

Collaborative Governance and Project Community Stakeholding in Developing Countries' Infrastructural Governance: Lessons from Nigeria's Experiential Knowledge

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Abstract

This study exhibits a departure from the existing “traditional” collaborative research agenda which emphasises rationalisation and efficiency by looking at the dynamics of collaborative governance hinged on shared governance, public accountability and stakeholders’ interests. Participants were drawn from different groups and sub-groups in communities where PPP infrastructural projects are located using both probabilistic and non-probabilistic techniques. Data were gathered and analysed through a blend of qualitative and quantitative methods. Based on the analysis, there were theoretical propositions that emerged from this study: (1) Community engagement is sacrosanct to the survival of any project located within the territorial space of the local community (2.) There was no evidence to suggest that the conventional public participation mechanisms had any positive impact on community groups’ suspicions and lack of trust in the handlers of a project. Hence, the study found a parasitic relationship between the host communities, project owners and project handlers. The study, therefore, recommends that policymakers in developing countries should entrench an endearing stakeholders’ policy that recognises and empowers the host communities for effective engagement in government’s collaborative arrangements with the private sector for infrastructural development in line with what is obtainable in the developed nations.

Keywords: Collaborative Governance, Community Stake-holding, Community Exclusion, Public-private Partnership (PPP)



Introduction

The term collaborative governance describes a policy system that opens up state activities to non-state actors for active involvement. The Institutional framework for collaborative governance is a success determinant of any collaborative arrangement of government. The collaborative arrangement, therefore, requires the pooling of various resources, knowledge and expertise. While the private sector designs, finances, builds and maintains the infrastructure, the onus now lies on the government to design an institutional arrangement through which skills and resources are effectively harnessed for the success of the project. Conventionally, it is the relevant government ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) that are responsible for implementing PPP. Therefore this study strives to find out how the institutional framework for collaborative governance in developing countries facilitates the involvement of the host communities in the execution of PPP infrastructural projects. Hitherto, policy analysts have not paid due attention to the strategic role institutions play in public policy implementation (Cahn, 2013; Polski & Ostrom, 1999). Such institutions are difficult to conceptualise due to their various applications and usage. The term can denote different things under different circumstance depending on context. Over the past decades, writers have perceived policy in the light of structural arrangements or established institutions. This perception is changing. Much of the recent literature is 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 processes seem cumbersome and complex (Cahn, 2013: 4).

In recent times authors have examined the relationship between institutional design and policy outcomes (Cruz & Samento, 2019; Constancio *et al.*, 2019; Gualini, 2018). All of these studies share a common denominator i.e. developing 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 be enabled to make their input to the policy design and implementation through a formally established law, policy or procedures; or informally, through rules, norms or mechanisms that offer incentives to stakeholders and actors in the operating policy environment (Mapfumo & Mutereko, 2020; Cruz & Samento, 2019; Norton & Hughes, 2018). This point is valuable when one considers the view expressed by 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. Relative to this, the National Council for Public-Private Partnerships in the United States (2013) posits that to have a meaningful PPP, an open communication system must be institutionalised. In the new style of infrastructural governance, the need to institutionalise information dissemination has become a central issue for scholars (Norton & Hughes, 2018; Musawa *et al.*, 2017; Ismail *et al.*, 2019). Greve and Hodge (2012) had earlier averred

that the institutionalised framework for PPP implementation should reflect transparency in contract institutions and implementation institutions.

In the light of the foregoing, therefore, this study analysed the activities of the Lagos Office of Public-Private Partnership (LSPPP) in various communities where megaprojects were being implemented, to discover the extent to which a framework for implementation shapes policy outcomes. According to Cahn (2013), policy outcomes are products of institutional and non-institutional influence. The researcher shares Cahn's view, which calls for the unification of roles "by both institutional (congress, courts, executives, judiciary and NGOs) and non-institutional actors (media, parties, interest groups etc.). However, much uncertainty still exists about the relationship between the actors, as studies have demonstrated (Ashade & Mutereko, 2020; Cruz & Samento, 2019; Gualini, 2018; Scott & Thomas, 2017).

Generally, this article seeks to analyse the extent to which the host communities who are supposedly stakeholders in the collaboration are excluded in the governance arrangement of the collaborative system. The authors also try to identify the challenges in the current policy in sub-Saharan African countries. The study was guided by the following research questions: (1) to what extent has the institutional framework for PPP promoted community engagement in the collaborative governance framework? (2) What are the existing participatory systems and how have they fostered partnership, collaboration and shared governance? The study was conducted in selected communities where PPP megaprojects are located. The PPP projects identified and the communities involved are: the Badagry communities in the Badagry Deep Sea Port, the Ibeju-Lekki communities in the Lekki Free Trade Zone, and the Ikorodu communities located at the Ikorodu terminal. The communities are largely dispersed but share lots of similarities in terms of governance structures, institutions, norms and values. This study conceptualised and analysed the collaborative governance arrangement in the PPP model using a collaborative governance model. The authors focus centred on the extent to which the citizenry is involved through its representatives in an emerging governance of networking and collaborations.

