlook. This will help them to explore the opportunities that abound in the local communities where they operate. It

was evident from this study that the PPP implementers (i.e., the bureaucrats) lack the professional skills, the right attitude, and the political will to facilitate the integration of the host communities as non-state stakeholders while the communities were yet to build themselves up for active involvement. In this regard, the researcher recommends that the bureaucrats, as well as the active community members, should go through training that will re-orientate them and build their capacity for policy delivery and performance.).

The conclusion to be drawn from this study is that the Lagos State Government is still experimenting with PPP governance policy. Although the NP4 identifies CBOs and community groups as non-state stakeholders, it is yet to carve a specific role for them in the PIF. Therefore, what is obtainable presently substantially reveals the inadequacies of the PPP infrastructural governance framework regarding the exclusion of the host community as stakeholders. The evidence of this thesis brings one main conclusion to the fore that the plight and persistent struggles for compensation, employment, ecological degradation by the local communities ought to draw the attention of policymakers and implementors of NP4 to the urgent need for a policy review. In support of this view, a new wave of concepts like the public-private people partnership (PPPP), people-first private-public partnership (P-PPP), and transnational public-private partnership (TPPP) are emerging from PPP to promote the ideals of people-focused PPP collaborations and implementation. PPP is a form of collaboration expected to involve business, non-profit organizations, and government. Through the collaboration, risks, resources and skills are shared in projects that benefit each partner as well as other stakeholders like the community. Since several scholars have identified the community as stakeholder in PPP implementation, it is not enough for the major parties both public and private to be satisfied. The satisfaction of the community is also important. This current study has gone some way to develop a community-centric model, which offers theoretical explanations for the workings of PPP, It calls for an all-embracing policy implementation environment that is devoid of mutual suspicion amongst stakeholders (state & non-state) but which promotes mutual respect, a sense of belongingness, shared commitment, and trust. Finally, while it may be imprudent to generalise the result of this study due to the scope and small sample size, the findings could have profound global implications for practitioners, policymakers, public administrators as well as scholars of public policy, development studies, and governance. This study has offered a rich contextualized understanding of the challenges of community exclusion in the implementation of NP4, particularly in Lagos which is foremost in PPP implementation in Nigeria. PPPs are just evolving in Nigeria with most state beginning to adopt state policies in line with the NP4 policy framework (Arimoro,

2019; Onuobia et al., 2017). With time, a country-wide survey will be required to elaborate the findings of this study for analytic generalization or *case to case* transferability. Future researchers willing to undertake survey in this area already have a foundation to build on in this study.

9.10 Summary of chapter

The chapter served as a précis of the overall results and research findings. The chapter presents a summary of the entire thesis. It makes conclusions based on the interpretation of the entire findings and explains the contribution of the study to the existing body of literature in the subject area. Recommendations were made based on experiential findings. Significantly, a community-centric model was developed by the researcher as a tentative visualised approach that fills the existing gap in implementation regarding the place of the host community in the entire PPP-PIF. A general conclusion was made to bring the entire thesis to an end.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A – Ethical Clearance



20 June 2018

Mr Oladimeji Abiodun Ashade (216066737)
School of Social Sciences
Howard College Campus

Dear Mr Ashade,

Protocol reference number: HSS/0529/018D

Project Title: Community involvement in the implementation of the National Policy on Public-Private Partnership: A case of infrastructural development in Lagos State, Nigeria

Approval Notification – Expedited Application

In response to your application received 22 May 2018, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully



.....
Professor Shenuka Singh (Chair)

/ms

Cc Supervisor: Dr Mutereko Sybert
Cc Academic Leader Research: Professor Maheshvari Naidu
Cc School Administrator: Mr N Memela

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Professor Shenuka Singh (Chair)

Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

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Faculty Campuses: Edgewood Howard College Medical School Pietermaritzburg Westville



Date.....

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Greetings,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION AND REQUEST TO PARTICIPATE IN A STUDY

I am Ashade Oladimeji Abiodun (216066737), a PhD student in Public Policy at the School of Social Sciences in the College of Humanities, University of Kwazulu Natal, South Africa. My contact details are as follows:

Email: .ashadeji70@yahoo.com

Cellular +27843323976 (South Africa); +2348177184444 (Nigeria)

You are kindly requested to consider participating in a research study titled “community involvement in the implementation of National Policy on Public-Private Partnership: a case of infrastructural development in Lagos state, Nigeria.” The purpose is to establish whether the policy truly recognises the community as a stakeholder with specific role in the policy implementation. The study is expected to include stakeholders in the PPP policy agenda; the government agencies, private firms and the public (community-based). The researcher shall conduct interview with the Director, Office of PPP, focal persons and traditional heads in the local communities where PPP projects are situated in three divisions of Lagos state. Focus group discussion shall also be held with various community leaders to understand their perceptions regarding PPP and their involvement in the projects. The researcher shall also administer questionnaire to various community representative groups for wider representation and in-depth analysis. Kindly note the following in respect of your participation:

- a. That your participation in this study is voluntary. You have a choice to participate or not. You may also withdraw your participation at any time you deem without giving any reason;
- b. your participation is highly confidential and anonymous. No one has the right to know of your participation, the information supplied will not be linked to you for any reason except for the purpose of coding;
- c. no incentives, monetary or otherwise is available to participants and no risk is involved for the participants;
- d. all data, both electronic and hard copy, will be securely stored during the study and archived for 5 years after which they shall be destroyed;
- e. all information given shall be treated with strict confidentiality and will be analysed as aggregated statistics data strictly for academic purpose.

Kindly note that this study was approved having been screened by the Ethics Board of the School of Social Sciences, University of KwaZulu Natal in South Africa with approval no. H55/0529018D.

In light of the foregoing, your honest response to the questions will be highly appreciated.

