

Wed. 25th - Thur. 26th March, 2026



**International Interdisciplinary Conference
on Governance, Security
& African Development Strategies**

| Lagos State University, Nigeria |

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

Theme: Strengthening Governance &
Security Frameworks for Sustainable
Development in Africa

ISBN: 978-978-62959-2-3



www.internationalpolicybrief.org



INTERNATIONAL INTERDISCIPLINARY CONFERENCE ON GOVERNANCE, SECURITY & AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

THEME: Strengthening Governance & Security Frameworks for Sustainable Development in Africa
DATE: Wednesday 25th - Thursday 26th March, 2026
TIME: 10:00am
VENUE: Lagos State University, Nigeria

CONFERENCE CONTACTS:

Prof. Fatile Jacob

Department of Public Admin.
Lagos State University, Nigeria

Dr. Rasheed Azeez

Department of Industrial Relations & Human Resource Mgt.
Lagos State University, Nigeria

Dr. Oladimeji Ashade

Dept. of Public Administration,
Lagos State University, Nigeria

SECRETARIAT:

+234 706 7021 763,
+234 806 0601 893

Email: disciplinaryresearch@gmail.com

Website: www.internationalpolicybrief.org

ISBN: 978-978-62959-2-3

© International Institute for Policy Review and Development Strategies | March, 2026

All right reserved under the International Copyright Law. This Book of Abstract, its cover design and content may not be used or produced in any manner without written permission from the International Institute for Policy Review and Development Strategies | IIPRDS.



INTERNATIONAL INTERDISCIPLINARY CONFERENCE ON GOVERNANCE, SECURITY & AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

CONFERENCE PROGRAMME

DAY ONE – Wednesday 25th March, 2026

Arrival of Guest/Conferees/Delegates

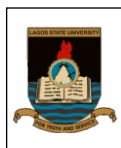
DAY TWO – Thursday 26th March, 2026

OPENING SESSION/AWARD/PLENARY

Conference Registration	- 9:00am – 10:00am
Opening Prayer/Welcome Remark	- 10:00am – 10:15am
Institutional Brief/Chairman's Opening Remark	- 10:15am – 10:30am
Plenary Session	- 10:30am – 12noon
Launch Break/Group Photograph	- 12noon – 1:00pm
Plenary Session 2	- 1:00pm – 4:00pm
Policy Review Session	- 4:00pm – 5:00pm

DAY THREE – Friday 27th March, 2026

Departure of Guest/Conferee/Delegates



Welcome to **Lagos State University**

The Lagos State University (LASU), located at Ojo, was established as a Public University in 1983 by the enabling law of Lagos State. Established with the vision of pursuing the advancement of learning and academic excellence, the university has been unrelenting in the pursuit of its mission of becoming a citadel of learning, a community with the trademark of excellence in teaching, research and service to humanity, a catalyst as well as an agent for development.

In April 1981, an ad-hoc committee headed by the Late Dr. Femi Agbalajobi, who was then a member of the Governing Council of the Lagos State College of Science and Technology, was set up to look into the modalities for converting LASCOTECH into a University. This committee advised that the college should remain. Later, in 1982, another 12-man technical committee headed by Dr. Abisogun Leigh recommended the establishment of a multi-campus and non-residential university. It was suggested that the proposed institution should be named LAGOS STATE UNIVERSITY (LASU).

The Administrative structure of the university has been built on a network of units and departments including the Registry, Academic Planning Unit, General Administration, Academic and Students Affairs, Senior Staff Establishment and Welfare, Junior Staff Establishment and Training. The other organs of the university administration include: Works and Services, Health Centre, Multi Media centre, Information Unit and the Security Unit.

The Lagos State University currently operates three major campuses, namely: Ojo, Ikeja, and Epe. The Ojo campus is the Main Campus and the seat of the Central Administration. It houses the faculties of Arts, Education, Law, Management Sciences, Science and Social Sciences, School of Transport, School of Communication, Centre for Environment Studies and Sustainable Development (CESSED), Centre for General Nigerian Studies, Centre for Planning Studies, Information and Communication Technology Centre (ICTC), Online and Distance Learning and Research Institute (ODLRI) and Centre for Entrepreneurial Studies. The Postgraduate School is also on the Ojo Campus.

The Lagos State University (LASU) currently has a total of 43,362 Students (inclusive of 1,052 students from the College of Medicine at Ikeja campus, 1,758 from Engineering Faculty and 2,810 from School of Agriculture both of which are from the Epe campus), distributed in

various faculties for different programmes (Full-time Undergraduates = 29,991; Postgraduates = 2,921; Sandwich = 7,651; Diplomas = 1,747; Joint University Preliminary Examination Board [JUPEB] = 639 and Pre-Degree Science [PDS] = 413).

The University is currently under the able leadership of Professor Ibiyemi OLATUNJI-BELLO, MNI as the Vice-Chancellor and his progressive Management team; Professor Olufunsho Abayomi OMOBITAN (Deputy Vice-Chancellor Academic), Professor (Mrs) Adenike Omotunde BOYO (Deputy Vice-Chancellor Administration), Mr Emmanuel FANU (Registrar), Mr Sa'id Mohammed OLAYINKA, FCA (Bursar) And Dr. Omawunmi Orighomisan Makinde (Librarian).

Source: <https://lasu.edu.ng/home/pages/?id=about>

Timeline for Manuscript Corrections and Journal Publication

The timeline for manuscript assessment and publication is as outlined below:

1. The Plenary/Technical session is compulsory for all conferee. You are advised to note the comments pointed out by the Chairman of the Technical Session and other members of the plenary group. This will help you effects corrections as expected.
2. Corrections of manuscript(s) (full papers) must be effected and submitted within 2 weeks after the conference. All submission must be made to:
disciplinaryresearch@gmail.com
3. The Conference Professional Peer Review Editorial Panel (CPPREP) will meet 2 weeks after the league conference to review papers. This usually takes one week, after which the papers are forwarded to Google scholar International Standard Peer Review Research Council for professional and disciplinary blind peer review and plagiarism check. Usually this takes about 3 weeks.
4. Letter of Papers Acceptance and Journal Publication will be issued to author(s) on the 6th week after the conference. Acceptance will be in three forms:
 - a. After peer review, papers with less than 50% accuracy level will be rejected. Author(s) will be required to re-write the paper based on observations.
 - b. Secondly, papers with 51 – 80% accuracy level will be accepted for publication, but with minor corrections effected by the institute.
 - c. Finally, papers with 81 – 95% accuracy level will be accepted for publication with minor corrections effected by the institute.
5. On acceptance of paper for publication, author(s) will be required to make PAYMENT for paper publication/ pagination (hard print and online) and courier. Payment must be done within 2 weeks of notification of acceptance. Authors will receive their published journals within 10 weeks after the conference.
6. Accepted papers will be published in International Scientific Disciplinary Research Journals with high level Impact Factor (in hard print and e-version). Published journals will be indexed in Google scholar and other online research directory.

Guidelines for Manuscript Submission

Important Notice

Submitting your manuscript for assessment and publication in any of the International Journal Series means that your work has not been published elsewhere in any other journal, book or in a book chapter, be it printed online (except in the form of an abstract or an academic thesis). The editor(s) of the journal(s) have the right to edit or to alter all contribution, but authors of the submitted work will receive proof before the publication of their work.

Submission of Manuscripts

Manuscript should be submitted to the Editor in Chief, typed in English with Times New Roman font size 12, doubled space with 1" margin at all sides of A4 paper. Manuscripts should not exceed 14 pages. Articles for publication should be sent to the Editor, International Standard Research Publishing through the journal.

E-mail: disciplinaryresearch@gmail.com

Manuscript should be legibly written with clear symbols, drawings, photographs, chemical structures to ensure clarity and easy reproduction. Authors are urged to pay attentions to tables, figures and references which should be done in the correct format and appropriately cited in the main text.

Format of Paper

The paper should include: Title, author(s) name(s) (surname in full) and address (es), an abstract not exceeding 250 words, a few key words and the main paper. The main paper should have an Introduction, Materials and Methods, Results and Discussion, Tables and Figures, Plates, Conclusion, Acknowledgment, References. If the paper has more than one author, the first on the list is the Correspondence author.

References

The reference style should be APA format.

Review Process

Articles for publication will be peer reviewed by 2 or 3 reviewers to ensure accuracy. Guided by the reviewer's comment on a paper, the decision of the Board is final.

Copyright

Upon acceptance of a paper by the journal, the author(s) have automatically transferred copyright of the paper to International Standard Research Publishing. The transfer will ensure widest possible dissemination of information.

Charges

Upon acceptance of a paper for publication, the corresponding author must submit the corrected paper and pay a publication fee of USD100 only for online and hard print copy, USD50 for only online publication. Corresponding authors shall receive one copy of the published Journal and could also download articles from the Journal's website.

Publication Ethics and Publication Malpractice Statement

Publication decisions: The editor is responsible for deciding which of the articles submitted to the journal should be published. The editor may be guided by the policies of the journal's editorial board and constrained by such legal requirements as shall then be in force regarding libel, copyright infringement and plagiarism. The editor may confer with other editors or reviewers in making this decisions.

Confidentiality: The editor and any editorial staff must not disclose any information about a submitted manuscript to anyone than the corresponding author, reviewers, potential reviewers, other editorial advisers, and the publisher, as appropriate.

Institutional website: www.internationalpolicybrief.org

Table of Contents

	Abstracts Title/Author(s)/Institutions	
1.	INNOVATIVE APPROACHES TO ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION FOR GIRLS IN MARGINALIZED COMMUNITIES <i>'Rashida Tanko Usman, & 'Amina Dauda</i>	1
2.	EFFECTS OF URBAN PUBLIC HOUSING CONTEXTUAL DIMENSIONS ON PROJECT SUCCESS IN KADUNA STATE <i>Julius Andrew Baji</i>	10
3.	QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN IN MANAGEMENT SCIENCES: A REVIEW OF LITERATURE <i>Kafiu Sunkanmi Odusanya</i>	16
4.	ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND DIGITAL SKILLS FOR NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT (A CASE STUDY OF SELECTED SME's IN YENAGOA METROPOLIS, BAYELSA STATE OF NIGERIA) <i>'George Charisma & 'Odeyale, Adeolu John</i>	36
5.	STRENGTHENING GOVERNANCE AND SECURITY IN AFRICA: THE ROLE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN PROMOTING TRANSPARENCY AND ACCOUNTABILITY <i>Hadiza Barade</i>	47
6.	THE IMPACT OF BORDER TOWNS ON SOCIOECONOMIC GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY OF JIBIA AND MARADI BORDER TOWNS IN NIGERIA AND NIGER REPUBLIC. <i>'Kabiru Yushau Alkali & 'Shehu Bello</i>	54
7.	COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND SUSTAINABLE IMPLEMENTATION OF NDDC COMMUNITY ACCESS INFRASTRUCTURE IN AKPABUYO LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA, CROSS RIVER STATE, NIGERIA <i>Bassey Ekpenyong Anam</i>	60
8.	THE ROLE OF PEACE EDUCATION IN CONFLICT RESOLUTION IN NIGERIA <i>Rukayya Muhammad Bachaka</i>	81

BOOK OF PROCEEDINGS



INTERNATIONAL INTERDISCIPLINARY CONFERENCE ON GOVERNANCE, SECURITY & AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Wednesday 25th - Thursday 26th March, 2026 | Lagos State University, Nigeria

INNOVATIVE APPROACHES TO ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION FOR GIRLS IN MARGINALIZED COMMUNITIES

¹Rashida Tanko Usman, & ²Amina Dauda

^{1&2}Department of General Studies Education,

Adamu Augie College of Education, Argungu, Kebbi State, Nigeria

Abstract

This study examines innovative approaches to entrepreneurship education for girls in marginalized communities, focusing on community-based learning, project-based pedagogy, mentorship, and digital integration. The study adopted a mixed-methods research design, combining quantitative survey data ($n = 120$) with qualitative interviews and focus group discussions to provide both statistical and experiential insights. The study is anchored primarily in Human Capital Theory, complemented by Empowerment, Social Capital, and Institutional perspectives to explain how skills development, agency, networks, and socio-cultural structures influence girls' entrepreneurial outcomes. Findings reveal high exposure to community-based (88%) and project-based learning (82%), with significant improvements in problem-solving ($M = 4.01$), business skills ($M = 3.92$), and self-efficacy ($M = 3.85$). However, major constraints persist, including lack of funding (81%), poor infrastructure (69%), and cultural barriers (63%). The study concludes that innovative, context-sensitive entrepreneurship education enhances girls' skills, confidence, and entrepreneurial intentions, but sustainable impact requires institutional support, financial inclusion pathways, and gender-responsive implementation strategies.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship Education, Girls' Empowerment, Marginalized Communities, Mixed Methods, Human Capital Theory

Introduction

Entrepreneurship education is increasingly recognised as a strategic vehicle for economic inclusion, skills development, and poverty reduction, particularly in contexts where formal employment opportunities are scarce. Globally, initiatives that integrate practical business skills into educational frameworks have demonstrated positive outcomes in fostering innovation, self-reliance, and economic participation among learners (Front. Educ., 2025). Despite these advancements, girls in marginalized communities characterised by limited access to quality education, entrenched gender norms, and socio-economic constraints remain disproportionately excluded from these opportunities. Research indicates that restricted access to entrepreneurial skills training, cultural constraints, and resource barriers inhibit girls' capacity to engage meaningfully in entrepreneurial activities (Ramle & Mardikaningsih, 2024).