Having presented the background of this study in this section, in the succeeding section the authors examine the various concepts and constructs upon which the study was established and the extent to which participatory values were institutionalised in PPP practice. Thereafter the authors engage in conceptual discourse and explain the theoretical framework guiding the study. The finding is subsequently discussed and a conclusion will be drawn in the final section.



Conceptual Discourse

In view of the above, the authors found the need to present and explain the various constructs and variables of this study in the succeeding section to further illuminate the argument. The conceptual discussion takes place in the context of existing knowledge and builds support for the justification of the study and the objectives.

Collaborative governance

Collaborative governance is seen as a proactive policy instrument for facilitating collaborative projects across every spectrum (Ansel & Gash, 2018). Literature has advanced the application of collaborative governance in public management and policy study (Scott & Thomas, 2016). Ansel and Gash in their earlier publication saw the term: *as a governing arrangement where one or more public agencies directly engage non-state stakeholders in a collective decision-making process that is formal, consensus-oriented, and deliberative and that aims to make or implement public policy or management public programs or assets* (Ansell & Gash, 2007: 544).

The key variables in this definition which form the basis of the analysis later in this article are identified as follows:

- i. The forum is initiated by public agencies
- ii. Participants in the forum include non-state actors
- iii. Participants engage in decision-making and are not merely “consulted”
- iv. The forum is formally organised and meets collectively
- v. The forum arrives at decisions by consensus; and
- vi. The focus of the collaboration is on public policy (Ansell & Gash, 2007:544-545)

Emerson, Nabatchi and Balogh (2012: 3) critically examine the definition of Ansell and Gash conclude that it restricts the scope of collaborative governance to only “formal, state-initiated arrangements, and engagement between government and non-governmental stakeholders.” Emerson *et al.* therefore perceive the concept from the standpoint of “multi-partner governance,” which extends the collaboration from involving only the state or public agencies by involving private and social groups, community-based and even civic engagement. They offer what they describe as a “broader definition” which involves collaboration with non-state actors, inter-community and civic groups. In governance, “real power is to be held by non-state actors” (Hughes, 2012: 137).

Placing collaborative governance in the realm of public policy is key to this study. There are studies where the concept has been perceived as purely administrative, so that administrators have the sole prerogative to manage a project with less or no public attention (Irving & Stansbury, 2004). The brought to the present author’s mind the usual dichotomy issue between administration and policy. Traditionally, there are two schools to the argument of issues being policy and administrative (Ekhatior, 2002). Early writers

like Woodrow Wilson, Frank Goodnow and L.D. White belong to the conservative school. These early thinkers hold the opinion that the field of policy concerns law making only, and should not be confused with policy administration, which is the work of administration. However, the new school comprising authors like Luther Gullick, John Gaus and John Appleby argue that without administration there cannot be policy-making due to the numerous discretionary powers vested in the bureaucrats in decision-making. This in effect makes “bureaucrats Policy makers and political actors” (Fredrickson, 2012:58; Ekhatior, 2002: 128).

Public-private collaboration

The fragmentation of society along the lines of the state, the public and private institutions has resulted in a new challenge, a new system and an entirely new operation which, according to Osborne (2010) and Haveri (2016) calls for the restructuring of public administration from its traditional forms to new public management and, in recent time, public-private collaboration - PPP. The term describes a long-term relationship between public and private institutions. The undertaking may be complex and may involve various stakeholders. According to De Vries and Yehoue (2013), the governance structure of the collaboration is key to the success and efficiency of a PPP. Burke and Demirag (2015) add that focussing on the relationship between public and private partners alone is not enough to yield the desired governance output.

Nwagwu (2016: 8) conceptualises a public-private partnership as “a long contractual relationship between public sector agencies and private sector entities under which the responsibility for any or all of the combination of designing, financing, construction, management and operations of public infrastructures and utilities that were traditionally undertaken by both the public and private sector are contractually shared and jointly undertaken by both public and private sector usually in proportion to the level of risk taken.” Being the “third way”, a PPP combines the value of governmental stability with the qualities of market-oriented parties (Kiljn & Teisman, 2000: 84). Governance is a descriptive term which best describes the “inter-jurisdictional relationship” in a PPP network (Frederickson *et al.*, 2012: 290). The broader involvement of all stakeholders is a major characteristic of such governance (Rhodes, 2000; Pierre & Peters, 2000).