If you have any doubt, question or concern, you may please, contact the research supervisor; Dr. Sybert Mutereko (muturekos@ukzn.ac.za; +27312607951) or contact:

Mr. Premiall Mohun,
Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Administration
Research Office, Westville Campus
Govan Mbeki Building
Private Bag X 54001
Durban 4000 KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA
Tel: 27 31 2604557- Fax: 27 31 2604609
Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Yours sincerely,

ASHADE, O. A.
Researcher



Date.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

Greetings,

LETA IFARA ENI HAN ATI EBE LATI KO PA NINU ISE IWADII

Eyin eniyan mi,

Oruko mi ni Ashade Oladimeji Abiodun (216066737), akeko fun iwe eri PhD ni ile eko giga unifasiti ti Kwazulu Natal, eka eyi ti o se iwadi nipa if'omoniyani se, ni orile ede Guusu Afirika (South Africa). Wonyi ni bi e se le kan si mi ni ori ero alatagba ati ero ibanisoro;

Adireesi lorii ero Alatagba: ashadeji70@yahoo.com

Ero Ibanisoro: +27843323976 (South Afrika); +2348177184444 (Nigeria)

Mo n ro yin lati je akopa ninu ise iwadi lori ipa ti awon ilu ati Igberiko nko nipa amuse erongba ijoba orile ede Naijira lati darapo pelu ile-ise aladani (PPP) fun idagbasoke, paapa julo lori pipese awon ohun am'aiyederun fun idagbasoke ni ipinle eko (Lagos state). Erongba ise iwadi yi ni lati mo daju bi ipinnu ijoba yi se f'aye sile fun awon ara ilu ni ibi Oti ise idagbasoke yi ti n lo lati kopa tabi ni ojuse ninu ise idagbasoke ilu ni agbegbe naa.

Oluwadi yi o se iforowani lenu wo pelu awon adari ilu ati awon eniyan Kankan ni awon ilu ati ni ile-ise ijoba ti o n dari ibasepo ijoba pelu aladani (LOPPP); awon alenuloro, Oba Alaye ni gbogbo esekuku paapaa julo ni awon ilu ti awon ise idagbasoke wonyi ti n waye ni ipinle eko. Oluwadi yio tun pese iwe iforowanilenuwo fun awon ara ilu, olori ati awon asoju to o wa ni awon agbegbe naa.

Mo ro yin ki ese akiyesi awon oun wonyii ti o se pataki fun akopa ninu ise iwadi yii;

- a. A ko kan nipa fun enikeni lati ko pa. Ikopa ninu ise iwadi yi yio je atinuwa. Akopa le jawo pe oun ko fe tesiwaju mo ni igbakugba ti o ba wun lai se alaaye idi ti o fi pinu lati ma kopa mo
- b. Oluwadi ko leto lati je ki enikeni mo awon ti o kopa tabi lati se afihan awon akopa. Ikopa ni lati je ohun ikoko. Ko gbodo si akosile ti o toka eni ti o kopa yato si nigba ti a ba n se isaami lati se atupale ise iwadii
- c. Ise iwadi yi ko ni owo tabi anfaani kan ninu. Beeni ko si ewu Kankan ti o ro mo kikopa
- d. Gbogbo akosile, boya ninu iwe tabi eyi ti o wa ninu ero igbalode, ni a o se itoju daadaa nigbati iwadi nlo lowo ati lehin igba ti a ba se akosile tan. O to ju won daadaa si ibi ti a ti seto sile sugbon o baa je lehin odun marun gebe bi ilana ti a la sile.
- e. Gbogbo akosile, itanilolobo ati ohun ti a gba ninu ise iwadi yi wa fun ise ikeko nikan. A ko gba won fun ohun miran yato si fun imo eko nikan. Yi o si je oun ti ko ni lati wa fun lilo fun oun miran tabi lati bo si owo enikeni.

O se pataki fun akopa lati mo wipe ise iwadi yi fe ifowosi lehin ayewo awon igbimo alase ile eko ti Unifasiti ti KwaZulu Natal, eka ti o n ri si sayensi omoniyani, ni ile olominira ti guusu Afirika. Numba ti wo n fi gba ise yi wole ni eka ti o n bojuto ise iwadi HSS/0529/018D

Ni idi eyi, mo n ro yin wipe ki e dahun gbogbo ibeere ti o ro mo ise iwadi yii pelu otito inu laisi ikunsinu. Eni eto lati bere nipa oun ti o ba sokunkun.

Fun iwadii kikun tabi ibeere, e le pe alabojuto ise iwadi yi ni orile ede Guusu Afirika; Dr. Sybert Mutereko (muturekos@ukzn.ac.za; +27312607951) tabi

Mr. Premiall Mohun,

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Administration

Research Office, Westville Campus
Govan Mbeki Building
Private Bag X 54001 Durban 4000 KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA
Tel: 27 31 2604557- Fax: 27 31 2604609
Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Emi ni tiyin ni tooto,

ASHADE, O. A.

Oluwadi



INFORMED CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

I have been informed about the study entitled “Community involvement in the implementation of the National Policy on Public Private Partnership: a case of infrastructural development in Lagos state, Nigeria” by Ashade Oladimeji Abiodun.

I understand the purpose and procedures of the study.

I have been given an opportunity to ask questions about the study and have had answers to my satisfaction.

Your participation is highly confidential and anonymous. No one has the right to know about my participation and the information supplied cannot, in anyway, be linked to me; hence, my name is not required for any reason.

I may withdraw at any time without affecting any of the benefits that I usually am entitled to.

I have been informed about any available compensation or medical treatment if injury occurs to me as a result of study-related procedures.

If I have any further questions/concerns or queries related to the study I understand that I may contact the researchers at ashadeji70@yahoo.com ; +27633692229 (South Africa); +2348177184444 (Nigeria)

Mr. Premiall Mohun,

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Administration

Research Office, Westville Campus

Govan Mbeki Building

Private Bag X 54001

Durban, 4000

KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA

Tel: 27 31 2604557 - Fax: 27 31 2604609

Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Additional consent, where applicable:

I hereby provide consent to:

- Audio-record my interview / focus group discussion YES / NO
- Video-record my interview / focus group discussion YES / NO
- Use of my photographs for research purposes YES / NO

Signature of Participant

Date

Signature/Date of Witness (as applicable)

Signature of Translator (as applicable)



IFOWOSIWE LATI KO PA NINU ISE IWADII

Emi,ti gbo agboye nipa ise iwadi lori ipa ti awon ilu ati Igberiko nko nipa amuse erongba ijoba orile ede Naijira lati darapo pelu ile-ise aladani (PPP) fun idagbasoke, paapa julo lori pipese awon ohun amayederun fun idagbasoke ni ipinle eko (Lagos state) lati owo Ogbeni Oladimeji Abiodun Ashade.