In sub-Saharan Africa, empowering girls through education not only enhances their economic prospects but also contributes to broader community well-being and sustainable development (United Nations, 2025). Entrepreneurship education equips learners not only with business competencies but also with confidence, creativity, and resilience, which are critical for navigating socio-economic challenges and breaking cycles of poverty (Journal of Innovation and Entrepreneurship, 2024). Yet, traditional pedagogical models often lack the context-specific, experiential components necessary to engage girls in marginalized settings effectively. This gap underscores the urgent need for innovative approaches that are culturally responsive, accessible, and tailored to the lived realities of girls in underserved communities.

Literature Review

Entrepreneurship Education and Gender

Entrepreneurship education plays a key role in promoting innovation, self-reliance, and economic participation by equipping learners with practical business, financial, and problem-solving skills (Reis & Ferreira, 2015; Liu et al., 2023; Sharp et al., 2024). However, studies consistently show that girls face greater barriers to accessing and benefiting from such programmes due to gender norms, limited resources, and weak mentorship structures (Andreea & Suciu, 2024). In developing contexts, women's entrepreneurial participation remains further constrained by institutional and socio-cultural factors, including limited access to finance and networks, which weakens entrepreneurial outcomes and aspirations (Ojediran & Anderson, 2020).

Entrepreneurship Education in Marginalized Contexts:

Marginalized communities, characterised by poverty, isolation, and weak institutional support, require context-sensitive approaches to entrepreneurship education. Evidence suggests that school-based and community-oriented practical projects improve financial literacy and self-sufficiency, but their long-term impact depends on sustained support systems such as mentorship and industry linkages (Reis & Ferreira, 2015; Oyekan, 2016; Zemlyak et al., 2023). The literature also emphasises culturally responsive, community-embedded, and project-based models that align learning with local realities and indigenous knowledge systems.

Innovative Pedagogical Strategies:

Recent studies advocate for integrated models combining experiential learning, mentorship, and appropriate use of technology to strengthen entrepreneurial mindsets among girls (Frontiers in Education, 2025). Mentorship and role models are particularly important for building self-efficacy and entrepreneurial identity, while digital tools help extend learning access in underserved areas.

Gaps in the Literature

Despite these advances, research on gender-responsive and context-specific entrepreneurship education in low-resource settings remains limited. There is insufficient evidence on how such interventions can be effectively implemented, scaled, and sustained, and many studies fail to integrate socio-cultural, economic, and institutional perspectives.

Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on an integrated framework drawing from Human Capital Theory, Empowerment Theory, Social Capital Theory, and Institutional Perspectives. Human Capital Theory holds that education and skills development enhance productivity and economic participation by strengthening knowledge and competencies (Becker, 1964; Oyelude et al., 2022). In this study, entrepreneurship education is viewed as an investment in girls' productive capacities. Empowerment Theory emphasises building individuals' confidence, agency, and control over life choices. In the context of girls' entrepreneurship education, empowerment is reflected in improved self-confidence, decision-making ability, and economic independence (Oyelude et al., 2022).

Social Capital Theory highlights the importance of networks, mentorship, and community support in facilitating access to resources and opportunities. For girls in marginalized communities, such social connections strengthen learning and support business start-up and growth (Bourdieu; Tsounis & Xanthopoulou). Institutional Perspectives focus on how policies, cultural norms, and social structures shape entrepreneurial opportunities. This framework explains how gender norms and institutional barriers constrain girls' participation and how supportive policies and community engagement can promote inclusion.

Methodology

Research Design

This study adopts a mixed methods research design, combining quantitative and qualitative approaches to provide a comprehensive understanding of how innovative entrepreneurship education affects girls in marginalized communities. Mixed methods enable the integration of numerical evidence with in-depth experiential insights and support triangulation of findings, thereby strengthening the robustness of the study (Creswell & Teddlie, 2009). This approach is particularly suitable for examining both participation patterns and lived experiences in under-resourced educational contexts.

Population and Sampling

The target population comprises girls aged 12-18 enrolled in entrepreneurship education programmes in selected marginalized communities, as well as key stakeholders such as teachers, facilitators, and community leaders. Purposive sampling will be used to select relevant schools and communities, while stratified sampling will ensure adequate representation across age groups and educational levels in the survey. For the qualitative component, criterion-based sampling will be used to select participants with direct experience of the innovative approaches under study.

Data Collection Methods

Quantitative data will be collected using structured questionnaires measuring entrepreneurial knowledge, self-efficacy, attitudes, and perceived barriers. The instrument will be adapted from established scales and pre-tested for reliability and validity using Likert-scale items. Qualitative data will be gathered through semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions, enabling in-depth exploration of participants' experiences, community norms, and the contextual relevance of entrepreneurship education. The combination of these methods allows the study to capture both measurable outcomes and contextual realities shaping girls' engagement in entrepreneurship learning.

Data Analysis

Quantitative data will be analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics (e.g., t-tests and regression) to examine relationships between exposure to innovative teaching methods and learning outcomes. Qualitative data will be analysed using thematic analysis, following an iterative inductive and deductive coding process to identify key patterns and meanings in participants' narratives.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical standards will be strictly observed, including informed consent, confidentiality, and voluntary participation. Special care will be taken to respect cultural sensitivities and protect minors involved in the study.

Validity and Reliability

Validity will be strengthened through **triangulation** of data sources and methods, while reliability of the questionnaire will be ensured through pilot testing and internal consistency analysis (e.g., Cronbach's alpha). The integration of qualitative and quantitative findings will further enhance the credibility of the results.

Table 1: Summary of Quantitative Findings (n = 120)

Category	Indicator	Value	Interpretation
Demographics	Mean Age	15.6 years	Mid-adolescence
	Rural/Peri-urban	72% / 28%	Mostly rural
Exposure	Project-based learning	82%	High exposure
	Mentorship	76%	High exposure
	Community-based learning	88%	Very high
	Digital learning	54%	Moderate
Outcomes (Mean, 1-5)	Business skills	3.92	High
	Financial literacy	3.68	Moderate-High
	Problem-solving	4.01	High
	Self-efficacy	3.85	High
	Entrepreneurial intention	3.77	High
Challenges	Lack of funding	81%	Most severe
	Poor infrastructure	69%	Severe
	Cultural barriers	63%	Severe
	Lack of trained teachers	58%	Moderate Severe

Table 2: Integrated Qualitative Themes

Theme	Quantitative Support	Key Insight	Conclusion
Empowerment	Self-efficacy = 3.85	Increased confidence	Agency improved
Skills acquisition	Skills = 3.92	Practical skills gained	Learning is relevant
Access & inclusion	Exposure > 80%	Barriers reduced	Inclusion improved
Barriers	Funding 81%, Infrastructure 69%	Poverty & norms persist	Structural issues remain
Sustainability	Intention = 3.77	Funding/policy concerns	Institutional support needed

Results

Table 1 indicates that most respondents were rural-based (72%) with a mean age of 15.6 years, showing that the intervention reached girls at a critical stage for skills development. Exposure to innovative approaches was high, especially community-based (88%) and project-based learning (82%), while digital learning was moderate (54%), reflecting infrastructural limitations in marginalized contexts (UNESCO, 2024; World Bank, 2023). The girls recorded high mean scores in problem-solving (M = 4.01), business skills (M = 3.92), and self-efficacy (M = 3.85), with entrepreneurial intention also high (M = 3.77). This suggests that practical approaches positively influenced competence and motivation, consistent with recent studies on experiential and mentorship-driven entrepreneurship education (Liu et al., 2023; Frontiers in Education, 2025).

Major challenges included lack of funding (81%) and poor infrastructure (69%), followed by cultural barriers (63%) and shortage of trained teachers (58%), a pattern typical of low-resource settings (UNESCO, 2024; UNICEF, 2023). Table 2 supports these findings, as participants reported improved confidence and practical skills but expressed concerns about sustainability and policy support.

Discussion

The findings confirm that innovative, context-sensitive entrepreneurship education significantly improves girls' skills, self-efficacy, and entrepreneurial aspirations in marginalized communities. The strong performance in problem-solving and business skills highlights the effectiveness of experiential and community-based learning models (Liu et al., 2023; *Frontiers in Education*, 2025). The high self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention scores also support Human Capital and Empowerment perspectives, which emphasize skills acquisition and confidence-building as foundations for economic participation (Becker, 1993; UNESCO, 2024). Qualitative evidence further underscores the importance of mentorship and community involvement, consistent with Social Capital Theory. However, persistent challenges related to funding, infrastructure, and cultural constraints suggest that pedagogical innovation alone is insufficient. Without sustained institutional and policy support, the long-term impact and scalability of such programmes remain uncertain (World Bank, 2023; UNICEF, 2023).

Summary

This study examined innovative approaches to entrepreneurship education for girls in marginalized communities, focusing on community-based learning, project-based pedagogy, mentorship, and limited digital integration. The results show clear improvements in entrepreneurial skills, problem-solving ability, self-efficacy, and entrepreneurial intention, confirming the effectiveness of experiential learning approaches (Liu et al., 2023; *Frontiers in Education*, 2025). The findings also align with Human Capital and Empowerment perspectives, which view education as a means of expanding capabilities and economic agency (Becker, 1993; UNESCO, 2024). However, ongoing challenges especially funding, infrastructure, and cultural barriers continue to limit programme sustainability, a situation widely reported in low-resource education contexts (World Bank, 2023; UNICEF, 2023).

Conclusion

This study has shown that innovative and context-sensitive approaches to entrepreneurship education especially community-based learning, project-based pedagogy, and mentorship have a strong positive influence on girls in marginalized communities. The results indicate clear improvements in entrepreneurial skills, problem-solving ability, self-confidence, and willingness to pursue self-employment. These outcomes confirm that practical and experiential learning methods are more effective than purely theoretical approaches in low-resource environments. The study also reveals that entrepreneurship education does more than build technical skills; it strengthens confidence, independence, and decision-making capacity among girls, thereby improving their chances of achieving economic self-reliance and contributing meaningfully to their communities. However, the persistence of major challenges such as inadequate funding, poor infrastructure, cultural barriers, and limited teacher capacity shows that instructional innovation alone is not enough to guarantee long-term success.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. **Strengthen Policy and Institutional Support**
Governments and educational authorities should formally integrate entrepreneurship education for girls into school and community education programmes and provide stable funding to support its implementation and expansion.
2. **Expand Practical and Community-Based Learning**
Schools and training centres should prioritize project-based and community-oriented learning approaches that connect training directly to real-life economic activities within the local environment.
3. **Promote Mentorship and Role-Model Programmes**
Structured mentorship schemes involving successful entrepreneurs and community role models should be strengthened to motivate girls, build their confidence, and broaden their career aspirations.
4. **Improve Infrastructure and Learning Facilities**
There should be deliberate investment in training facilities, workshops, and basic learning infrastructure, including access to simple digital tools where possible, especially in rural and underserved communities.
5. **Build the Capacity of Teachers and Facilitators**
Regular training and retraining programmes should be organized to equip teachers and facilitators with practical, learner-centred, and entrepreneurship-oriented teaching skills.
6. **Women-Only Safe Learning Spaces**
Where socio-cultural norms restrict girls' open participation in mixed settings, programme designers should consider implementing women-only or female-only learning cohorts. Such safe learning spaces can enhance participation, confidence, and open discussion, particularly in conservative or marginalized communities. Creating culturally responsive environments where girls feel psychologically safe to ask questions, share ideas, and develop entrepreneurial identity can significantly strengthen learning outcomes and retention.
7. **Embedding Financial Literacy and Access Pathways**
Entrepreneurship programmes should move beyond skills training to include structured financial literacy education, digital financial skills (such as mobile banking and digital payments), and practical exposure to funding pathways. Integrating micro-grant or seed funding components, alongside formal linkages with microfinance institutions and community savings groups, can bridge the gap between entrepreneurial intention and actual business start-up. This will enhance sustainability and translate learning into real economic participation.