The idea of public-private partnership (PPP) is a global concept that has attracted different perceptions which have failed to alter the meaning in real terms. The reason for this is not far-fetched. PPP has a too broad a scope not to be able to include such nuances. Besides, it manifests itself in different ways depending on extraneous factors pertaining to the financial character of the project, the governance model, and the ownership and project life cycle (Cruz & Cruz, 2017). Reynaers (2013, 41) conceptualises PPP as a wide range of public-private arrangements which has generated much confusion in public administration literature as to what the term means, precisely. Psoa (2008) remarks that though PPP is theoretically appealing, due to the plethora of complexities connected to its



conceptualisation, the arrangement sometimes leaves partners dissatisfied, especially in developing nations, because policy makers fail to understand what they really want in the partnership. The common feature in the description of PPP in the literature is that the concept defines a variety of arrangements involving the public and private sectors working together. The agreement between government and one or more private partners (where 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).

Public Participation

In the literature the term public participation is used interchangeably with the terms citizenship participation and community participation, and they are treated synonymously (Bowen, 2006). The US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) (2016:1) remarks that public participation involves more than doing “what the public wants”. Instead it involves seeking input from a wide spectrum of the public without discrimination, where such input aids decision or actions. Quick and Bryson (2016) viewed the concept as that which involves the direct or indirect involvement through representatives of concerned stakeholders in decision making about policies, plans or programmes in which they have an interest. Scholars have attempted to identify certain variables that would contribute to the definition of public participation as a concept. The differences in the perception of public participation by scholars are influenced by variables like the degree of participation, the flow of communication, and theoretical analysis and objectives (Reed, 2008; Rowe & Frewer, 2000).

For the purpose of this study, however, a simple, meaningful definition given by Bowen will suffice. Bowen perceives participation to be “the active involvement of local community residents, and particularly persons identified as poor, in the social fund project and in project related activities” (2006:16). Based on this definition, authentic participation involves community members playing roles at every stage of the project, sharing ideas and making a contribution to decision making. This view expressed by Bowen (2006) was shared by King *et al.* (1998). Public participation, in all, encompasses all activities or processes by which members of the public contribute to the shaping of decisions taken by public institutions. Through public participation, stakeholders interact with government agencies, political leaders, non-profit organisations and business concerns that create or implement public policies and programmes.

In the next section considerable attention is paid to PPP policy implementation in sub-Saharan Africa with a view to examining public involvement in practice.



A Brief Insight into PP Implementation and Public Involvement in Sub-Saharan Africa

Collaborative activity is relatively low in Africa due to the region's small market and low concentration of projects (Rana & Izuwa, 2018). Whilst some of the countries have developed appropriate policies for the implementation of PPP, others are at various stages of policy development and implementation (Mafusire, Anyanwu, Brixiova & Mubila, 2010). It is reported that South Africa, Nigeria, Kenya and Uganda constitute 48% of 335 total PPP infrastructural projects in sub-Saharan Africa. South Africa is ranked amongst the leading countries in PPP laws, policies and governance (The EIU Africa Infrascopes, 2015). Zimbabwe, for instance, had its first PPP implementation experience in 1994 when it had a BOT arrangement for the construction of Limpopo toll bridge. It has since carried out few large-scale PPP projects. Bhoroma writes that despite the successes recorded after the launch of PPP in Zimbabwe three decades ago, PPP is beginning to "evade" possible projects rather than to become strong. This is attributed to a lack of leadership commitment, institutional decay and an unclear policy framework (Bhoroma, 2018).

In a recent study Mapfuno and Mutereko (2020) point to high-level polarisation between dominant parties as a factor hindering collaborations and community involvement in government programmes in Zimbabwe. The authors further state that there is "no specific legislative provision that provides for community involvement in project governance in Zimbabwe if the PPP project is not an exemption" (Mapfuno & Mutereko, 2020). Similarly, a study that explores the policy implications for the implementation of some PPP projects in Ghana identifies "strong community support and relationship" amongst others as critical for successful implementation (Osei-Kyei & Chan, 2017: 10). An empirical study that compares PPP implementation constraints in Ghana (being a developing country) and Hong Kong (a developed country) found that the major constraints to PPP implementation in Ghana are connected to the unfavourable investment climate (Osei-Kyei & Chan, 2017).