- a. oye ati erongba ise iwadi yi yemi yeke;
- b. Oluwadi ti fi aye sile fun mi lati beere awon oun ti ko ye mi nipa ise iwadi naa. O si ti dahun awon oun ti o sokunkun si mi. Mo ni iteloron pelu awon alaaye ti o ti se fun mi;
- c. Mo so pelu idaniloju pe mo gba lati kopa ninu ise iwadi lati okan mi laisi ikannipa Kankan ati pe mo le jawo lati tesiwaju ni igbakugba ti o ba wun mi lai si alaaye.
- d. Oluwadi ko leto lati je ki eniken ni mo awon ti o kopa tabi lati se afihan awon akopa. Ikopa ni lati je ohun ikoko. Ko gbodo si akosile ti o toka eni ti o kopa yato si nigba ti a ba n saami lati se atupale ise iwadii.
- e. Mo gbo gbogbo awon alaye nipa anfaani ti o le jeyo nipase kikopa. Oluwadi se alaye pe ko si owo tabi anfaani kan fun olukopa ninu ise naa. Beeni ko si ohun ifoya Kankan ti o ro mo kikopa

A ti fi ye mi wipe, fun iwadii kikun tabi ibeere, mo le pe alabojuto ise iwadi yi ni orile ede Guusu Afirika; Dr. Sybert Mutereko (muturekos@ukzn.ac.za; +27312607951) tabi olusewadi, Ogbeni Oladimeji Abiodun Ashade +27843323976 (ni ilu Guusu Afrika); +2348177184444 (ni ilu Naijiria); Ero Alatagba: ashadeji70@yahoo.com tabi ki ekan si oludari agba, eka ti o n dari ise iwadii lati orile ede Guusu Afirika;

Mr. Premiall Mohun,

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Tel: 27 31 2604557- Fax: 27 31 2604609

Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Ni itesiwaju, mo gba oluwadi laye lati:

gba ohun enu mi sile pelu ero igbalode BEENI/ BEEKO
ka aworan ati ohun mi pelu ero igbalode BEENI/ BEEKO
ya aworan mi fun ise iwadi yi nikan soso BEENI/ BEEKO

Ifowosi akopa

Date

Ifowosi eleri (nibi to ti ye)

olugbifo (nibi ti o tiye)



Researcher: ASHADE Oladimeji Abiodun (216066737)

Supervisor: Sybert Mutereko PhD.

School of Management, IT and Public Governance

Dear Respondent,

The information required in this questionnaire is meant to form part of an academic research process titled Community involvement in the implementation of the National Policy on Public Private Partnership: a case of infrastructural development in Lagos state, Nigeria. It is a survey study involving some communities in Lagos state.

Your community has been chosen as a case study. Through your participation, the researcher will be able to ascertain the feelings of the people and their involvement in the PPP projects in their community.

Kindly note the following in respect of your participation:

- a. That your participation in this study is voluntary. You have a choice to participate or not. You may also withdraw your participation at any time you wish without giving any reason.
- b. Your participation is highly confidential and anonymous. No one has the right to know of your participation, the information cannot, in anyway, be linked to you; hence, your name is not required for any reason.
- c. If you have any doubt, question or concern, you may, please, call on the researcher for explanation or contact the institution above;
- d. No incentives or benefit is available to participants and no risk is envisaged.

In light of the foregoing, your honest response to the questions will be highly appreciated. All information given shall be treated with strict confidentiality and will be analysed as aggregated statistics data strictly for academic purpose.

Thank you for your cooperation

.....

ASHADE, Oladimeji Abiodun
08024425353; +27843323976

SECTION A

Instructions: Please tick (✓) in the appropriate spaces provided

PPP Project

Division

Local Government Office.....

- 1. Sex: Male () Female ()

- 2. Age: Below 25 ()
 Between 26—35 ()
 Between 36—45 ()
 Between 46—55 ()
 Above 55 ()

- 3. Marital status: Single () Married () Others ()

- 4. Qualifications:

 No formal education ()

 Primary ()

 Secondary ()

 Post-secondary ()

 Above first degree ()

5. Participant category (Please tick as appropriate)

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------------------|
| Community Member | Professional group | Forum Member |
| Member of Civil Society Group/NGO | Opinion Leader | Others (please specify)
..... |

SECTION B

Instruction: *You are expected to tick appropriately in the box provided against your option like this, please.*

True	✓	False		No comment
------	---	-------	--	------------



A. Institutional Design

1. Government still needs to design a framework, which will clarify the role of the community in projects that involves private firms.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Somewhat Agree		Agreed		Strongly Agreed	
-------------------	--	----------	--	----------------	--	--------	--	-----------------	--

2. Are you satisfied that your community is a host to the project?

Extremely unsatisfied		Not Satisfied		Uncertain		Satisfied		Extremely Satisfied	
-----------------------	--	---------------	--	-----------	--	-----------	--	---------------------	--

3. My community is adequately involved in the project.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Somewhat Agree		Agreed		Strongly Agreed	
-------------------	--	----------	--	----------------	--	--------	--	-----------------	--

4. There has been an established communication link between the handlers of the project, government and the community.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Somewhat Agree		Agreed		Strongly Agreed	
-------------------	--	----------	--	----------------	--	--------	--	-----------------	--

5. For effective collaboration, there is need for a feedback system through which government can ascertain whether the community is actively involved or not.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Somewhat Agree		Agreed		Strongly Agreed	
-------------------	--	----------	--	----------------	--	--------	--	-----------------	--

6. Members of my community group was involved in one activity or the other in the project.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Somewhat Agree		Agreed		Strongly Agreed	
-------------------	--	----------	--	----------------	--	--------	--	-----------------	--

7. As a member of the community, I am quite satisfied with the level of my community involvement in the project

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Somewhat Agree		Agreed		Strongly Agreed	
-------------------	--	----------	--	----------------	--	--------	--	-----------------	--

8. If you believe the community should have a role in the project. Kindly suggest areas you think they can be involved (if none, please leave blank)

.....