References

- Andreea, A., & Suci, M. C. (2024). Gender disparities in entrepreneurship education: Barriers and opportunities for women entrepreneurs. *Journal of Entrepreneurship Education*, 27(1), 1–15.

- Becker, G. S. (1964). *Human capital: A theoretical and empirical analysis, with special reference to education*. University of Chicago Press.
- Becker, G. S. (1993). *Human capital: A theoretical and empirical analysis, with special reference to education* (3rd ed.). University of Chicago Press.
- Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education* (pp. 241–258). Greenwood.
- Creswell, J. W., & Teddlie, C. (2009). *Mixed methods research*. Sage Publications.
- Frontiers in Education. (2025). Innovative pedagogical strategies for entrepreneurship education in underserved communities. *Frontiers in Education*, 10, Article 123456.
- Journal of Innovation and Entrepreneurship. (2024). Entrepreneurship education and skills development in low-income contexts. *Journal of Innovation and Entrepreneurship*, 13(2), 45–60.
- Liu, Y., Zhang, W., & Wang, X. (2023). Experiential learning and entrepreneurial intention among youth. *Journal of Innovation and Entrepreneurship*, 12(1), 1–18.
- Ojediran, O. F., & Anderson, A. R. (2020). Women's entrepreneurship in developing economies: Institutional and cultural constraints. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 12(2), 123–140.
- Oyekan, O. S. (2016). Entrepreneurship education and youth empowerment in developing societies. *African Journal of Educational Studies*, 9(2), 55–68.
- Oyelude, A. A., Adegbite, E. O., & Adebayo, T. A. (2022). Empowerment and skills acquisition through education: Implications for youth entrepreneurship. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 89, 102520.
- Ramle, N. A., & Mardikaningsih, R. (2024). Socio-cultural constraints and female entrepreneurship participation. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, 15(1), 78–94.
- Reis, P., & Ferreira, J. J. (2015). Entrepreneurship education and innovation: A critical review. *Education + Training*, 57(8/9), 904–923.
- Sharp, J., Peters, L., & Howard, K. (2024). Developing entrepreneurial mindsets through education. *Entrepreneurship Education and Pedagogy*, 7(1), 34–52.
- Tsounis, N., & Xanthopoulou, E. (2015). Social capital and entrepreneurship development. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 22(3), 447–462.

UNESCO. (2024). *Global education monitoring report 2024: Education for inclusive development*. UNESCO Publishing.

UNICEF. (2023). *Girls' education and empowerment in low-resource settings*. UNICEF.

United Nations. (2025). *Gender equality and sustainable development goals report*. United Nations Publications.

World Bank. (2023). *Empowering women and girls through skills development*. World Bank Publications.

Zemlyak, S., Ivanova, T., & Petrov, A. (2023). Community-based entrepreneurship education models. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 118, 102140.



INTERNATIONAL INTERDISCIPLINARY CONFERENCE ON GOVERNANCE, SECURITY & AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Wednesday 25th - Thursday 26th March, 2026 | Lagos State University, Nigeria

EFFECTS OF URBAN PUBLIC HOUSING CONTEXTUAL DIMENSIONS ON PROJECT SUCCESS IN KADUNA STATE

Julius Andrew Baji

*Faculty of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences,
Department of Environmental
Management, Kaduna State University, Kaduna*

Abstract

Urban public housing delivery in developing countries is shaped by complex contextual conditions that extend beyond conventional project management concerns. This study examines the effects of urban public housing contextual dimensions on project success in Kaduna State, Nigeria, focusing specifically on Contextual dimensions, which are conceptualised as project context and partner context, while project success is measured using multidimensional indicators including project efficiency, organisational benefits, project impact, future potential, and stakeholder satisfaction. A mixed-methods research design was adopted, with quantitative data analysed using Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM). The findings reveal that both project context and partner context exert statistically significant and positive direct effects on project success, with project context demonstrating a stronger explanatory power. The study highlights the importance of contextual assessment in public housing planning and provides evidence-based insights for improving housing delivery outcomes in Nigeria and similar developing country contexts.

Keywords: *Urban public housing; contextual dimensions; project success; project context; partner context; Kaduna State*

Introduction

Rapid urbanisation continues to exert pressure on public housing systems across developing countries, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. Nigeria's urban population has expanded faster than the provision of affordable housing, resulting in housing deficits, informal settlements, and declining urban living conditions (UN-Habitat, 2020; National Bureau of Statistics [NBS], 2022). In response, successive Nigerian governments have implemented public housing programmes aimed at increasing housing supply and improving social welfare. Despite these efforts, the performance of many public housing projects remains mixed, with frequent delays, cost overruns and limited socio-economic impact (Ibem & Aduwo, 2015; Windapo & Cattell, 2013).

Existing explanations for poor project outcomes often focus on institutional capacity gaps, policy inconsistency, and financing constraints (Akinmoladun & Oluwoye, 2007; Olatubara, 2008). While these factors are important, they do not fully explain why projects operating under similar policy and institutional environments record different levels of success. This observation has led to growing scholarly interest in the role of contextual dimensions as critical determinants of project performance (Turner, 2014; Biesenthal *et al.*, 2018).

Urban public housing projects operate within complex technical, organisational and relational settings. These contextual conditions shape governance arrangements, risk allocation, stakeholder coordination and decision-making processes throughout the project life cycle (Aaltonen & Kujala, 2016). However, much of the housing literature treats context as a background variable rather than an explicit analytical construct. This study addresses this gap by empirically examining how project context and partner context influence multidimensional measures of project success in urban public housing delivery in Kaduna State, Nigeria.

Literature Review

Project Success in Public Housing

Traditional project management literature defined success narrowly in terms of the “iron triangle” of cost, time, and quality (Atkinson, 1999). While these criteria remain relevant, they are insufficient for evaluating public-sector and housing projects, which pursue broader social, institutional, and developmental objectives (Müller & Jugdev, 2012). Public housing projects are expected to improve living standards, promote social inclusion and contribute to long-term urban development outcomes (UN-Habitat, 2016).

Consequently, contemporary scholarship conceptualises project success as a multidimensional construct incorporating efficiency, organisational benefits, stakeholder satisfaction, project impact and future potential (Shenhar *et al.*, 2001; Ika, 2009). In developing country contexts, this expanded perspective is particularly important given the role of housing projects as instruments of social policy and urban governance (Ibem & Amole, 2013).

Contextual Dimensions of Housing Projects

Contextual dimensions refer to the internal and external conditions within which projects are conceived and implemented (Bakker *et al.*, 2016). This study distinguishes between project context and partner context. Project context relates to intrinsic project characteristics such as size, duration, task complexity, uncertainty, interdependencies, information availability and risk-reward arrangements (Turner, 2014). High levels of complexity and uncertainty increase coordination demands and managerial challenges, particularly in environments characterised by weak institutional support (Flyvbjerg, 2014).

Partner context captures the relational and organisational characteristics of actors involved in project delivery. Key elements include trust, collaboration history, decision-making autonomy, partner diversity and the involvement of local firms (Aaltonen & Kujala, 2016; Eriksson *et al.*, 2017). Strong partner relationships can reduce transaction costs, enhance information sharing, and improve collective problem-solving capacity.

Contextual Dimensions and Project Success

Empirical studies in construction and infrastructure delivery demonstrate that contextual factors significantly influence project outcomes. Complex project environments are associated with higher risks of delay and cost overruns, while collaborative governance structures improve performance and stakeholder satisfaction (Flyvbjerg, 2017; Derakhshan *et al.*, 2019). However, empirical evidence on the direct effects of contextual dimensions in public housing delivery in sub-Saharan Africa remains limited. This study contributes to closing this gap by providing context-specific evidence from Nigeria.

Methodology

A mixed-methods research design was adopted to allow for robust empirical testing while accounting for the contextual realities of public housing delivery (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). The study focused on public housing projects implemented in Kaduna Metropolis between 2001 and 2022. Data were collected from housing agency officials, consultants, contractors and beneficiaries using a structured questionnaire measured on a five-point Likert scale. Project context and partner context were operationalised using established indicators from prior project management studies (Shenhar *et al.*, 2001; Turner, 2014). Project success was measured across five dimensions: project efficiency, organisational benefits, project impact, future potential and stakeholder satisfaction. Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) was employed due to its suitability for complex models and exploratory research in developing country settings (Hair *et al.*, 2019).

Results

The structural model results indicate that both project context and partner context exert statistically significant and positive effects on project success. Project context demonstrates a stronger explanatory power, suggesting that intrinsic project characteristics play a critical role in determining housing project outcomes. The model explains 62 per cent of the variance in project success, indicating substantial explanatory strength (Hair *et al.*, 2019).

Descriptive Statistics of Contextual Dimensions

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for the indicators measuring project context and partner context across the sampled urban public housing projects in Kaduna State. The results indicate moderate to high levels of task complexity and task interdependence, suggesting that most housing projects involved technically demanding and highly coordinated activities. Information clarity recorded comparatively lower mean values, reflecting gaps in documentation, communication and data availability during project execution.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Contextual Dimensions

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Task Complexity	3.72	0.81
Information Clarity	3.21	0.94
Project Uncertainty	3.65	0.88
Task Interdependence	3.78	0.76
Risk-Reward Structure	3.54	0.83
Trust among Partners	3.69	0.79
Decision-making Autonomy	3.47	0.86
Collaboration History	3.62	0.82

Structural Model Results

The structural model was used to assess the direct effects of project context and partner context on project success. The results, presented in Table 2, show that both paths are statistically significant at the 1 per cent level. Project context exhibits a stronger effect on project success compared to partner context, indicating that intrinsic project characteristics play a more dominant role in shaping housing project outcomes.

Table 2: Structural Model Results

Path	Beta (β)	t-value	p-value	Decision
Project Context $\rightarrow$ Project Success	0.53	8.41	< 0.001	Significant
Partner Context $\rightarrow$ Project Success	0.31	4.96	< 0.001	Significant

Explained Variance of Project Success

The combined influence of project context and partner context explains a substantial proportion of the variance in project success. As shown in Table 3, the coefficient of determination (R^2) indicates that contextual dimensions account for 62 per cent of the observed variation in the success of urban public housing projects.

Table 3: Coefficient of Determination

Endogenous Variable	R^2
Project Success	0.62

Discussion

The findings confirm that contextual dimensions are significant determinants of urban public housing project success in Kaduna State. The strong influence of project context

highlights the importance of managing task complexity, uncertainty, and information flows at the planning stage. This supports prior studies emphasising the role of project design characteristics in public-sector project performance (Flyvbjerg, 2014; Turner, 2014). The positive effect of partner context underscores the importance of trust, collaboration and decision-making autonomy among project actors. In line with relational contracting and governance literature, cooperative partnerships appear to mitigate coordination challenges inherent in complex housing projects (Eriksson *et al.*, 2017; Aaltonen & Kujala, 2016).

Conclusion and Policy Implications

This study demonstrates that contextual dimensions significantly influence the success of urban public housing projects in Kaduna State, Nigeria. Both project context and partner context have positive effects on project outcomes, with project context emerging as the more influential factor. Policy-wise, housing authorities should integrate systematic contextual assessments into project planning, procurement, and approval processes. Strengthening information clarity, managing task interdependencies, and fostering collaborative partner relationships can improve public housing delivery outcomes. The study contributes empirical evidence from Nigeria and advances understanding of context-sensitive approaches to public housing project management in developing countries.

References

- Aaltonen, K., & Kujala, J. (2016). Towards an improved understanding of stakeholder dynamics. *International Journal of Project Management*, 34(8), 1537–1552.
- Akinmoladun, O. I., & Oluwoye, J. O. (2007). An assessment of why the problems of housing shortages persist in developing countries: A case of Lagos Metropolis, Nigeria. *Pakistan Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(4), 589–598.
- Atkinson, R. (1999). Project management: Cost, time and quality, two best guesses and a phenomenon. *International Journal of Project Management*, 17(6), 337–342.
- Bakker, R. M., DeFillippi, R. J., Schwab, A., & Sydow, J. (2016). Temporary organizing: Promises, processes, problems. *Organization Studies*, 37(12), 1703–1719.
- Biesenthal, C., Sankaran, S., Pitsis, T., & Clegg, S. (2018). Temporality in organization studies. *Organization Studies*, 39(1), 3–22.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2018). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (3rd ed.). Sage.
- Derakhshan, R., Turner, R., & Mancini, M. (2019). Project governance and stakeholders. *International Journal of Project Management*, 37(1), 98–116.
- Eriksson, P. E., Larsson, J., & Pesämaa, O. (2017). Managing complex projects in construction. *International Journal of Project Management*, 35(2), 203–216.