Authors have maintained that for PPP to be successfully implemented across Africa, PPP policy ought to centre on the people (SustyVibe, 2016; Africa Venture, 2013). Another critical factor revolves around land acquisition and the mode of acquisition. According to Arimoro (2020) land is a critical part of the PPP policy agenda. It is noteworthy that land remains the greatest asset to community aborigenes in Africa. The people therefore consider land to be their heritage and that they should have a major stake in any project located within their territorial space, irrespective of the means by which the land was acquired; forcefully, by negotiation, through compromise or otherwise. Authors have concluded that host communities hold land as their stake. Therefore, the use of their land for developmental projects confers on them some inalienable rights of engagement in project implementation. However, both private partners and government pay little attention to the governance of projects insofar as it concerns the host communities. Infrastructural development revolves around land appropriation, expropriation, location and acquisition. The understanding of the land administration and governance system is



instrumental to the successful implementation of the PPP policy agenda (The World Bank Group, 2020; Arimoro, 2020).

Although public-private collaboration is in its infancy in Africa, it is interesting to note that some African countries are beginning to see the need to review and revise their PPP frameworks. This is aimed at reducing the risks inherent in PPP implementation. The idea is also to accommodate local resources and clientele. Some have developed local content requirement policies in their PPP implementation, governing laws and dispute resolution policies, the distribution of risks, specific guidelines for land usage and the ownership of assets. Tanzania established its PPP Act in 2010. The country revised the Act by reviewing the PPP institutional framework for implementation in 2015. The 2015 reviewed framework replaces the Public Procurement Regulation (Zervos, 2017). Telaky, Mpambije and Ngussa (2020) note in their study that the lack of solid institutional arrangement has been a major threat to the survival of PPP in the health sector in Tanzania. The authors aver that non-compliance with policies, laws and regulations is a problem bedeviling collaborative governance in Tanzania, which is attributable to a poor institutional framework. It is therefore important to note that the government of Tanzania resolved through its PPP Technical Committee that PPP must endeavour to provide an opportunity for citizen empowerment in line with its National Economic Empowerment Policy (Zervos, 2017). Economic empowerment is therefore central to PPP implementation in Tanzania and the country has developed sustainable affirmative action in this regard.

Mozambique engaged in its first PPP undertaking in 2013 having approved its PPP Law Regulation (Decree 16) in 2012. The Nacala Corridor Project is a 16 billion USD project. Most of the PPP undertakings negotiated and awarded in Mozambique are in the energy sector, although the government is also calling for tenders in a bid to award contracts in road infrastructure by concession (Lopes, 2017). The law establishing PPP in Mozambique stipulates an obligation to list 5-20% of the private investors' share capital on the country's stock exchange. Lopes writes that the PPP contract in Mozambique is guided by the need for job creation and skills transfer. He adds that Mozambican partners are involved in all collaborative undertakings for the purpose of the transfer of "know-how" to these firms (Lopes, 2017:153).

Indeed, PPP is becoming prominent in the economic and political agenda of African nations. Sub-Saharan African countries are developing appropriate policies to promote PPP uptake. Nevertheless, Onuobia, Okoro and Mimiko observe that there are fundamental inhibitors to the attainment of such policy goals in Nigeria and, by extension, in Africa. These inhibitors include weak legal frameworks, weak institutions, poor financial bases, and lack of access to funds, poor expertise, unfavourable investment climates and inconsistent policies (Onuobia *et al.*, 2017; Osei-Kyei & Chan, 2017; BCG, 2017). These inhibitors, including the corrupt and unethical practices that characterise partnership deals