B. Project’s Initial Stage Involvement:

9. My community was well involved at the initial stage of the project

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Somewhat Agree		Agreed		Strongly Agreed	
-------------------	--	----------	--	----------------	--	--------	--	-----------------	--

10. I am aware of the stakeholders’ meeting involving my community, the project handlers and government.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Somewhat Agree		Agreed		Strongly Agreed	
-------------------	--	----------	--	----------------	--	--------	--	-----------------	--

11. How would you rate the level of community participation at the commencement of the project?

Very Poor		Poor		Somehow good		Good		Excellent	
-----------	--	------	--	--------------	--	------	--	-----------	--

12. The project was well received by the community due to advocacy and involvement at the initial stage.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Somewhat Agree		Agreed		Strongly Agreed	
-------------------	--	----------	--	----------------	--	--------	--	-----------------	--

13. It is not necessary to involve the community in the project at the initial stage.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Somewhat Agree		Agreed		Strongly Agreed	
-------------------	--	----------	--	----------------	--	--------	--	-----------------	--

C. Facilitative Leadership

14. Do you agree that the involvement or non-involvement of the community has to do with the ability of the community leaders or forum leaders?

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Somewhat Agree		Agreed		Strongly Agreed	
-------------------	--	----------	--	----------------	--	--------	--	-----------------	--

15. The community would have been more involved if our leaders are more active.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Somewhat Agree		Agreed		Strongly Agreed	
-------------------	--	----------	--	----------------	--	--------	--	-----------------	--

16. It is the duty of public managers to build capacity and empower community leaders for active involvement in PPP.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agreed	Strongly Agreed
-------------------	----------	----------------	--------	-----------------

17. We do not have well educated leaders. That is why my community is not involved.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agreed	Strongly Agreed
-------------------	----------	----------------	--------	-----------------

18. Community involvement in infrastructural governance arrangement is determined by the community leaders' affiliation to the political class in power.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agreed	Strongly Agreed
-------------------	----------	----------------	--------	-----------------

D. Collaborative Process

19. Project managers and administrators do not need to engage the community in a dialogue to explore mutual gains.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agreed	Strongly Agreed	Strongly Disagree
-------------------	----------	----------------	--------	-----------------	-------------------

20. There are areas of common values which could be jointly identified by the project manager and the community.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agreed	Strongly Agreed
-------------------	----------	----------------	--------	-----------------

21. There is need for the government to always engage the project managers and the community in a dialogue to address issues of interest to both parties?

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agreed	Strongly Agreed
-------------------	----------	----------------	--------	-----------------

22. The project managers have not been involving local clientele and expertise in their operations.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agreed	Strongly Agreed
-------------------	----------	----------------	--------	-----------------

23. What type of arrangement do you think has been in use to engage your community and other stakeholders (government and private investors) *You may tick multiple options based on your participation below)?*

<input type="checkbox"/> Co-option/ Committee work	<input type="checkbox"/> e-Participation	<input type="checkbox"/> Advisory Committee
<input type="checkbox"/> Issue Forums	<input type="checkbox"/> Public Dialogue	<input type="checkbox"/> Workshops
<input type="checkbox"/> Shared interest forums	<input type="checkbox"/> Publications	<input type="checkbox"/> Complaints suggestion schemes
<input type="checkbox"/> Service user Forums	<input type="checkbox"/> Public hearing	<input type="checkbox"/> Consultation documents
<input type="checkbox"/> Citizens' panel	<input type="checkbox"/> Bilateral meeting	<input type="checkbox"/> Question and answer session
<input type="checkbox"/> Area/neighbourhood forums	<input type="checkbox"/> Conference	
<input type="checkbox"/> Focus Groups	<input type="checkbox"/> Public meetings	

24. Which one of the above participatory strategies do you consider the best option?

.....

General

25. Do you support the arrangement that bring in private firms to run public project or programme? Yes/No

Please give reason for your response on No. 25 above

.....

26. Some people believe in community active involvement in the project, while some are concerned with quality of service or output. What is your position?

.....

...

27. Any other comment/opinion?

.....

 .

Thank you

Interview Guide for Public Agency Executives

Community involvement in the implementation of the National Policy on Public Private Partnership: a case of infrastructural development in Lagos state, Nigeria.

Institutional design

1. What is your opinion about the collaboration of public agencies with private firms in providing public infrastructure?
2. Is there specified role(s) the community is supposed to play in the institutional framework that established PPP?
3. Do you think the role of the community is critical to the implementation of PPP?
If yes, are they aware of these roles?
If no, what is your organisation doing toward enlightening them?
4. Is there any feedback mechanism by your organisation to know public feelings towards PPP activities in the community?
5. How has the agency facilitated harmonious relationship between the project handlers and their host communities?
6. How would describe the relationship between the Federal and State agencies for the implementation of PPP?
7. Is there any issue of conflict between the State and National policy framework in the implementation of PPP in Lagos state?

Initial Stage

8. How much of advocacy and public enlightenment was done to sensitize the public about PPP policy agenda?
9. Do you think the public is well informed about PPP policy?
10. Do you think the support/non-support for the project has to do with their non-involvement at the early stage of implementation?
11. How involved are the communities when a project is about to commence in their area?
12. Was there any challenge involving the community at the initial stages of the project?
13. At what stage do you think the citizen should be involved?

Facilitative Leadership

14. Does leaders' participatory ability (e.g. level of education) have any impact on the community engagement in the collaboration? e.g. case of uneducated *Baale* or *Kabiyesi*?
15. What is your organisation doing towards empowering the leadership at the community level?