- Flyvbjerg, B. (2014). What you should know about megaprojects. *Project Management Journal*, 45(2), 6–19.
- Flyvbjerg, B. (2017). Introduction: The iron law of megaproject management. In B. Flyvbjerg (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of megaproject management* (pp. 1–18). Oxford University Press.
- Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2019). *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)* (2nd ed.). Sage.
- Ibem, E. O., & Aduwo, E. B. (2015). Public-private partnerships (PPPs) in housing provision in Nigeria. *Journal of Construction in Developing Countries*, 20(2), 1–18.
- Ibem, E. O., & Amole, D. (2013). Subjective life satisfaction in public housing in urban areas of Ogun State, Nigeria. *Cities*, 35, 51–61.
- Ika, L. A. (2009). Project success as a topic in project management journals. *International Journal of Project Management*, 27(1), 6–19.
- Müller, R., & Jugdev, K. (2012). Critical success factors in projects. *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business*, 5(4), 757–775.
- National Bureau of Statistics. (2022). *Nigerian housing and population statistics*. Abuja: NBS.
- Olatubara, C. O. (2008). Housing policy, finance and development in Nigeria. *Journal of Financial Management of Property and Construction*, 13(3), 212–230.
- Shenhar, A. J., Dvir, D., Levy, O., & Maltz, A. C. (2001). Project success: A multidimensional strategic concept. *Long Range Planning*, 34(6), 699–725.
- Turner, J. R. (2014). *The handbook of project-based management* (4th ed.). McGraw-Hill.
- UN-Habitat. (2016). *World cities report 2016: Urbanization and development*. Nairobi: UN-Habitat.
- UN-Habitat. (2020). *World cities report 2020: The value of sustainable urbanization*. Nairobi: UN-Habitat.
- Windapo, A. O., & Cattell, K. (2013). The South African construction industry. *Journal of Construction in Developing Countries*, 18(2), 65–85.



INTERNATIONAL INTERDISCIPLINARY CONFERENCE ON GOVERNANCE, SECURITY & AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Wednesday 25th - Thursday 26th March, 2026 | Lagos State University, Nigeria

QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN IN MANAGEMENT SCIENCES: A REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Kafiu Sunkanmi Odusanya

*Department of Business Administration,
Ogun State Institute of Technology,
Igbesa, Ogun State, Nigeria*

Abstract

The study reviewed academic literature on questionnaire designing and broadly explained the types of questionnaire, and features of a well-designed questionnaire. The study also highlighted some challenges faced by researchers in the process of developing questionnaire. Moreover, questionnaire designing is more challenging, because it involved special skills, time and extra work. The major objective of the study is to review academic literature on questionnaire design in management sciences. While the specific objective is to; examine practical procedures involved in designing of questionnaire in management sciences. The study demonstrated practical illustrations involved in designing and adapting questionnaire. The study revealed that researchers usually faced challenges in designing robust questionnaire including its content, appearance and usage that leads to inappropriate and biased findings in a study. The study also discovered that most researchers experienced issues related to non-response when self-report questionnaires are used; also, researchers faced challenges of mentoring from senior researchers when it comes to questionnaire designing. The study affirmed that; questionnaire is one of the vital tools in research methodology, and it was also asserted that processes involved in questionnaire designing are rigorous and tedious. It was also established that inefficient design of questionnaire can affect the quality of the research outcome. The study also suggested that more articles on questionnaire design should be written and researchers must be mentored.

Keywords: *Instruments, Management Sciences, Questionnaire, Questionnaire Design, Scale, Survey.*

Introduction

The concept of questionnaire was invented by Sir Francis Galton, a British anthropologist, an explorer and a statistician in late 1800. Questionnaire design forms the backbone of any research and the success of it lies in the designing of an efficient questionnaire (Roopa & Rani, 2012). The use of questionnaires as a method of data collection in management sciences research has increased in recent years both at local and at international level (Bidhan, 2010). Researchers and decision makers in management sciences and other related field design questionnaires in order to solve a particular problem and to answer research questions, as a matter of fact, questionnaire design are effective tools for data collection (Taherdoost, 2016). Research practitioner can begin to form a questionnaire by contemplating personal experiences in practice instead of contemplating data. Besides, experienced practitioners may contemplate aspects of their practice that are not explored and problematic, resources that are in short supply or in excess or outcomes that are confusing. Inquisitiveness and creativity are based in both emotion and reason, so good questionnaire design arises from both intellectual and intuitive responses to the practical environment. Moreover, a well-designed questionnaire challenges us to see matters from a different perspective and learn something new (Lipowski, 2008).

Meanwhile, Taherdoost (2022) affirmed that questionnaire design might look simple initially but the responses can be very different or even unpredictable, which tends to cause many challenges during the research analyses stages. He further opined that inefficient design of questionnaire can affect the quality and quantity of the research outcome. Furthermore, researchers usually face challenges in designing an effective questionnaire including its content, appearance and usage which leads to inappropriate and biased findings in a study. Furthermore, Youngshin, Youn-Jung and Doonam (2015) concurred that most respondents have the tendency to respond to questionnaires without considering how missing responses will be analyzed, how they will contribute to answering research questions, and how researchers will account for questionnaires that are not returned through mail. As a result of this, most researchers experienced issues related to non-response when self-report questionnaires are used. In addition to this, novice researchers also faced challenges of mentoring from senior researchers when it comes to questionnaire designing, as most senior researchers are often preoccupied with other salient matters, which made them unavailable to guide these novice researchers aright when it comes to questionnaire designing (Brace, 2004; Kumwenda, Niang, Orondo, William, Oyinlola, Bongo & Chiwona, 2017).

Statement of the Problem

Bidhan (2010) asserted that questionnaire design is very crucial and important part of research, because an inappropriate questionnaire misleads the researchers, academics and policy makers. Therefore, a set of adequate and appropriate questions in a sequential order is required in the process of questionnaire design. He further opined that, questionnaire design seems simple, but the art of writing a good and non-biased research questionnaire is quite technical. Sanchez (2011) stressed that questionnaire design is frequently overlooked as an important aspect of the development of field instruments and as a potential source of independent effects on survey estimates. Discussions about topics such as question

formatting options, graphic layout, integration of interviewer recording tasks for complex question series, and optimal routing strategies are frequently absent from published works that otherwise deal with questionnaire design.

Meanwhile, Kazi and Khalid (2012) opined that formulation of a questionnaire is always much more complex than expected and great attention is required to its flow, format and length. The process of designing an individual questionnaire is a tedious task and steps involved in validating this questionnaire is another rigorous challenge which at times is overlooked. In addition to these, Mildred (2017) affirmed that questionnaire design usually provides a snapshot of a phenomenon, rather than providing an in-depth picture of a phenomenon. He further opined that questionnaire design is usually confronted with slow response rate, most especially when it is usually mail questionnaire.

Moreover, Triplett (2021) opined that the process of designing of survey questionnaire is often the most challenging and most important task in research. The challenges come from the fact that it is difficult to write questionnaires that avoid potential bias or ambiguity. He further asserted that the biggest challenge in designing questionnaire is that researchers who are responsible for developing a survey questionnaire might have had some training in questionnaire design but are not usually specialists, when it comes to questionnaire design. Meanwhile, Artino, La Rochelle, Dezee, and Gehlbach (2014) asserted that, despite the widespread use of questionnaire in management sciences, the literature provides limited guidance on the best way to design a questionnaire. Consequently, many researches fail to use rigorous methodologies in questionnaire design. As a result, the reliability of the scores that emerge from such research is often inadequate, likewise the validity of such study. Simply stated, when questionnaire are poorly designed, they may fail to capture the essence of what the questionnaire developer is attempting to measure due to different types of measurement error.

In the opinion of Brown, Wappling and Woodruffe-Burton (2020), there was dearth of practical advice around aesthetic appearance of questionnaires in both journal articles and research design textbooks as identified, suggesting limited awareness of visual aspects of questionnaire design. In view of this, the study is informed to review different literature on questionnaire design in management sciences.

Research Objectives:

The major objective of the study is to review different academic literature on questionnaire design in management sciences. While the specific objective is to:

- i. Examine the practical procedures involved in designing questionnaire in management sciences.

Methodology

The study adopted explanatory research approach, and used information from previous studies and publications, including journal, textbooks and the internet publications. The study also explores all the pertinent issues concerning questionnaire designing in management sciences.

Literature Review

Questionnaire

A questionnaire is defined as a document containing set of questions and other types of items designed to solicit information for the analysis of a research problem. Questionnaire is equally used in survey research, experiments and other modes of observation; moreover, the research questionnaires are firmly constructed to receive answers related to the research problems (Bidhan, 2010). In the opinion of Rattray and Jones (2007) questionnaire design enables the collection of information in a structured manner which, when gathered from a representative sample of a defined population, allows the inference of results to the wider population.

Types of Questionnaire

Different types of questionnaire had been identified by (Siniscalco & Auriat, 2005; Kazi & Khalid, 2012). These included: open-ended questionnaire and closed-ended questionnaire amongst others.

Open-ended question

Open-ended or free-response questions are not followed by any choices and the respondent must answer by supplying a response, usually by entering a number, a word, or a short text. Open-ended questions allow respondents to answer them in any way they want. In the case of continuous variable, this format is more suitable when large numbers of options are available and it is not practical to write all answers in advance (Kazi & Khalid, 2012). Example of an open-ended question is shown in figure one.

Figure 1: Example of an open-ended question

What are the things that constitute deviant behavior in your organization?

Source: *Researcher's computation (2023).*

The main advantage of an open-ended questionnaire is that, it gives respondent the opportunity to express their view in their own preferred languages and it provides a means of adding new information where there is little information available. However, open-ended questions tend to be difficult to answer and analysed (Siniscalco & Auriat, 2005).

Closed-Ended Question

Closed-ended questions in contrast would ask the respondents to make choice among a set of answer in a given question. Closed-ended questions could be dichotomous, multiple choice questions or rating scales. Furthermore, close ended question has the following advantages; it is very easy to answered by respondents, it is very is easy to code and analysed, and it gives the opportunity to include different variables in a question which gives the respondent an opportunity to answer more question within a short while as compared to open-ended question. However, close ended question is posed with challenges of offering a bias based question, as it does not allow the respondent to express their view on the phenomenon of study, rather they are restricted to set of listed options (Siniscalco & Auriat, 2005). However,

some closed questions may have a dichotomous response format, which means only two mutually exclusive responses are provided. Other closed questions may require the respondent to choose from multiple response options such as multiple-choice questions, Likert scale and semantic differential scale (Siniscalco & Auriat, 2005).

Likert-type scale questions

Meanwhile, Likert scale was developed by Rensis Likert in 1932 as cited in James and Lee (2011). Obviously, Likert scale is one of the most widely used itemized scales. Each response is assigned a point value, and an individual's score is determined by adding the point values of all of the statements. Likert scales provide a range of responses to a statement or series of statements. Usually, there are five categories of response ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree, with neutral type of response. The respondents are asked to indicate their degree of agreement by checking one of five response categories. However, there is a debate among researchers concerning the optimum number of choices in a Likert-type scale. There are some researchers who prefer scales with seven items or with an even number of response items (James & Lee, 2011).

However, Chen, Rendina and Dedrick (2007) affirmed that, negatively-worded items are added to the scale so as to act as cognitive speed bumps that require respondents to engage in more controlled, as opposed to automatic, cognitive processing. Using negatively worded questions to minimize response bias is based on the crucial assumption that the items worded in the opposite ways are measuring the same concept that the positively worded items are measuring (Chen et al., 2007). Moreover, Likert scale has several advantages; it is easy for the researcher to construct and administer this scale, and it is easy for the respondent to understand. However, the major disadvantage of Likert scale is that it takes longer time to complete than other itemized rating scales. In addition, respondents have to read the entire statement rather than a short phrase (Patel & Joseph, 2016).

Procedures for Formulating Questionnaire

In the opinion of Siniscalco and Auriat (2005), there are no basic or specific rules that serve as a guide in formulating questionnaire. However, they opined that there are some rules that a researcher needs to adhere to when formulating a questionnaire, in order not to confuse or mislead the respondents. The researcher must ensure simple vocabulary, must ensure that the questions are brief, must avoid double-barreled question, must avoid hypothetical question, must avoid leading question, must not over stretch respondent memory (Siniscalco and Auriat, 2005).