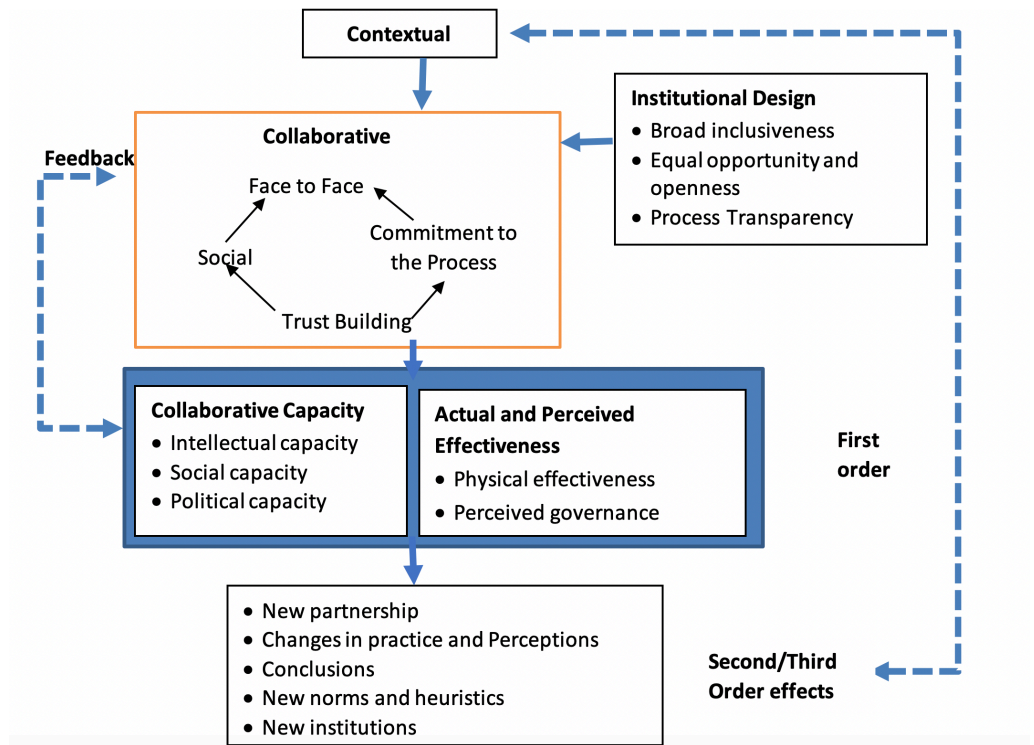
and implementation in developing countries (Lugemwa, 2022; Bavington, 2021; Arimoro, 2019,) must be curbed if Africa truly means to achieve any meaningful infrastructural development through its PPP policy frameworks. Another important point to note is that the African political terrain is relatively unstable and volatile. Factors which negatively impacts on the completion time of projects are contract review, contract neglect, the withholding of contract-funding or the deliberate seizure of the funds. This instability has a strong correlation with policy discontinuity. For instance, the Cenpower Kpone IPP, a PPP deal in Ghana, experienced the change of four ministers during the project life. Oftentimes this change in government poses a serious threat to the survival of the projects. Some projects have died naturally as a result of policy change that is always informed by a change in government.

Theoretical Framework of the Study

A model of collaborative governance was adopted to form a framework upon which this study was built. Ideas and thoughts expressed by various contributors to public participation and collaborative governance were considered relevant to give an insight into the theoretical framework and for the analytical discussion of the constructs and variables involved in this study. Various models are considered for review. The research draws chiefly from the collaborative governance model developed by Kim (2016). Kim presents a community governance collaborative framework which is more community-driven or agency driven. Kim claims to address the limitations of the process-focussed evaluations of most writers on collaborative governance. This issue was addressed by Ansell and Gash, however, in an article which was published about ten years earlier. The unique contribution of Kim's work is the focus on community collaboration and governance which "provides a new participatory space for democratic practices that legitimizes the substantial influence of residents in the urban decision process" at the community level (2016: 354). As illustrated in Fig. 1.0, Kim's 8-element framework for collaborative community governance includes contextual factors, institutional design, collaborative process, collaborative capacity, actual and perceived effectiveness, second and third-order effects, feedback and governance adaptation.



Figure 1. Kim's Framework for Collaborative Governance (Kim, 2016)



Kim's framework indicates the interrelatedness of certain variables in the collaborative process, for instance, face to face dialogue, commitment to the process, trust-building and social learning (see figure 1.0). The collaborative process, in turn, produces collaborative capacity and tangible outcomes in terms of infrastructural development (Kim, 2016). Institutional design such as broad inclusiveness and equal opportunity and resources are the minimum requirements for ensuring the legitimacy of the governance process. The functioning of the variables produces feedback processes to their respective preceding stages. The process, therefore, allows easy adaptation to a constantly changing socio-economic and political environment (Kim, 2016). Plotnikof proposes that collaborative governance manifests itself in various initiatives which facilitate round-table discussion, networks, partnerships and community programmes (Plotnikof, 2015).

The authors use the collaborative governance model as a conceptual map on which the components of governance systems related to policy or programme-based inter-governmental co-operation are situated. The authors draw substantially from the models developed by Ansell and Gash (2008) and Kim (2016) to analyse how the policy framework

and implementation mechanisms have addressed the problem of social exclusion and participatory governance to promote the policy objective of infrastructural development and management in developing countries. The model is applied in the context of the policy environment where the collaboration is taking place, to accommodate various stakeholders.

Collaborative governance models, from the above illustrations provide the basis for stakeholders' participation and broad inclusivity in PPP implementation. The models provide a template to analyse the practices in sub-Saharan African countries. In the next section, the authors present a review of public stake-holding in the implementation of PPP in selected African countries. We rely on literature to enhance our understanding as well as to make a patchwork comparative analysis.

Subsequently, attention is given to the materials used for data gathering and the methodological approach for data analysis. Lastly the data were analysed, conclusions reached and recommendations made.