Collaborative Process

16. How does your organisation ensure that the private firm explores and integrates local clientele in the PPP project?

17. Which of these bests describes your public participatory strategies?

(Researcher can assist the interviewee to identify as many as possible from the following and rank them in order of common use and effectiveness)

<input type="checkbox"/> Co-option/ Committee work	<input type="checkbox"/> e-Participation
<input type="checkbox"/> Issue Forums	<input type="checkbox"/> Public Dialogue
<input type="checkbox"/> Shared interest forums	<input type="checkbox"/> Publications
<input type="checkbox"/> Service user Forums	<input type="checkbox"/> Public hearing
<input type="checkbox"/> Citizens' panel	<input type="checkbox"/> Bilateral meeting
<input type="checkbox"/> Area/Neighbourhood forums	<input type="checkbox"/> Advisory Committee
<input type="checkbox"/> Focus Groups	<input type="checkbox"/> Workshops
<input type="checkbox"/> Conference	<input type="checkbox"/> Complaints suggestion schemes
<input type="checkbox"/> Public meetings	<input type="checkbox"/> Consultation documents
<input type="checkbox"/> Question and answer session	

18. Do you use same method in all the divisions, or you vary them depending on certain factors?

What are likely factors?

19. Are the communities merely consulted or they are actively involved at every stage of the project?

20. Has there been any meeting involving all stakeholders including public representatives?

21. How were the participants at the meeting selected?

22. What is the government doing to ensure the community active involvement?

23. Is there any strategy in place to involve local clientele and expertise in the project by the project managers/handlers?

24. To what extent would you say that Lagos state PPP policy framework aligns with national policy in terms of community engagement?

25. Is there any mechanism by which your agency evaluates community perception about the project or PPP programmes in general?

26. Are you satisfied with the level of community involvement in the project?

Extremely unsatisfied		Not Satisfied		Uncertain		Satisfied		Extremely Satisfied	
--------------------------	--	---------------	--	-----------	--	-----------	--	------------------------	--

27. Is there any personal opinion you wish to express?

28. Would you say Lagos state implementation of PPP policy is in line with the National Policy on PPP?

Interview Guide for Traditional Rulers

Community involvement in the implementation of the National Policy on Public Private Partnership: a case of infrastructural development in Lagos state, Nigeria.

- Introduction
- Observant of protocols and discussion of ethics guiding research.

Initial Stage

1. What is your opinion about the collaboration of public agencies with private firms in providing public infrastructure?
2. Was there any form of advocacy, which was done personally to you or to the community when the project was to commence?
If yes, how would you describe it?
If no, what do you think the problem is?
3. Was there any form of meeting with the community at the commencement of the project?
If yes, please explain?
4. Did you personally or on behalf of the community make any input to the project at the initial stage?
If yes, how?
If no, why?
5. Do you think your community has better input which has assisted or could have benefited the project at the initial stage?
6. Do you have any dissatisfaction with the government or the company based on how the project commenced?
7. At what stage, in your opinion, should the community be involved in the process (*Planning & designing, Implementation, evaluation, all the stages?*)

Institutional design

8. Do you consider public participation relevant in the institutional framework upon which PPP is based?
9. Do you think that the role of the community is critical to the survival of PPP projects in the community? If yes, why?
10. Is there any established communication link between the government, project managers and the community?
11. Is there any defined role that the community is playing or should be playing? If yes, how were the participants at the stakeholders' meeting nominated or selected?

Facilitative Leadership

12. Do you think that community leaders' abilities (like level of education) can affect some community from being actively engaged?
13. Do you think there is need for government or private investors to do more to boost the participatory capabilities of leaders in form of empowerment or training?
14. Do you think leaders' attitude and ability have any impact on the community engagement in the collaboration?
15. Do you think your community involvement or non-involvement has any connection with political party affiliations?

Collaborative Process

16. How does your community ensure that the private firm explore and integrate local clientele to the best in the partnership and build the capacity of local people?
17. Which of the participatory strategies is used in engaging your community?

(Researcher can assist the interviewee to identify as many as possible from the following)

<input type="checkbox"/> Co-option/ Committee work	<input type="checkbox"/> e-Participation
<input type="checkbox"/> Issue Forums	<input type="checkbox"/> Public Dialogue
<input type="checkbox"/> Shared interest forums	<input type="checkbox"/> Publications
<input type="checkbox"/> Service user Forums	<input type="checkbox"/> Public hearing
<input type="checkbox"/> Citizens' panel	<input type="checkbox"/> Bilateral meeting
<input type="checkbox"/> Area/Neighbourhood forums	<input type="checkbox"/> Advisory Committee
<input type="checkbox"/> Focus Groups	<input type="checkbox"/> Workshops
<input type="checkbox"/> Conference	<input type="checkbox"/> Complaints suggestion schemes
<input type="checkbox"/> Public meetings	<input type="checkbox"/> Consultation documents
<input type="checkbox"/> Question and answer session	

18. Which of the above do you consider the best option?
19. Did you at any time have a meeting with government or private investors or joint meeting particularly in areas of mutual concern?
17. What is your view? Do you think government is doing enough to boost the participatory capacity of your community people to ensure their active involvement?
18. Has the project been using the local clientele or knowledge in their operations?
19. Have the private operators been involving the local chiefs in dialogue on issues of common concern? e.g environmental degradation, community development etc.
19. How would you describe the community relationship with the other stakeholders in the project i.e. the government and private investors
20. Any other comment?

.....

ILANA FIFI ORO J'OMITORO ORO PELU AWON ALASE ILU

IKOPA AWON ILU ATI IGBERIKO NINU AMUSE ERONGBA IJOBA ORILE EDE NAIJIRA LATI DARAPO PELU AWON ILE-ISE ALADANI (PPP) LORI PIPESE AWON OHUN AM'AIYEDERUN FUN IDAGBASOKE NI IPINLE EKO

EREDI -Lati ni akojopo imo fun ise iwadii nipase apero eyi ti yio mu awon onimo parapo jo asoyepo nipase lilo ilana "aro".