Questionnaire Development

A questionnaire is a research tool used to obtain information from respondents. It is an efficient way to collect data, the researcher should be certain on what is required and how to measure the variables of interest. The first step recommended is to do a literature review on previously used validated questionnaires that can be administered in similar settings and capture variables that are of interest, in accordance to the research hypotheses. These questionnaires do not need to be tested for reliability and results can be compared for different studies and also combined for meta-analysis. However, one needs to make sure that

the mode of administration is similar to the original questionnaire (Edwards, 2010). An initial collection of coherent items or variables related to the objectives and hypotheses is always beneficial. Therefore, a listing of variables before questionnaire design is suggested. Such a listing helps identify the important dimensions of the domain of interest. The arrangement of variables in a sequential manner from origin to destination is conceptual framework. The questionnaire design must include all variables that appears in conceptual framework and variables identified (Bidhan, 2010).

However, if a new questionnaire is to be developed, it should be pilot tested and validated in order to ensure that it measured what it supposed to measure and to ascertain that it is doing it reliably. Wording of questionnaires is very critical and should take into consideration; appropriateness of the content, level of sophistication of language, type and form, sequence and how is data sought from the respondents. During questionnaire development its mode of administration should be kept in mind, whether it will be self-administered or interview based and its design and flow should be planned accordingly (Streiner, 2004; Taherdoost, 2019). Furthermore, Joseph, 1999; Artino et al., (2014) listed some steps to follow when designing questionnaire.

- i. Step one: Conduct a literature review
- ii. Step two: Conduct interview or focus group
- iii. Step three: Synthesize the literature review and interviews or focus groups
- iv. Step four: Develop items
- v. Step five: Conduct expert validation
- vi. Step six: Conduct cognitive interview
- vii. Step seven: Conduct pilot testing

These steps were further explained in details in subsequent paragraphs:

Step one: Conduct a literature review

The first step in questionnaire design is to conduct literature review. Usually, literature review is usually done because of two primary reasons; firstly, so as to clarify constructs and concepts, secondly, it is usually carried out in order to measure the constructs and to determine if relevant constructs is existing. (Joseph, 1999; Gehlbach , Artino, & Durning, 2010; Artino et al., 2014).

Step two: Conduct interviews and/or focus groups

In this stage, there are a lot of questions that a researcher needs to asked, bothering on whether the researcher should include or exclude all the features of the construct as it were found during the literature review. In answering of these questions and in order to ensure that the construct is defined from multiple perspectives, hence, researcher tends to gather data directly from potential respondents that share the same or similar trait with population of interest (Joseph, 1999; Gehlbach & Brinkworth, 2011; Artino et al., 2014).

Moreover, in order to achieve objective of step two, the researcher can have interview with the potential respondents, so as to know their views regarding their perception on the intended

construct to be used. The end result of these interviews and/or focus groups should be a detailed description of how potential respondents conceptualize and understand the construct. These data will then be used in step three and step four of the process (Artino et al., 2014).

Step three: Synthesize the literature review and interviews or focus groups

This step involved developing comprehensive list of indicators to be used by merging it with the result of the literature review and interview conducted. When these data sources produce similar lists, the process is uncomplicated. When these data are similar conceptually, but the literature and potential respondents describe the construct using different terminology, it makes sense to use the vocabulary of the potential respondents. Moreover, it is worth noting that scholars may have good reasons to settle on a final construct definition that differs from what is found in the literature (Joseph, 1999; Artino et al., 2014).

Step four: Develop items

The goal of this step is to write survey items that adequately represent the construct of interest in a language that respondents can easily understand. One important design consideration is the number of items needed to adequately assess the construct. There is no easy answer to this question. The ideal number of items depends on several factors, including the complexity of the construct and the level at which one intends to assess it. In general, it is good practice to develop more items than will ultimately be needed in the final scale; for instance, a researcher might develop fifteen potential items with the hopes of ultimately creating an eight-item scale, because some items will likely be deleted or revised later in the design process (Gehlbach & Brinkworth, 2011; Artino et al., 2014). Furthermore, the next bone of contention is to write a set of clear, unambiguous items using the vocabulary of the target population. Moreover, some key aspects of item-writing remain an art form, an increasingly robust scientifically and an accumulation of best practices should guide this process. For instance, writing questions rather than statements, avoiding negatively worded items and biased language, are all well documented best practices (Artino et al., 2011).

Step five: Conduct expert validation or opinion

Once the construct has been defined and draft items have been written, an important step in the development of a new questionnaire is to begin collecting validity evidence based on the questionnaire's content validity. This step involves collecting data from content experts to establish that individual survey items are relevant to the construct being measured and that key items or indicators have not been omitted. Using experts to systematically review the survey's content can substantially improve the overall quality and representativeness of the scale items (Polit & Beck, 2006). Another challenge under this step is the criteria for selection of an expert. Artino et al., (2011) asserted that, an expert can be chosen based on their experience and the area of research specialization of such expert, which determines his or her familiarity with the constructs used.

Step six: Cognitive interview

After the experts have helped to refine the scale items, it is important to collect evidence of response process validity to assess how prospective participants interpret the items. One

means of collecting such evidence, is through a process known as cognitive interviewing or cognitive pre-testing. Similar to how experts are utilized to determine the content validity of a new survey, is equally important to determine how potential respondents interpret the items and if their interpretation matches what the questionnaire designer has in mind. Results from cognitive interviews can be helpful in identifying mistakes respondents make in their interpretation of the item or response options (Artino et al., 2014).

Step seven: Conduct pilot testing

This step involves conducting pilot testing, so as to pilot test the questionnaire and continue collecting validity evidence. During pilot testing, members of the target population complete the survey in the planned delivery mode, which could either be through physical distribution or online mode. The data obtained from the pilot test is then reviewed to evaluate item range and variance, assess score reliability of the whole scale and review item and composite score correlations. During this step, the questionnaire designers should also review descriptive statistics such as means and standard deviations, and histograms, which demonstrate the distribution of responses by item. This analysis can aid in identifying items that may not be functioning in the way the designer intended (Gehlbach & Brinkworth, 2011; Artino et al., 2014). In order to ascertain the internal structure of the questionnaire and to evaluate the extent to which items within a particular scale measure a single underlying construct, questionnaire designers should consider using advanced statistical techniques such as factor analysis. Factor analysis is a statistical procedure designed to evaluate the number of distinct constructs needed to account for the pattern of correlations among a set of measures (Fabrigar & Wegener, 2012).

Practical Demonstration on how to Design Questionnaire

With reference to the above listed steps, the study demonstrated a practical way of crafting questionnaire by making use of this research topic, titled: workplace deviant behaviours and organisational performance. The study demonstrated the steps involved in the process, from the basic steps till the complex stages through the following steps that will be explained in the subsequent paragraphs:

Step one involved finding a good researchable problem, a novice researcher can start the process by studying his or her immediate environment so as to unravel a research problem, which can be used as a justification for a research. For instance, the study suggested; workplace deviant behaviours and organisational performance, as a topic. After which, the researcher must be able to identify the dependent and independent variable. As regards the earlier stated topic, the independent variable was workplace deviant behavior and dependent variable was organisational performance.

Step two involved literature review, as suggested by (Joseph, 1999; Gehlbach et al., 2010; & Artino et al., 2014). This involves the review of different academic literature so as to determine variables of interest which will be used in forming research questions and research hypotheses. After reviewing different literature, the study began with workplace deviant behavior, and the following variables of interest were identified for the independent variables, which includes: whistleblowing, cyber loafing, bullying, late arrival to work,

employee silence, sexual harassment amongst others. As regards organisational performance, which is the dependent variable, the following dependent variables were identified, which includes: employee's productivity, employee's satisfaction, employee turnover intention, employee turnover amongst others.

Step three involved development of items that will represent construct of interest which will be understood by prospective respondents as opined by Artino et al., (2014). Based on the research questions, some items were identified and it was given to some expert for validation, so as to determine the instrument content validity. Furthermore, Polit and Beck, (2006); Artino et al., (2011) also opined that using an expert to validate the instrument will ensure quality representation of items, as they further asserted that expert must be chosen in area of specialization similar to the constructs used. In consonance with these, for instance, in regards to cyber loafing which is termed as deviant behaviour, therefore, the following constructs were identified, these include; playing online games, online chatting, reading online news during working hours amongst others.

Step four involved synchronization of these variables so as to form research questions and hypotheses which will serve as a basis of crafting the questionnaire. The study therefore synchronizes whistleblowing from independent variable and employee's productivity from dependent variable, so as to form the first research question, while cyber loafing from independent variable was synchronize with employee's satisfaction of dependent variable so as to develop the second research questions. Moreover, a novice researcher can continue with that trend, if such researcher intends to have more research questions. In addition to this, in developing a questionnaire on the first item which was whistleblowing, the study dissected whistle blowing further into reporting of wrong doing of staff to constituted authority. From this, a question was developed as: whistle blower should be rewarded, while another question says; it is ethical to blow whistle. Therefore, this is how those questionnaires for each item could be crafted. In line with this, the study developed some instruments, as it could be shown in the hypothetical questionnaire of this study, using Likert-type rating scale.

Step five involved conducting pilot study for the developed items, which could be administered to a sub-set of the prospective respondents either through physical distribution or online administration. The data obtained from the pilot test is then reviewed to evaluate item range and variance, assess score reliability of the whole scale and review item and composite score correlations as stated by (Gehlbach & Brinkworth, 2011; Artino et al., 2014). In addition to this, the study, conducted a reliability test on the developed items using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS), version 23, so as to identify some items that had low reliability, where items below 0.70 had to be removed, which is in accordance to the opinion of Oyeniya, Abiodun, Obamiro, Moses and Osibanjo (2016), where they affirmed that generally acceptable scores for all types of reliability is 0.70 and above.

Adapting of Questionnaire

Sousa, Matson and Dunn Lopez (2017) opined that questionnaire crafting and development involves a lot of rigorous testing so as to ascertain its reliability and validity. Moreover, due to time and cost constraint involved in the process of developing new questionnaire, often time,

researchers usually prefer to adapt or adopt existing questionnaires to better fit the purpose of their study. Moreover, it is a common practice in research to adapt a questionnaire developed by previous researchers when the need arises. Adapting of questionnaire is not only efficient, but it also improves the comparability of data collection instruments used in different studies and enhances the comparability of the findings resulting from the studies (McDonald, Nancy, Coronado & Johnson, 2003). Besides, many of these borrowed questionnaires have been previously tested for the validity and reliability of the responses they elicited. Such prior assessment is helpful, in the sense that it provides information about the quality of data collected previously with these questions, and it may limit additional testing that will be needed for the current study. However, it is important to know the type and purpose of any prior testing, when the testing was conducted, and the characteristics of the population in which the testing occurred, because validity and reliability are tied to these factors. Investigators will need to evaluate the circumstances under which previously used questions were tested, determine the applicability of previous results to the current study population and setting, and plan for additional tests as needed. On the basis of these results, researchers should weigh the advantages of borrowing questions and the comparability with previous research, as this may engender against any limitations of the questions in the current setting, and so as to make an informed decision (McDonald, Nancy, Coronado, & Johnson, 2003).

How to Analyse an Adopted or Adapted Questionnaire

Furthermore, when adapting or adopting a questionnaire, the researcher can analysed the instrument with the aid of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). An adapted questionnaire can be analysed with exploratory factor analysis while adopted questionnaire can be analysed with the aid of confirmatory factor analysis (Taherdoost, Sahibuddin & Jalaliyoon, 2022).

Taherdoost et al., (2022) opined that factor analysis; which can either be an exploratory factor analysis or confirmatory factor analysis, is a significant statistical instrument that is used when developing, adapting and adopting of questionnaires. Exploratory factor analysis is used when a researcher has no idea about the number of factors or variables to be used. This allows the researchers to explore the main variables so as to create a theory, or model from a relatively large set of latent dimensions often represented by a set of items. While confirmatory factor analysis is a form of structural equation modeling; that is applied to test the theory proposed by the researcher (Taherdoost et al., 2022).

In addition, Wipulanusat, Panuwatwanich and Stewart (2017) demonstrated how a researcher can use an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in analyzes of their intended variables or constructs, that will be used when adapting or adopting questionnaire. They asserted that EFA can be employed to analyse the inter-relationship between intended variables and to explore the factor structure of their measure, after which; the fit of the model will be tested by CFA. In addition, they opined that EFA can also be used to identify appropriate variables and analyse the relationships among large numbers of variables in the most general form by explaining them in terms of their common underlying dimensions. Furthermore, in order to strengthen the outcomes of EFA, they

affirmed that CFA can sequentially be conducted so as to confirm the validity of the measurement scale by supporting the recognized factor structures discovered from the EFA process. They also concurred that CFA is a theory-driven technique, which is used to test the hypotheses for a factor structure that determines the validity of theoretical structures through the testing of causal links among the variables. By conducting CFA, researchers can assess the structure of factors or variables, identify the dimensions of a construct, and determine whether particular patterns of loadings match the data (Wipulanusat et al., 2017).