Materials and Methods

The main purpose of this section is to present the various methodological processes employed by the researchers to carry out this study.

Population and sampling

The population of this study included senior executives in ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) connected to the PPP projects, and members of the community in leadership positions in three administrative divisions of Lagos State. The population was grouped into two clusters. Cluster I involved MDAs while cluster II represented participants at the community level. Cluster II comprised two categories; Category I included the traditional institutions of the communities while category two included various interest groups domiciled in the local government headquarters. The researcher sought audience with the Director, Directorate of Public-Private Partnership in the Ministry of Finance. The authors employed purposive sampling technique in that the participants were selected on the basis of criteria selected in such a way as to illuminate the phenomena under study (Laher & Botha, 2012). The criteria included representation from PPP managing institutions, community and community interest groups. The sampling method is described as "criterion" sampling (Nieuwenhuis, 2014: 80)

Data collection methods & instruments

Data were collected via the administration of a questionnaire, interviews and focus group discussions (FGDs). Brief descriptions of the instruments are presented below.



Focus group discussion: The Authors considered focus group discussion (FGD) as the best approach to extract information from the leadership of the communities under this study. As earlier mentioned, the community ruling class was a major criteria and the group constituted a major fragment of the population of this study. Therefore, ten discussants institutions were drawn from each community. Every discussant who participated in the FGDs was formally invited via a letter or phone messaging and duly informed of the ethical issues guiding the investigation. They consented and expressed the willingness to participate and liberty to withdraw were emphasised in the invitation at the commencement of the discussion. The discussants were drawn from amongst the chiefs and opinion leaders in Badagry, Ijede (Ikorodu) and Lekki communities.

Interview: As mentioned earlier, this study used the criterion of institutional representation. A senior Officer, in the Office of Public Private Partnership in Lagos State was interviewed. The authors employed structured and semi-structured interviews. The instruments used for the face-to-face interviews included an interview guide and an audio-visual recorder (used with the permission of the interviewee).

Questionnaire: For the descriptive data, both open- and closed-ended questionnaires were administered to residents of the communities where the identified projects are located. The questionnaire was divided into three broad sections. Section A asked questions relating to the bio-data of the participants. This was considered necessary because the information gathered assisted the authors in analysing the respondents' characteristics vis-à-vis their responses. The main research question was meant to analyse how collaborative strategies of the government with the private sector promoted shared governance with the host communities to promote democratic ideals that earn public trust to achieve collaborative governance objectives in the project communities (see Table 1.0 for details about the emerging questions). The questionnaires were randomly distributed to sub-groups within the communities stratified into forum member of civil society, opinion leaders, forum members, professional group and others (not specify) 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. In all, 147 questionnaires were distributed. The population of identified groups members across the communities involved in this study was 841. The sample size was thus determined using the Yamane formula:

$$no = \frac{N}{1 + N(e^2)}$$

The formula was applied at 95% precision level. We thus arrived at 271 sample size. After an adjustment to the formula using a finite population correction factor, a slight reduction

was made on the sample to derive a 205. Therefore, a total number of 205 questionnaires were distributed out of of which 146 questionnaires were validly returned and fit for analysis. The Local Community Development Authority (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.

Data Analysis

The authors applied an analytical method whereby both qualitative (QUAL) and quantitative (QUAN) data were gathered in a separate procedure. Then, both data sets were integrated and interpreted using their combined strength to draw conclusion. This is referred to as mixed method analysis (Cresswell, 2015). An exploratory sequential mixed method design (EDS) was used. Themes pertaining to the collaborative governance model and other related constructs arising from the interviews and FGDs were "transitioned" into quantitative instruments for further quantitative investigation. Another sample of the population consisting of opinion leaders, forum leaders, professional groups, civics and other community members were issued questionnaires and treated in isolation (QUAN). Focus group discussions were held with a community Council of Chiefs. Interviews were also held with community heads (*Baales*) and the administrative head in the Lagos State Office of Public-Private Partnership (LSPPP). The FGDs and interviews (QUAL) were treated independently in a sequential manner. The sequential nature of the design made data collection and interpretation more feasible and easier for the researcher. The three clusters of data were independently analysed and interpreted. The two types of data (QUAN and QUAL) were complementary and were given equal weight in arriving at the outcomes of this study. The authors interviewed community leaders and PPP agency executives to determine their roles, perceptions and involvement in the system. The patterns of behaviour of the respondents were observed and contributed to the interpretation and the analysis of both the interviews and the FGDs. Parametric tests were carried out and the "within the group" standard deviation and the mean distribution were considered normal.