Ipeelee Akoko - fifi ara eni han ati Ikini ku abo

Ipeelee keji - Sisalaye awon ofin ti olusewadii lati bowo fun ninu isewadii ti o ye ki awon akopa ni lati mo. Awon wonyii niise pelu ominira awon akopa ti o ni se pelu ife okan yala lati kopa tabi lati duro ni igba ti a ba ti bere. Ekeji niise pelu ati bo asiri akopa ati lati maje ki eniken mo ati bee bee lo. (ethical issues)

AGBEYEWOWO AKOKO: igbese sise n tele ni ibere pepe

1. Nje asoyepo kan wa laarin eyin mejeeji (Ilu ati awon onise akanse) tabi apeojopo pelu ara ilu lori ise akanse idagbasoke am'ayederun ki ise naa to bere. Ti idahun baje beeni, bawo in ibasepo naa se ri?
2. Nje awon onise naa kee si yin lati je ki e mo eredii ise ati lati bebe fun ifowosowopo fun asejori ise naa ki won to bere idawole ise naa?
3. Nje eyin tabi ara ilu koi pa kan bi eto ise idagbasoke naa ni igbati ise naa fi bere? Ti o ba je beeni, e se alaye bi ajosepo naa seri Ti o ba je beeko, kini o faa?
4. Nje apejoro Kankan waiye bi o ti wun ki o ri?
5. Nje o lero wipe ipa kan wa ti o ye ki adari ilu ko tabi ti o ye ki ilu paapaa ko lati ibere ise akanse naa?
6. Gegebii enika, nje o loye tabi foju ri kudie kudie lorii idawole ise naa ni ibere pepe?
7. Ninu ero ngba ti e, ipele wo ni o lero wipe awon eniyan ilu ni ipa lati to ninu ise akanse naa?
 - a. Ipeelee akoko: gbigba ero lori ati dawo le ise ni ibere pepe?
 - b. Ipeelee keji: fif ipile ati awon eto lori ise naa lele
 - c. Ipeelee keta: didawo le ise ni kikun
 - d. Ipeelee kerin: sise atungbeyewo ise lati mo ibi ti o nilo atunse

AGBEYEWOWO KEJI: Agbekale ati eto lati owo ijoba Eyi Ti Omaa Fi Ipa Ti Ilu Maa Ko Han

8. Kini ero re ninu ikopa awon ara ilu ninu ikigbekale erongba ati ajosepo ara ilu, ijoba ati awon aladani??

9. Nje o ro wipe awon ara ilu se pataki ninu eto tabi asejori ise akanse naa? Ti o ba je be
10. Nje ilana wa eyi ti o n se eto ajosepo laarin ilu, ijoba ati awon aladani ti o sakoso ise naa?
11. Nje ari eto kan tabi akosile kan ti o se alaye ipa ti ilu ni lati ko. Ti o ba je bee, bawo ni a se yan awon alenuloro to se ipade lori eto naa. Se nipa idibo ni ase yan won ni tabi nipa yiyan lati okewa.

AGBEYEWOWO KETA: Amuye lorii ipa ti awon adari igberiko nko

12. kini erongba re lori awon asiwaju agbegbe nipa imo eko? Nje e lori wipe iwe kika tabi aiika adari ilu le je idiwo fun won lati kopa ninu eta naa.
13. kini erongba tire lori awon adari ilu, paapaa julo ni ipa imo won lati kopa ti o peye ati lati je asoju rere?
14. Nje o roo wipe ijoba ati awon aladani ni lati fi eto lele nipase eyi ti awon adari ilu yio fi je anfaani idanileko tabi gba ironi lagbara lori ipa ti won nilo lati ko fun asejori ise akanse naa?
15. Nje o lero wipe kikopa tabi aikopa awon ara ilu nii 'se pelu iselu tabi asepo ti o wa laarin awon eniyan ilu ati egbe oselu ti won nse?

AGBEYEWOWO KERIN: Ona Ifowosowopo tabi ajosepo

16. Bawo ni awon ara ilu se seto pelu ile ise aladani nipa kikopa ara ilu fun ajosepo to fesemule nipa se lilo awon eniyan ilu ati awon ohun alumoni ti o wa ni ayika fun asejori ise akanse ati idagbasoke ilu?
17. Awon wo ni ilana ajosepo ti e n lo lati jo se po pelu awon aladani ati ijoba

(olusewadi le ran akopa lowo le mo orisirise ilana eyi ti ajosepo ati asoyepo le fi wa'ye)

Ifaiye gba awon asoju ati igbimo lori ise	Lilo ero alatagba ti igbalode
Igbimo ara ilu	Ifoworo jomitoro oro pelu gbogbo ilu
Igbani'iyanju	Iwe atejade
Oro lati awon ti lilo kan	Igbimo adugb tabi esekuku
Igbimo awon amoye	Ajoso oni'gbaniyanju
Apejoro olodoodun	Apejo alalaye
Idanileko	Ifisun ati ona abayo
Ipade ara ilu	Ajumoka Iwe akanse lori ise naa

18. Ewo ninu akosile ti o wa ni oke yi lo dara julo?
19. Nje ijoba n kopa to ye lati rii wipe awon agbegbe ti ise akanse naa ti nlo ni ipa ti opeye?
20. Nje awon aladani nlo imo ati oye awon ara ilu? Nje awon ile ise aladani jeki awon oloye ni

igberiko ti o le mu itesiwaju ba ise naa?

21. Nje e ni oun miran lati so nipa ise naa ti o se Pataki sugbon ti a ko bere?



LAGOS STATE GOVERNMENT

Ashade Oladimeji Abiodun (216066737)

Date: 24th April, 2018

PhD Student in Public Policy
College of Humanities
University of KwaZulu Natal
South Africa.

Dear Mr. Ashade,

RE: REQUEST FOR INTERVIEW/PERMISSION TO DO A FIELD STUDY

This is to inform you that the Office of Finance, Lagos State has approved your request to do your field study at the Department of Public Private Partnership (PPP).

Your request was granted based on the fact that the requested information is for academic purpose.

You may need to inform the office two weeks earlier to when you shall be conducting the interview so that the necessary arrangement will be put in place.

Looking forward to receive you and best of luck in your academic endeavor.

Yours Sincerely,

Sunmoni A.O.J (Mr.)
For; Permanent Secretary

MINISTRY OF FINANCE

BADAGRY LOCAL GOVERNMENT BADAGRY WEST LOCAL COUNCIL DEVELOPMENT AREA

All communications should be addressed to
Office of the
BADAGRY WEST LOCAL COUNCIL DEV. AREA
P.O. Box _____ Badagry



OFFICE OF THE
BADAGRY WEST LOCAL COUNCIL DEV. AREA
KANKON
BADAGRY
LAGOS STATE

Our Ref. No: BWLCD/098/VOL1/034

3rd October, 2018

Your Ref. No: _____

Tel: _____

Mr. Ashade Oladimeji A.
(PhD Student),
Department of Public Policy,
School of Social Sciences,
University of KwaZulu,
South Africa.