Conditions to be met before Adapting or Adopting Questionnaire

Meadows (2003) asserted that, before any adapted questionnaire is put into the field, it should undergo some pre-testing to evaluate its reliability and validity, and it is these findings that must be reported. Some questionnaires are under copyright and the first step before either using or adapting the questionnaire is to contact the author to obtain permission to do so. Even if not under copyright, the user is obliged to notify, and respect the recommendations of the author, and to cite the original source. One reason why a questionnaire might require adaptation is where it needs to be used with people of different cultures and languages than for whom it was originally developed. When this is the case, there are very strong arguments against the assumption that translating the content of the questionnaire into the required language will be sufficient.

Practical Demonstration on how to Adapt or Adopt Questionnaire

The study also demonstrated practical ways of adopting or adapting research questionnaire. A questionnaire is said to be adopted, if the prospective researcher lifted and used the stipulated questionnaire exactly how the original researcher used it in his or her previous study. But, when it comes to adapting of questionnaire, it will be assumed that the prospective researcher will make a little change to the original questionnaire, which after adjustment, it will fit the prospective research concepts and constructs (Ganesha & Aithal, 2022). For instance, for the purpose of this study, let assume a study needs a questionnaire on work flexibility or schedule flexibility. For illustration sake, such study can decide to adapt a questionnaire on work flexibility from the work of Majella (2014); where the original question was stated as; flexibly working arrangements help me balance life commitment. Thereafter, the prospective researcher can adapt the question to read as; flexible work arrangements helps employee to balance life commitment, provided that all the above stated conditions in adapting of questionnaire are met. In addition, a questionnaire adapted from Viviane, Allain, and Rosette (2001) on teleworking initially read thus; positive influence on the image of the company. Thereafter, the prospective researcher can re-modify it as; teleworkers portray positive image of the organisation while working online. In sum, that is how other questionnaires can be adapted.

Procedures on how to Validate a Research Questionnaire

Validity explains how well the collected data covers the actual area of investigation. Validity implies that an instrument measure, what is intended to measure (Taherdoost, 2016). Furthermore, Ganesh and Aithal (2022) affirmed that there are four ways of checking the validity of research instruments. They reiterated that researchers must put this into cognizance when an instrument is developed, adopted or adapted. The methods are explained below:

- i. **Face validity:** This refers to the extent to which a questionnaire measures what it intended to measure. For a researcher to be assured that a questionnaire has a strong face validity, such questionnaire could be given to an expert in such field (Taherdoost; 2016, Ganesha & Aithal, 2022).
- ii. **Construct validity:** This is the adherence of a measure to existing theory and knowledge of the concept being measured and this is required when developing a new questionnaire. Here, researchers tend to get responses to their new questionnaire from their pilot samples and also get the responses from their pilot samples using some other existing questionnaire that are very similar to what other researchers are trying to measure. After the collection of responses to both questionnaires, the researcher subsequently checked the correlation between these two questionnaires which in turn gives an indication of the construct validity of the new questionnaire (Taherdoost; 2016, Ganesha & Aithal, 2022).
- iii. **Content validity:** This is the extent to which the measurement covers all aspects of the concept being measured. For instance, if a researcher is considering measuring two constructs, such as; gratitude and forgiveness, such researcher must ensure he or she must have chosen all the questions or items that are relevant to such constructs as related to literature review (Taherdoost; 2016, Ganesha & Aithal, 2022).
- iv. **Criteria validity:** This is the extent to which the result of a measure corresponds to other valid measures of the same concept. For instance, if a researcher developed a questionnaire to understand the attitude of the PhD students toward a research methodology course, then such researcher could can either check for concurrent validity such as regularity of attendance or such researcher can use predictive validity, by using the result of the examination score on research methodology course so as to check the criterion validity (Taherdoost; 2016, Ganesha & Aithal, 2022).

Testing Reliability of a Questionnaire

Reliability concerns the extent to which a measurement of a phenomenon provides stable and consistent results. Reliability is also concerned with repeatability. For example, an instrument is said to be reliable if repeated measurement made by it under constant conditions will give the same result (Taherdoost, 2016). Further to this, research questionnaire reliability could also be checked through; test-retest, parallel forms, inter-rater or split half. Test-retest tends to determine the consistency of a research instrument over time, that is, the researcher will determine if the same result is realized if the same instrument is used to gather data at another period of time. While, parallel form is the development of alternate test forms that are equivalent in terms of content, response processes, and statistical characteristics. And, inter-rater is the consistency of a measure across raters or observers. Here researchers tend to check whether they get the same results when different people conduct the same measurement. While, split-half method treats the two halves of a measure as alternate forms. For example, administering a test to a group of individuals by splitting the test into half, where correlating scores on one half of the test will be compared with scores on the other half of the test. Lastly internal consistency, measures the consistency of the research instruments. Here the researcher asked a question, whether

they get the same results from different parts of a test that is designed to measure the same thing. The researcher can as well make use of Cronbach's Alpha tool to check for the instrument's consistency (Ganesha & Aithal, 2022).

Layout of Questionnaire

Arsham (2002) outlined some important features that need to be seen in the layout of questionnaire, which includes: questionnaire title, introduction and cover letter, instructions on how the questionnaire will be filled, the bio-data sections; soliciting for the personal information of the respondent, grouping of items based on content. The questionnaire layout includes all factors that influence the presentation of questions in printed and online questionnaires, including correct alignment of response categories across questions and logical question order, moreover, care needs to be taken with multimodal questionnaires that are read by respondents because the layout may need to differ between printed questionnaires and questionnaires delivered online to devices such as a desktop computer, laptop, tablet or smartphone (Anthony, 2020).

A typical layout of typical questionnaire can be seen in the hypothetical questionnaire of this study. Furthermore, in accordance with the view of Arsham (2002) a standard questionnaire in study relating to workplace deviant behavior and organizational performance as seen in the hypothetical questionnaire of this study, can be broken down into two headings with the following information:

Cover letter: This consisted of; address of the researcher, introductory letter, purpose of the research and the name of the researcher.

Section A: Consisted of bio-data of the respondents which include:

- Gender
- Marital status
- Age of respondents
- Qualifications
- Working experience

Section B: General operational information

- Whistle blowing
- Employee's productivity
- Cyber loafing
- Employee's satisfaction

Questionnaire Administration

Kazi and Khalid (2012) identified two modes of administering a questionnaire; which are self-administered and interviewer administered questionnaire. In their opinion, self-administered questionnaire only requires questionnaire distribution; which is usually cheaper and it does not need skilled staff. This mode is less inclined to information bias and interviewer effect but have greater chance of having no response items (Kazi & Khalid, 2012).

Electronic and web-based questionnaire, including data collected through personal digital apparatus, smart phones and cell phones are latest techniques for questionnaire administration. Questionnaire can be designed so as to filter and screen participant's response, checks for input error, range and skip patterns can be incorporated preventing significant typing and data format error. However electronic questionnaire is restricted to those participants who have access to a computer and internet and this can be a potential bias. In the situation of person or interview based administration, which is termed expensive but provides direct interaction with the participants. The interviewer has the opportunity to introduce the research topic and motivate the participants to offer their frank answers and questions can be clarified at the spot. If the interviewer is trained and motivated, it is the best method to collect data in epidemiological studies. In recent times, telephone usage has also increased ways of administering questionnaire. This is cost effective and usually have greater response rate as compared to postal questionnaire. Telephone interviewing also facilitates in covering a large number of participants over a wide geographical area. Interviewer on the phone can directly talk to the participant, explain the study and clear any confusion or questions during the phone call. However, possible disadvantage of phone call is that the caller cannot see the participant and might have difficulty in rapport, and cannot use additional material for explaining the questionnaire. For example pictures and study involving sample collection cannot be conducted through phone administered questionnaires (Kazi & Khalid, 2012).

3.1 Hypothetical Example of Items Based Questionnaire on Study Relating to Workplace Deviant Behaviours and Organisational Performance

Department of Business Administration,
Faculty of Management Sciences,
Lagos State University,
Ojo,
Lagos State.

Dear Respondent,

QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a post graduate student of the above named institution conducting research on "Workplace Deviant Behaviours and Organisational Performance." Your assistance in completing this questionnaire is solicited.

I promise that the information realized will be treated with utmost confidence and used only for academic purpose.

Thanks in anticipation of your co-operation.

Yours faithfully,

.....

Odusanya Sunkanmi.

SECTION A

INSTRUCTION: Please indicate appropriate information with (✓)

1. Sex: Male [] Female []
2. Marital Status: Married [] Single [] Divorced [] widow []
3. Age of Respondent: Below 30 years [] 31-50 years [] 51 years and above []
4. Educational qualification: OND/NCE [] HND/ B.Ed. / B.Sc. []

- +PGDE/ M.Sc. / M.Ed. [] others (please specify)
5. Working Experience: 5 years and below [] 6-10 years [] 11-15 years []
16 years and above []

SECTION B

NOTE	SA	=	Strongly Agree
	A	=	Agree
	PA	=	Partially Agree
	PD	=	Partially Disagree
	D	=	Disagree
	SD	=	Strongly Disagree

Workplace deviant behavior is the independent variable which was measured by whistle blowing and cyber loafing. While organizational performance is the dependent variable; which was measured by employee's productivity and employee's satisfaction. The variables are conceptualized as:

Independent variable; x_1 = whistle blowing
 Dependent variable; y_1 = employee's productivity
 Independent variable; x_2 = cyber loafing
 Dependent variable; y_2 = employee's satisfaction

QUESTIONNAIRE

	How will you rate items under whistle blowing	SA	A	PA	PD	D	SD
1	It is ethical to blow whistle						
2	Whistle blower should be rewarded						
3	Confidentiality of whistle blower is important						
4	Protect whistle blower from retaliation						
5	Whistle blowing should be encouraged						
	How will you rate items under employee's productivity	SA	A	PA	PD	D	SD
6	Regular training enhances production						
7	Conducive environment increases productivity						
8	Setting of production target is good for employee						
9	Time management skills needed in production						
10	Disruption can affect production						
	How will you rate items under cyber loafing	SA	A	PA	PD	D	SD
11	Surfing of internet is appropriate during working hours						
12	Online chatting is proper while working						
13	Sending personal emails at workplace is ethical						
14	Reading online news during working hour is ideal						
15	Watching YouTube videos at work should be allowed at work						
	How will you rate items under employee's satisfaction	SA	A	PA	PD	D	SD
16	My organization pay is fair						
17	Team membership boost employee's morale						
18	Flexibility at work offers satisfaction						
19	Transparency at workplace inspire worker						
20	Conducive work environment boost morale						

Conclusion

Based on the reviewed of different literature, it can be affirmed that questionnaire design is one of the vital tools in research methodology. The study also resolved that processes involved in questionnaire development are rigorous and tedious. While it can also be asserted that, a well thoroughly designed questionnaire will improve the outcome of the entire research process, while poorly designed questionnaire will lead to futile recommendations.

Recommendations

In view of the above study, it was recommended that:

- i. Researchers should endeavor to review previously used questionnaire, before embarking on crafting of questionnaire, as questionnaire drafting requires a lot of crafty and technical skills.
- ii. Making of little changes to previously used question, might save a novice researchers, a lot of cost, stress and other resources.
- iii. Test re-test and other means of ascertaining instruments reliability should be carried out on the questionnaire instruments to ensure the reliability of the instruments.
- iv. Questionnaire should be narrow and brief, and it must address the salient issues affecting the research problems.
- v. More of journals relating questionnaire crafting need to be written, so as to open the eyes of novice researchers to the basics of questionnaire designs.
- vi. Novice researchers should be mentored and groomed.

Contribution to Knowledge

Having seen from this study, it can be inferred that, there is dearth of study on questionnaire designs as it could be seen on scantiness of recently published works on questionnaire designs, hence the study has contributed in that regards. The study will also help novice researchers to improve their ability in designing a questionnaire. The study also explicitly demonstrated and explained procedures involved in questionnaire crafting and questionnaire adoption.