Due to the large quantity of textual information generated from the FGDs and interviews conducted in respect of this study, the researcher employed a matrix framework for qualitative analysis. Matrix analysis is a versatile method aiding a qualitative researcher to summarise, synthesise, strengthen and enrich his or her conjectures and conclusions based on the data derived from the primary sources (Groenland, 2016). The matrix was used to capture salient information during the qualitative analysis 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 FGDs, as responses sometimes wandered away from the subject of investigation. Therefore, the authors



deviated slightly from the traditional method of coding and indexing 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. 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 transcript in line with the themes and were then categorised and presented in a matrix.

Matrix 1.0. Summary of qualitative data on institutional design (Quantifiable Matrix)

Categorised themes	Badagry Deep Port	Lekki Deep Sea Port	Ikorodu Light Terminal	Badagry Deep Port	Lekki Deep Sea Port	Ikorodu Light Terminal
	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: Ashade (2020)

At a glance, the matrix analysis of the qualitative data in Matrix 1.0 illustrates the 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 approach to data gathering and the project locations. While there was uniformity in the responses given in the two approaches (the FGDs and the 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 the data gathered during the interviews vary significantly from those gathered during the FGDs. In most cases, the values were relatively higher for the interviews in all the themes reviewed. One deduction

that can be made from this output is that the 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 the 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 the location.

Table 1: Mean response rating of responses from PPP project sites

Emerging questions from the theoretical constructs	Mean Response Rating				
	Mean	SD	Category	RI	Extent
For effective collaboration, there is need for a feedback system through which government can ascertain whether the community is actively involved or not	4.45	0.762	A	1.35	High
Government still needs to design a framework, which will clarify the role of the community in projects that involve private firms	4.38	0.873	A	1.33	High
Are you satisfied that your community is a host to the project?	3.99	0.932	A	1.21	High
My community is adequately involved in the project	2.79	1.019	SWA	0.85	Low
There has been an established communication link between the handlers of the project, government, and the community	2.77	1.024	SWA	0.84	Low
As a member of the community, I am quite satisfied with the level of my community's involvement in the project	2.73	1.052	SWA	0.83	Low
Members of my community do not need to be involved in the project	1.89	1.133	D	0.57	Low
Pooled	3.29	0.447	SWA	1.00	

Source: Ashade, 2020. **Sample size** = 146.

SD = Standard Deviation, RI = Relative Index. 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD), 2 = Disagree (D), 3 = Somewhat Agree (SWA), 4 = Agree (A), 5 = Strongly Agreed (SA).

The mean response scores from Table 3.0 indicate that the respondents in all the communities surveyed somewhat agreed on all the items. The extent to which the respondents agreed with the notion that government still needs to design a framework that will clarify the role of the community in all the projects is high, with a mean response of 4.38 and a relative index of 1.33. The opinion that government needs to have an institutionalised feedback mechanism that will evaluate the extent of community involvement and community feelings received a high mean score of 4.45 and a relative index of 1.35 respectively. The respondents somewhat agreed that their community is involved, but the response rate was very low. The mean score and the relative index stand at 2.79 and 0.85 respectively. The community believed to a very low extent that there had been an established communication link between the stakeholders with a mean score of 2.77. Respondents disagreed that the communities do not need to be involved in the project. In all, over 95% of the respondents agreed that the current framework needs to be revisited with the purpose of creating a new framework that will specify the role the



community needs to play in the entire process, especially at the state and local government levels. Sixty-one respondents (representing 42.1% of the sampled members of the community) expressed their satisfaction that the project is sited in their community. 47 (32.4%) respondents were extremely satisfied while 28 (19.3%) were indifferent. 6 respondents (representing 4.1%) of the entire group of respondents indicated that they were not satisfied with the project, while 3 (2.1%) respondents indicated that they were extremely dissatisfied with their community being the host to the project.

The authors further determined the level of the community's satisfaction with the location of the projects in their community. The community members largely expressed feelings of satisfaction over the location of the project in their community. Generally, over 74.75% of the respondents indicated that they were satisfied with the fact that the project is located in their community. The 74.7% represents the totality of respondents who indicated that they were pleased with the location of the project in their community. 19.2% were indifferent while 21% were quite dissatisfied for various reasons.

Discussion of the Findings

The critical analysis of the results suggested the following possible inferences: (1) conflict of interest exists between community interest groups and community leaders; (2) despite the oversight function of the LSPPP, there were inconsistencies in the way the handlers of the project transacted with the communities regarding empowerment; (3) There are several unexplored areas in which the community may 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 struggle, 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 need for the benefits of a large number 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 project in their domain as well as to address their local challenges.