Dear Mr. Ashade O.A,

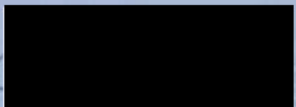
**RE: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION AND REQUEST TO PARTICIPATE
IN A RESEARCH STUDY.**

I am pleased to inform you that your request to conduct a survey in Badagry West Local Council Development Area has been approved by the Executive Chairman.

Kindly liaise with the Secretary of the Local Government for other information that will facilitate the process.

The Local Council Development Area is committed to accommodate researchers toward their attainment of academic excellence. We therefore wish you a successful period as you embark on the study in our Local Council Development Area.

Yours Sincerely,


Hon. Sovi Gusanu Paul
Secretary to the Local Government



IBEJU LEKKI LOCAL GOVERNMENT
LEKKI LOCAL COUNCIL DEVELOPMENT AREA

When replying please quote Reference
and date of this letter

Office of the _____ SLG _____
Lekki Local Council Development Area
1, Ayegbami Quarters, Lekki Town, Lagos State.

24th July, 2019.

MR. ASHADE OLADIMEJI A.
(PhD, Student)
Department of Public Policy,
School of Social Sciences,
University of KwaZulu Natal,
South Africa

Dear Mr. Ashade,


RE: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION AND REQUEST TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY

I am pleased to inform you that your request to conduct a survey in Lekki Local Council Development Area has been approved by the Chairman.

Kindly liaise with the LCDA Secretary for other information that will facilitate the process.

The LCDA is committed to accommodate researcher towards their attainment of academic excellence. We therefore wish you a successful period as you embark on the study in our LCDA.

Yours sincerely,


Hon. Oshinlaja A. Oloruntimehin
Secretary to the Local Government

OFFICE OF THE EXECUTIVE CHAIRMAN
IJEDE LOCAL COUNCIL DEVELOPMENT AREA

All Communications Should
be addressed to Office of
The Executive Chairman
Ijede Local Council
Development Area

(IKORODU LOCAL GOVERNMENT)

SECRETARIAT
1 Madan Street,
Ijede, Ikorodu



Ref No: _____
UD/LCDA/CHM/VOL-1/001

Date: _____
November 26, 2018

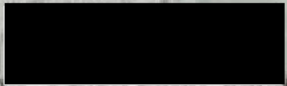
Mr. Ashade Oladimeji A.
Department of Public Policy,
School of Social Sciences,
University of Kwazulu Natal,
South Africa.

**APPROVAL TO CONDUCT A FIELD SURVEY IN IJEDE LOCAL
COUNCIL DEVELOPMENT AREA**

I am pleased to inform you that your request to do a survey in Ijede Local Council Development Area in respect of your research programme has been approved by the Executive Chairman.

We therefore wish you success in your research as we look forward to receive you.

Yours faithfully,


Hon. Gansu Fajana Jimoh
Executive Chairman.



**HIS HONOUR HIGH CHIEF (DR.) HUNDOGAN SAMUEL O. (JP)
OWHETON AHUNBE II**

NCE, BES (MISSOURI, COLUMBIA, USA), MED (UNILAG), PHF

**FIRST CLASS (WHITE CAP) CHIEF
THE AGOLOTO OF BADAGRY KINGDOM**
MEMBER BADAGRY LOCAL GOVERNMENT CHIEFTAINCY COMMITTEE

AGOLOTO PALACE:
1, Agoloto Palace Way, Off Marina Rd.,
Ganho Quarters,
Badagry, Lagos State.
Tel: 08034745455, 08023109201,
08051972836
E-mail: hundogansamuel@yahoo.com
2nd February, 2018.

Ashade Oladimeji Abiodun (216066737)
PhD Student in Public Policy
School of Social Sciences
College of Humanities
University of Kwazulu Natal
South Africa.

Dear Mr. Ashade,

RE: REQUEST FOR INTERVIEW/PERMISSION TO DO A FIELD STUDY

Your letter on the above refers please.

I write to convey the approval of His Highness, High Chief Samuel Olusina Hundogan, the Ahumbe II (Agoloto of Badagry) to do a study titled: community involvement in the implementation of National Policy on Public-Private Partnership: A case of Infrastructural Development in Lagos State, Nigeria.

He has also graciously approved to grant interview and that his palace be used for the focus group meeting. You are requested to liaise with the palace secretary for necessary arrangement on this.

His Highness shall be glad to offer assistance that will facilitate your field study in Badagry and its environs.

Accept the assurances of His Excellency warm regards, please.

Yours Sincerely,



[Redacted Signature]

Mr. B. O Olatunde

for: His Highness,

Agoloto of Badagry
Seek first the Kingdom of God and His righteousness and all other things shall be added unto you. Matt. 6:33
All correspondents to Agoloto of Badagry, Ganho Quarters, Badagry.



Council of Oba and Chiefs of Ikorodu

Oba Sekumade Palace, Ikorodu, Ikorodu Division Lagos State

Obamba Tos Benson Road,
Ikorodu Town
Lagos State

Tel:
P. O. Box
Ikorodu, Lagos.

Our Ref: _____ Your Ref: _____ Date: _____ 20__

6TH OF AUGUST, 2018

SPI/IKD.W/HRM/UNI.K/LI/VOL.1/001

HEAD, COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES,

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC POLICY,

HOWARD CAMPUS,

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU NATAL,

SOUTH AFRICA.

Dear Sir,

LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE FOR RESEARCH STUDY – ASHADE OLADIMEJI ABIODUN

This is to acknowledge the receipt of your letter dated 10th April, 2018 and to inform you that HRM Oba (Engr.) Basiru Aremu Sotonwa (Osomeku1), The Sekumade of Ikorodu, has granted the request of Mr. ASHADE OLADIMEJI ABIODUN who wishes to carry out a research study at the palace.

In view of this, the researcher is advised to liaise with the palace secretary to make necessary arrangement and pick a suitable date for the academic exercise.



TIJANI FARUK. T (SECRETARY)

FOR HIS ROYAL MAJESTY.