References

- Anthony, A. (2020). Questionnaire design. Retrieved online from <https://www.elgaronline.com/downloadpdf/book/9781800376175> on 19/04/2023
- Arsham, H. (2002). Questionnaire design and surveys sampling. Retrieved online from <https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Dr-Hossein-Arsham> on 18/04/2023
- Artino, A. R., La Rochelle J. S., Dezee, K. J., & Gehlbach, H. (2014). Developing questionnaires for educational research. *Medical Teacher*, 36 (6), 463-474. Retrieved online from www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.3109/0142159X.2014.889 on 08/04/2023
- Bidhan, A. (2010). Questionnaire design. A paper presented at a workshop on research methodology organized by Nepal Engineering College between 2nd and 11th of June, 2010. Retrieved online from <http://www.saciwaters.org/CB/IFRM/IFRMI./20Literature> on 08/04/2023

- Brace, I. (2004). *Questionnaire design: How to plan, structure and write survey material for effective and market research*, pp. 89- 91. London: Kogan Page Limited. Retrieved online from <http://ndl.ethernet.edu.et/bitstream/123456789/50383/1/288.pdf> on 18/04/2023
- Brown, J., Wappling, A., & Woodruffe-Burton, H. (2020). Questionnaire design: A weak link in corporate identity? *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 23 (1), 87-107. Retrieved online <https://nrl.northumbria.ac.uk/id/eprint/39103/1/PDF/Proof.pdf> on 12/04/2023
- Chen, Y., Rendina, G., & Dedrick, F. (2007). Detecting effects of positively and negatively worded items on a self-concept scale for third and sixth grade elementary students. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Florida Educational Research Association (52nd, Tampa, FL, Nov 14-16, 2007). Retrieved online from <http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED503122> on 12/04/2023
- Edwards, P. (2010). Questionnaires in clinical trials: Guidelines for optimal design and administration, 11-12. Retrieved online from <http://ecommons.aku.edu/> on 18/04/2023.
- Fabrigar, L. R., & Wegener, D. T. (2012). *Exploratory factor analysis*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Ganesha, H. R., & Aithal, P. S. (2022). Choosing an appropriate data collection instrument and checking for the calibration, validity, and reliability of data collection instrument before collecting the data during Ph.D. program in India. *International Journal of Management, Technology, and Social Sciences*, 7(2), 497-513. Retrieved online from <https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Ganesha-H-R/publication> on 07/05/2023
- Gehlbach, H., & Brinkworth, M. E. (2011). Measure twice, cut down error: A process for enhancing the validity of survey scales. *Rev Gen Psychol*, 15 (1), 380–387.
- Gehlbach, H., Artino, A R., & Durning S. (2010). Survey development guidance for medical education researchers. *Acad Med* 85 (1), 925 – 934.
- James, T. C. & Lee, O. (2011). Using Likert-type scales in the social sciences. *Journal of Adult Education*, 40 (1), 19 – 22. Retrieved online from <https://www.files.eric.ed.edu/fulltext> on 19/04/2023
- Joseph, J. (1999). Survey construction. *Library Hi Tech*, 7(3), 321 – 325. Retrieved online from <https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/0737883991> on 18/04/2023

- Kazi, A., & Khalid, W. (2012). Questionnaire designing and validation. *Journal of the Pakistan Medical Association*, 62 (5), 514 -516. Retrieved online from http://ecommons.aku.edu/pakistan_fhs_mc_women_childhealth_paediatr/14 on 18/04/2023
- Kumwenda, S., Niang H. A., Orondo, P. W., William, P., Oyinlola, L., Bongo, G. N., & Chiwona, B. (2017). Challenges facing young African scientists in their research careers: A qualitative exploratory study. *Malawi Medical Journal* 29 (1), 1 - 4. Retrieved online from <https://www.ajol.info/index.php/mmj/article/view/155437/145062> on 22/04/2023
- Lipowski, E. E. (2008). Developing great research question. *Am J Health-Syst Pharm*, 65 (1), 1667 – 1670. Retrieved online from <https://peterasaro.org/courses/Methods/Lipowski-Developing-gre> on 12/04/2023
- Majella, J. A. (2014). A measure of attitudes towards flexible work options. *Australian Journal of Management*, 29, (275- 294). Retrieved online from <https://www.researchgate.net> on 03/05/2022
- McDonald, J. A., Nancy, B. N., Coronado, V.G., & Johnson, R. L. (2003). *Questionnaire design. reproductive health epidemiology series*, pp. 10 – 11. Retrieved online from <https://stacks.cdc.gov/view/cdc/11674/cdc/11674/DS1.pdf> on 08/04/2023
- Meadows, K. A. (2003). Research methods. *British Journal of Community Nursing*, 8 (12), 562 – 570. Retrieved online from <https://www.healthoutinsights.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/04> on 14/04/2023
- Mildred, L. P. (2017). Questionnaire research: A practical guide. New York: Pyrczak Publishing. Retrieved online from <https://api.taylorfrancis.com/content/books/mono/download> on 10/04/2023
- Oyeniya, O. J., Abiodun, J. A., Obamiro, K. J., Moses, C. L., & Osibanjo, O. A. (2016). *Research methodology with simplified step-by-step application of SPSS package*, pp. 231. Lagos: Pumark Nigeria Limited.
- Patel, H.R., & Joseph, J. M. (2016). Questionnaire designing process: A review. *J Clin Trials* 6 (2) 1-7. doi:10.4172/2167-0870.1000255. Retrieved online <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/0507/e9e190a9dbb44cda0b> on 09/04/2023
- Polit, D. F., & Beck, C. T. (2006). The content validity index: Are you sure you know what's being reported? Critique and recommendations. *Res Nurs Health*, 29 (1), 489 – 497.
- Rattray, J., & Jones, M. C. (2007). Essential elements of questionnaire design and development. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 16 (1), 234–243. Retrieved online from <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1365-2702.2> on 12/04/2023

- Roopa, S., & Rani, M. S. (2012). Questionnaire designing for a survey. *J Ind Orthod Soc* 46 (4), 273-277. Retrieved online from <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.5005/jp-journals-10021> on 10/04/2023
- Sanchez, M. E. (2011). Effects of questionnaire design on the quality of survey data. *American Association for Public Opinion Research*, 56 (2), 206 – 217. Retrieved online from https://www.academia.edu/download/82405996_sanchez.pdf on 08/04/2023
- Siniscalco, M. T., & Auriat, N. (2005). Questionnaire design. *In quantitative research methods in educational planning*, pp. 29 – 35. Retrieved online from <https://raharjo.staff.telkomuniversity.ac.id/files/2015> on 18/04/2023
- Sousa, V., Matson, J., & Dunn Lopez, K., (2017). Questionnaire adapting: Little changes mean a lot, *West J Nurs Res* 39 (9), 1289- 1300. Doi:10.1177/0193945916678212. Retrieved online from <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28322671> on 19/04/2023
- Streiner, D. (2004). Health measurement scales: A practical guide to their development and use. Oxford University Press. Retrieved online from <http://ecommons.aku.edu/> on 18/04/2023.
- Taherdoost, H. (2016). Validity and reliability of the research instrument; How to test the validation of a questionnaire/survey in a research. *International Journal of Academic Research in Management*, 5(3), 28-36.
- Taherdoost, H. (2019). What is the best response scale for survey and questionnaire design Review of different lengths of rating scale, attitude scale and Likert scale. *International Journal of Academic Research in Management*, 8 (1) 1-10. Retrieved online from
- Taherdoost, H. (2022). Designing a questionnaire for a research paper: A comprehensive guide to design and develop an effective questionnaire, *Asian Journal of Managerial Science* 11 (1), 8-16. Retrieved online from <https://hal.science/hal-03741836v1/file/designing> on 18/04/2023
- Taherdoost, H., Sahibuddin, S., & Jalaliyoon, N., (2022). Exploratory factor analysis: Concepts and theory. *Advances in Applied and Pure Mathematics*, 27 (1), 375- 382. Retrieved online from <https://hal.science/hal-02557344/file/Exploratory/Factor/Analysis> on 14/05/2023
- Triplett, T. (2021). Editing and crafting good survey questions and questionnaires, pp. 3 – 4. Retrieved online from <http://ttriplett.net/qdesign1.8.pdf> on 12/04/2023
- Viviane, I., Allain, V., & Rosette, S. (2001). The organizational context of teleworking implementation. *Technological Forecasting & Social Change* 68 (1), 275- 291. Retrieved online from <https://academia.edu> on 03/04/2023

- Wipulanusat, W., Panuwatwanich, K., & Stewart, R. (2017). Workplace innovation: Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis for construct validation. *Management and Production Engineering Review*, 8 (2), 57- 68. Retrieved online from <http://psjd.icm.edu.pl/psjd/element/bwmeta1.element.oai> on 14/05/2023
- Youngshin, S., Youn-Jung, S., & Doonam, O. (2015). Methodological issues in questionnaire design, *J Korean Acad Nurs*, 45 (3), 323-328. Retrieved online from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/279966870/Methodological> on 18/04/2023



INTERNATIONAL INTERDISCIPLINARY CONFERENCE ON GOVERNANCE, SECURITY & AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Wednesday 25th - Thursday 26th March, 2026 | Lagos State University, Nigeria

ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND DIGITAL SKILLS FOR NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT (A CASE STUDY OF SELECTED SME'S IN YENAGOA METROPOLIS, BAYELSA STATE OF NIGERIA)

¹George Charisma & ²Odeyale, Adeolu John

*¹Department of Accounting, School of Management Science,
Federal Polytechnic Ekowe, Bayelsa state, Nigeria*

*²Department of Banking & Finance, School of Management Science,
Federal Polytechnic Ekowe, Bayelsa state, Nigeria.*

Abstract

Entrepreneurs are key drivers for economic growth, but lack of innovations and digital skills needed for the business in relation to its industry may throw the company out of business which may in- turn affect the economic growth of the nation. This study was carried out to examine the relationship between entrepreneurship and Digital skills for enhance performance of small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs) for national growth and development. This study adopted a quantitative research approach, focusing on statistical methods to analyze the relationship between digital and entrepreneurial skills and their impact on national development. The study uses a sample size of 24 SMEs with 70 respondents from a population of Forty-Four (44) Small and Medium Scale registered Enterprises in Yenagoa metropolis. The use of regression analysis ensures an empirical investigation of the predictors' influence on the dependent variable. The study employed a correlational research design, aimed to explore and quantified the relationships among key variables. In conclusion, digital and entrepreneurial skills are indispensable for achieving national development in the modern era. The study recommends among other things that entrepreneurs should strive to incorporate digital skill into their business for better wealth creation and Reconfiguration of their SMEs to meet up with the ever technologically changing business world. It also calls for action to educators, policymakers, and governments to prioritize

digital skills by assisting entrepreneurs with the enabling environment and technological input through TVET programs and curriculum re-design that incorporate contemporary digital skills to help entrepreneurs equipped for this thriving, competitive and innovation-driven world.

Keywords: *Entrepreneurship, Digital Skills, Digital entrepreneurship, National Development*

Introduction

Entrepreneurs are key drivers for economic growth. Entrepreneurship that is tailored by digital skills can contribute to economic growth, create jobs, foster innovations and have access to global markets space, informed with the necessary data for critical decision making and also explore the abundant links and information for the organization wealth creation. In today's changing and technologically driven world, digital skills have become essential for entrepreneurs seeking to start, grow, and sustain their businesses. Vorbach et al. (2019); Ana et al (2024), maintained that digital entrepreneurship refers to the creation and development of ventures through the usage of digital technologies and tools. This means that, it is digital technologies that are used as a tool to develop and promote the activities of the enterprise, which can often be through social networks, performing digital marketing, meeting potential customers and interacting with them through digital technology platforms. Agus et al (2023), acknowledged that, with digital-based tools advancement, it is fundamental for entrepreneurship education to collaborate conventional teaching materials with technology. Accordingly, Jardim (2021); Enang (2023), defined Entrepreneurial skills as the “set of knowledge, attitudes, and skills that enable entrepreneurs to be successful in developing profitable projects, markets, products, or services, based on the demand of a target population, economy and society”. Globally, entrepreneurship is seen as one of the important factors for economic growth, recovery, job creation, poverty reduction, innovation and competitiveness. Upon this, many countries have made it mandatory to incorporate entrepreneurship into different policy fields, especially in education (Enang 2023). This study is mainly carried out to examine the relationship between entrepreneurship and Digital skills for enhance performance of small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs) for national growth and development.

Burton (2016), Godpower & Egbunefu (2024), defines digital skills, as the ability to find, measure, use, share, and create content using information technology and the internet. He further explained that digital age has entered every aspect of life, and are important not only for Information Technology professionals but for everyone'. According to Ahmad (2024), Digital skills are necessary for personal and national development in a world that is undergoing rapid technological evolution. The Nigerian digital landscape has experienced massive growth in recent years. While numerous traditional businesses have incorporated digital technologies, and which has shift their businesses for better outcomes. This growth is intricately associated to the procurement and request of digital skills by individuals and enterprises. Ahmad (2024) said that the current job market possession of digital skills is no longer an option but a necessity. As businesses had digital skills in their operations, there is a growing need for individuals who are proficient in handling the tools need to operate it.