Collaborative governance revolves around empowering the stakeholders to set the overall direction through policy process involvement, and to deliver policy outcomes, aims and objectives (De Schepper, Dooms & Havendock 2014; El Gohary, 2006). Scholars who have made contributions to this perception maintain that public participation and stakeholder's involvement in a policy like PPP is rooted in local capacity building and local community involvement (James, 2017; Kim, 2016; Choguill, 1996a, 1996b). Imparato and Ruster (2003) and Desai (2002) hold the view that when the community is empowered this will assist

them in making meaningful contributions to issues of public concern that affect them. However, important issues that are likely to arise are the extent to which the administrators are willing to build local capacity towards empowerment and the disposition of policy implementers and the PHs towards capacity empowering the community for effective involvement. These are questions that remain unanswered at the present. There is, however, abundant room for further progress in determining how much empowerment of the host community is required and how to entrench empowerment in the policy framework. In terms of Arnstein's ladder, the conclusion drawn in this study is that citizen's empowerment is situated 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 of a project remains elusive, active involvement beyond mere consultation is desirable for authentic participation, which is the infrastructural policy framework for PPP implementation.

Viewed theoretically, the findings of this study lend some support to the established views of the institutional analysts and development theorists. They posit that a policy, good or bad, is governed by institutional arrangements (Constantio *et al.*, 2019; Cruz & Samento, 2019). Therefore, an effective and efficient institutional framework is a *sine qua non* to the successful implementation of any government policy. The post-ante analysis of institutional arrangements that guides the implementation of PPP policy in Nigeria shows that the pattern of interaction and information flow between the action arena (where policy actors are meant to play their part) and policy outcomes lacks the basic link of network governance. Going by the IAD framework, the implementation of national policy on PPP has yet to be aligned with the *essentialia* of institutional collaboration in the local context for a robust network collaborative framework.

Overall, this finding indicates that in spite of its effort to embrace collaborative governance through PPP Nigeria is yet to adopt a pragmatic approach to policy implementation in line with the perceptions of democratic governance theorists. The overall results of this study mirror the general conclusion of a study that was carried out by James (2017) in a descriptive study carried out to assess the influence of community participation on the implementation of community based projects in Kenya with a particular focus on Kieni Sub-County. The author concludes that the reasons why over 40% of community projects in Kieni sub-county in Kenya fail during implementation are the inadequacy of community awareness, community consultation, monitoring, evaluation and capacity building. The insight gained from this current study suggests that the host communities to many PPP projects may remain non-partners or passive partners in the governance of those projects, although they are situated in their own domains, contrary to what could be achieved if the partnership[were fully developed (Scherrer *et al.*, 2016). Their non-involvement somehow contradicts the theoretical postulates of collaborative governance. By implication, the host communities will continue to be at loggerheads with the PHs until their roles are



clearly defined and institutionalised in the policy framework of National Policy on Public-Private Partnership. The study confirms that PPP, as a policy instrument, will remain unpopular and lack support in the broad spectrum of society until the institutional framework is redesigned to promote the ideals of network governance. In general, this investigation holds out the hope 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. This study therefore suggests that it is strategically important for policy makers to identify specific roles for the host communities in the existing infrastructural governance arrangement and to institutionalise these in the PPP policy implementation framework rather than to leave the issue of host community involvement to the discretionary powers of the bureaucrats.

Summary and Conclusion

The authors found the framework for the implementation of collaborative governance at the community level to be regimented, over-bureaucratic, top-down in approach and highly fragmented. Based on the findings of this study, policymakers would need to redesign the policy framework upon which PPP are established in most developing countries 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 policy implementation framework (PPP-PIF) Policy rather than leaving the decision on whether or not to involve the community to the discretionary powers of the bureaucrats and the project handlers. 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 acceptance of the project. They should commit human, material and intellectual resources valuable for the success of the projects and should do so in a way that creates a climate of good will that will facilitate implementation. If the capacity of the local communities is underestimated, this may condemn to failure PPP projects that might otherwise have been viable.

In conclusion, this study has linked the major challenge of community exclusion to defective institutional design. The study has revealed the inadequacies of the existing system and proposed remedies. 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 structures.

Finally, 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. In view of this, it is necessary to hold a stakeholder roundtable conference to take a holistic view on how the host communities can be addressed by all concerned stakeholders. In relation to this, policy makers need to put machinery in place to assess the performance and activities of the project handlers 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. Key questions were raised through the PIA, and recommendations were made for the implementation of PPP. Policy makers could outsource this responsibility for this or assign this to the executive office for PPP implementation in the policy framework. In addition, policy makers need to realise that the role of the communities is strategic to policy monitoring and evaluation. Given this, we have pointed 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 belonging and empowering them to play an active role in the participatory process.

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