MR. ASHADE OLADIMEJI A.
Department of Public Policy,
School of Social Sciences,
University of KwaZulu Natal,
South Africa

Dear Mr. Ashade,

RE: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION AND REQUEST TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY

This is to acknowledge the receipt of your letter in which you requested to have a discussion with His Majesty, Oba Tajudeen Elemoro, The Onitedo of Itedo, Iwerekun Kingdom on Community Involvement in the implementation of National Policy on Public-Private Partnership using the Lekki Free Trade Zone as a case study.

I am pleased to inform you that your request has been granted.

I should be willing to host you in the palace for the interview and also give you the opportunity to have discussion with community chiefs and relevant community members on the subject-matter.

Accept my best wishes please.

Yours sincerely,
H.R.M. [Redacted Signature]
ONITEDO
Oke-odo Iwerekun Kingdom
HRM OBA TAJUDEEN ELEMORO
The Onitedo of Itedo, Iwerekun Kingdom.



HEAD OFFICE:
Oba's Palace, Oke-odo, Iwerekun Kingdom, Ibeju Lekki, Lagos State.
Tel: 0708 134 9923, 0704 212 8827, 0805 747 1758, 0803 497 2009

CHIEF ALIASAU LATEEF ADEWUNMI

THE BAALE OF IDASO TOWN

ADDRESS: 1, IDI-SEWE STREET IDASHO LEKKI LAGOS-STATE

TEL: 08027964040, 08181513958

YOUR REF: _____ OUR REF: _____ DATE: _____

February 27, 2019.

MR. ASHADE OLADIMEJI A.

Department of Public Policy
School of Social Sciences,
University of KwaZulu Natal,
Howard Campus, Durban.

Dear Mr. Oladimeji,

RE: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION AND REQUEST TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY

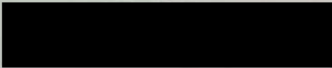
This letter acknowledges yours dated 9th January, 2019 in which you request to have discussion with the community chiefs of those communities affected by the Lekki Free Trade Zone to ascertain the level of their community involvement in the project.

I am pleased to inform you that arrangement has been made with the concerned community leaders and the meeting has been fixed for 15 March, 2019 by 10:00 a.m. at the palace of Baale of Idasho Town.

It is necessary for you to make refreshment available for every participant.

Accept my best wishes please.

Yours sincerely,


CHIEF ALIASAU LATEEF ADEWUNMI
The Baale of Idasho



UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU-NATAL

School of Social Sciences

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION FOR RESEARCH PURPOSE

As a community head, you are kindly invited to participate in a discussion on your community involvement in the implementation of the National Policy on Public-Private Partnership. The study shall involve leadership of every communities affected by the project.

Kindly note that your participation is critical to this study as we look forward to receiving you at the meeting scheduled to hold as follows:

Date:

Place:

Time:

Kindly note the following in respect of your participation:

- ✚ That your participation in this study is voluntary.
- ✚ Your participation is highly confidential and anonymous.
- ✚ Freedom to seek clarifications in respect of the study
- ✚ No incentives or benefit is available to participants

Any further questions/concerns or queries related to the study I understand that I may contact the researcher at
216066737@stu.ukzn.ac.za; +27633692229 (South Africa);
+2348177184444 (Nigeria)

Dr. Sybert Mutereko
(Project Supervisor)

Email: Muterekos@ukzn.ac.za Phone: +27 (0) 31.260.7951



FOCUS GROUP GUIDE

TO BE USED FOR COMMUNITY FACE-FACE INTERVIEW

OBJECTIVE: To generate data through participatory discourse in a careful and very sensitive manner from a group with specific characteristics using “funnel” approach.

Timing: 1hr 30mins.

Introduction: - Welcoming of participants and introduction

- Ethical discussion: voluntarism, confidentiality, privacy, clearance
- Rules guiding discussion: respect for other opinion, freedom to expression of contra-views, guide against abuse of persons, avoidance of domination of discussion by few individuals, objectivity, other ground rules to be set by the group.
- Need to transcribe information for the purpose of coding
- Recording of audio, video and photographs

Questions (Area of focus for the discussion):

Wider discussion

- Test PPP understanding
- General perception about PPP

Focus 1 – initial stage process

- How involved is the community in the project at initial stage?
- Has government played a good middleman?
- What factors are responsible for involvement and non-involvement?

Focus 2 - leadership

- Does leadership have any influence can the issue be linked to framework?
- Is it the role of government to build leadership capacity?
- Does community involvement have relationship with the leader’s political involvement?

Focus 3 - Collaboration

- Issues of collaboration and shared governance: how feasible in the current arrangement and how useful.
- Trust transparency and accountability
- Information, Education and empowerment
- Areas of conflict, fears and doubts about the project and PPP

Focus 4 – Institutional Framework

- Issues on Representativeness at stakeholder meeting; general perception
- Opinion on the need for defined participatory role of the community in the legal, policy and institutional framework establishing PPP in Nigeria

Vote of Thanks.

ASOKA ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDITING
45 Vausedale Crescent, Escombe, 4093

CELL NO.: 0836507817

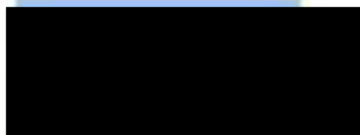


DECLARATION

**THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT THE FOLLOWING THESIS HAS BEEN ENGLISH
LANGUAGE EDITED**

*Community involvement in the implementation of the National Policy on Public-
Private Partnership: a study of infrastructural development in Lagos State, Nigeria*

Candidate: Ashade OA



DISCLAIMER

Whilst the English language editor has used electronic track changes to facilitate corrections and has inserted comments and queries in a right-hand column, the responsibility for effecting changes in the final, submitted document, remains the responsibility of the client and the editor cannot be held responsible for the quality of English Language expression used in corrections or additions effected subsequent to the transmission of this certificate on 01/12/2020.

Prof. Dennis Schaffer, M.A.(Leeds), PhD, KwaZulu (Natal), TEFL(London), ITTC Business English,
Emeritus Professor UKZN. Univ. Cambridge Accreditation: IGCSE Drama. Hon. Research Fellow, DUT.
Durban University of Technology.