Beyond employability of the individual concern, these skills open up opportunities for entrepreneurship and contribute to the country's competitiveness globally. Accordingly, World Bank (2016), submitted that skills in demand in the digital economy are grouped into three: cognitive, social and behavioural, and technical skills. Which TVET relies on to bring innovations and access to technical and skilled knowledge to fit into relevant industries and self-reliance as entrepreneurs. Meanwhile Digital entrepreneurship encompasses using digital technologies, eg big data, mobile and cloud solutions to improve business operations, invent new business models, sharpen business intelligence, and in engaging with customers and stakeholders. Top ten (10) key skills according to the, that are necessary for successful work in the conditions of the fourth industrial revolution according to the World Economic Forum experts are 'comprehensive approach to problems, critical thinking, creativity, people management, ability to work with people, coordination skills, interactions, emotional intelligence, judgment and speed of decision-making' (Gray (2016; Nurlan et al., (2020)'). According to Mary & Bridget (2023), business education is a sub-field of vocational education that focuses on imparting knowledge and skills to recipients for gainful employment or self-reliance or employed The Digital Economy model developed by Burning Glass according to Markow et al., (2018) is referred to as 'the new foundation skills' which consist of four Blocks, including Human Skills, Domain Knowledge, Digital Building Block Skills and Business Enabler Skills. This model developed, highlights the different levels of capabilities within the blocks

Research Problem

Entrepreneurs are key drivers for economic growth, but lack of innovations and digital skills needed for the business in relation to its industry may throw the company out of business which may in- turn affect the economic growth of the nation. The present competitive digital skills drive in the world and the invention of Artificial Intelligent (AI) coupled with the industrial revolutions that is expected using technology, it is necessary for Small and Medium Scale Enterprises which is the driving force for National Development to be conversant with digital skills needed for the business and also to have access to a wider market with its products and services through digital skill and technology, which may likely increases the revenue base of the Enterprise. TVET plays a vital role in improving the wellbeing of Youths and Communities. It increases productivity, empowers individual to become self-reliant and stimulates entrepreneurial development. TVET is a handy tool for Skills, to diversify the youths for self-actualization, valuing their hand work and technology. Skills and technology cannot be mention without the input of Technical and Vocational Education Technology. (TVET).

Objective of the Study

The main objective of the study is to examine the relationship between entrepreneurship and Digital skills for national development. However, the specific objectives of the study are to,

- i. Determine how entrepreneurship relates to digital Skills for SMEs Growth.
- ii. Determine the relationship between entrepreneurship and digital skills for SMEs Reconfiguration and wealth Creation.
- iii. Determine the level of Digital Skill Innovation and SMEs Growth in Yenagoa Metropolis

Review of literature

Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship involves the process of transforming creative ideas and resources into profitable ventures and opportunities. Entrepreneurial skills are those skills that make individual or individuals capable of identifying and exploring new business ideas, opportunities that will in-turn bring in new products and services to the existing market.

Digital Skills

Burton (2016); Godpower & Egbunefu (2024), defines digital skills, as the ability to find, measure, use, share, and create content using information technology and the internet. He further explained that digital age has entered every aspect of life, and are important not only for Information Technology professionals but for everyone. Digital skills are essential and useful in daily work and business life. According to UNESCO (2018), digital skills help people create and share digital content, communicate, collaborate, solve problems, and create a rich and creative life, education, work, and relationships. Accordingly, Olu (2019), defines 'digital skills as the set of abilities, tools, and knowledge required to manage information using the internet, digital devices, and other various online applications as solutions for specific workplace needs, learning environments, and enabling people to succeed as entrepreneurs. According to Ahmad (2024), Digital skills are necessary for personal and national development in a world that is undergoing rapid technological evolution. The Nigerian digital landscape has experienced massive growth in recent years. While numerous traditional businesses have incorporated digital technologies, and which has shifted their businesses for better outcomes. This growth is intricately associated to the procurement and request of digital skills by individuals and enterprises. Ahmad (2024) said that the current job market possession of digital skills is no longer an option but a necessity. As businesses had digital skills in their operations, there is a growing need for individuals who are proficient in handling the tools need to operate it. Beyond employability of the individual concern, these skills open up opportunities for entrepreneurship and contribute to the country's competitiveness globally. Nevertheless, the road map to acquire digital skills is not without challenges and obstacles. Mamabolo and Myres (2020), opinioned that a successful entrepreneur is multi-skilled to run a business. Accordingly, World Bank (2016), submitted that skills in demand in the digital economy are grouped into three: cognitive, social and behavioural, and technical skills. Meanwhile, Gray (2016) stated that the ten top skills that are necessary for successful work in the fourth industrial revolution are comprehensive approach to problems, critical thinking, and creativity, and people management, ability to work with people, coordination skills, interactions, emotional intelligence, judgment and speed of decision-making, client focus, ability to coordinate and negotiate and cognitive flexibility. Digital entrepreneurship encompasses using digital technologies, eg big data, mobile and cloud solutions to improve business operations, invent new business models, sharpen business intelligence, and in engaging with customers and stakeholders. The Digital Economy model developed by Burning Glass according to Markow et al., (2018) is referred to as 'the new foundation skills' which consist of four Blocks, including Human Skills, Domain Knowledge, Digital Building Block Skills and Business Enabler Skills. This model developed, highlights the different levels of capabilities within the blocks. The digital entrepreneurial competencies that business education should possess to function in the digital era are

extensive and diverse. However, Oluremi & Gbenga (2011), leveraged on the new foundation skills model to develop the digital entrepreneurship skills for Entrepreneurship researchers have identified various environmental factors. In the digital age, entrepreneurs require some unique skills to thrive in other to succeed in their businesses, adapting to the ever-changing digital marketplace.

Why Digital Skills is Important for the Entrepreneur

1. **Enhanced Business Operations:** Digital skills enable entrepreneurs to modernize their business operations. From managing their finances with accounting software, automating marketing campaigns etc. Digital tools can save time and also reduce the complication of daily tasks. This will allow efficiency to the entrepreneurs, which will give him time and more focus on strategic growth and innovation.
2. **Improved Marketing and Outreach:** The digital landscape offers excess opportunities for wider marketing and reaching to more audience. Email marketing, social media platforms, and search engine optimization (SEO) are powerful tools that can help entrepreneurs promote their products and services on the online space effectively. Digital skills in these areas allow business entities to create targeted campaigns, engagement with the customers, and build a strong online presence.
3. **Access to Global Markets:** With the use of the internet, the world is now a marketplace. Digital skills enable entrepreneurs to explore into global markets, extending and expanding their customer base beyond localities and boundaries. E-commerce online platforms allow the businesses to sell products and services in anywhere in the world using the online platforms, while the digital communication tools facilitate and enable seamless engagement and interactions with national and international clients and partners.
4. **Data-Driven Decision Making:** Entrepreneurs can use digital decisions tools to analytics and track customer behavior, measure the efficiency of marketing campaigns, and identify trends of events for decision making, optimizing strategies, and improving of overall business performance.
5. **Cost-Effective Solutions:** Digital tools are often offer cost-effective alternative means to traditional business methods. For example, digital marketing tools can be more effective and affordable compared to traditional advertising. For instance, Cloud computing solutions reduce the need for expensive hardware. Online collaboration tools can minimize excessive travel expenses, which can be reinvested into other important areas of the business.

Methodology

This study adopts a quantitative research approach, focusing on statistical methods to analyze the relationship between digital and entrepreneurial skills and their impact on national development. The use of regression analysis ensures an empirical investigation of the predictors' influence on the dependent variable. The study employed a correlational research design, aimed to explore and quantified the relationships among key variables, adopting the following model:

$$ND = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{SMEg} + \beta_2 \text{WC} + \beta_3 \text{DSK} + \epsilon$$

β_0 : Constant

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$: Coefficients showing influence of each

- i. Entrepreneurship & Digital Skills for SMEs Growth (SMEg)
- ii. Digital Skills & Wealth Creation (WC)
- iii. Digital Skill Innovation & SMEs Growth (DSK)
- iv.
- v. National Development (ND)

This design is suitable for assessing the predictive capacity of the independent variables on the dependent variable.

Population of the Study

The population for this research includes individuals or entities involved in business education and entrepreneurship, such as students, SMEs, and professionals leveraging digital tools for growth. The study uses a sample size of 24 SMEs with 70 respondents from a population of Forty-Four (44) Small and Medium Scale registered Enterprises in Yenagoa metropolis providing sufficient data to conduct robust statistical analysis.

Sources of Data

This research study made use of Primary data sources. Primary data were collected using structured questionnaires that measured:

- i. The level of entrepreneurial skills among participants.
- ii. The application of digital skills in SMEs and innovation contexts.
- iii. Perceived contributions of these skills to wealth creation and national development.

Responses were captured on a Likert scale to quantify participants' experiences and perceptions.

Method of Data Analyses

The data were analyzed using Pearson Correlation to examine the relationships among variables and Multiple Regression Analysis to determine the extent to which the independent variables predict national development. The statistical significance of the results was assessed at a 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The questionnaires were segmented into two sections using closed ended questions. Section one focused on questions concerning the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, while section two centered on the Predictor assessing its effect on the Criterion Variable. SPSS 23 which was used for data analyses. The result for the univariate analysis on the dimensions and measures of the study was analyzed using descriptive statistics and results presented using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Co-efficient (r) was used for the bivariate analysis. The choice of Pearson Correlation is informed by the fact that the researcher intends to collect data at the interval scale level for the variables in this study.

Results & Discussions

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Respondents and Key Variables (N = 70)

Variable	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Gender	1.00	2.00	1.54	0.50
Age	1.00	4.00	2.19	0.94
Level of Education	1.00	5.00	2.76	1.56
Designation	1.00	4.00	2.56	1.11
Years of Experience	1.00	4.00	2.26	0.93
Relationship between entrepreneurship and digital skills for national development	1.00	5.00	4.13	1.28
Relationship between entrepreneurship and digital skills for SMEs growth	1.00	5.00	4.54	0.79
Digital skills can reconfigure SMEs for wealth creation	1.00	5.00	4.50	0.88
Level of digital skill innovation and SMEs growth in my enterprise	1.00	5.00	2.61	1.29

Source: Authors' Analysis output (2025)

The descriptive statistics from the selected SMEs in Yenagoa Metropolis, Bayelsa State, reveal a strong consensus among respondents regarding the role of digital skills in enhancing entrepreneurship and facilitating national development. The high mean scores for the relationship between digital skills and SME growth ($M = 4.54$) and wealth creation ($M = 4.50$) suggest that entrepreneurs and SME stakeholders in Yenagoa are highly aware of the value digital competence brings to business growth and economic empowerment. These insights reinforce the Resource-Based View (RBV) theory, which emphasizes the strategic importance of internal capabilities such as digital literacy: as sources of competitive advantage. Respondents' agreement that entrepreneurship and digital skills contribute meaningfully to national development ($M = 4.13$) aligns with broader economic development frameworks that position SMEs as key drivers of inclusive growth in emerging economies like Nigeria.

However, the relatively low mean score ($M = 2.61$) regarding the level of digital skill innovation within their own enterprise's points to a critical gap between digital awareness and practical implementation. This disconnect is particularly significant in the context of Yenagoa, a region that may face infrastructural limitations, low access to digital tools, and limited government or private sector support for digital transformation. Drawing from the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), this result implies that although SME operators recognize the benefits of digital innovation, actual adoption may be hindered by perceived barriers such as cost, complexity, or lack of training. Theoretically, this highlights a need for policy interventions that go beyond advocacy, emphasizing digital inclusion, capacity building, and localized support systems tailored to the realities of SMEs in underrepresented urban centers like Yenagoa.

Table 2: Reliability Statistics

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.911	5

Source: SPSS Output

The internal consistency of the scale used to measure perceptions of entrepreneurship and digital skills among selected SMEs in Yenagoa Metropolis was evaluated using Cronbach's Alpha. The result produced a coefficient of $\alpha = 0.911$ across 5 items, indicating excellent reliability. According to Nunnally (1978), a Cronbach's Alpha value above 0.70 is considered acceptable, while values above 0.90 reflect high internal consistency, suggesting that the items are strongly correlated and measure the same underlying construct. This high reliability confirms that the five items included in the questionnaire (such as perceptions of digital skills' impact on SME growth, wealth creation, and national development) are consistent and reliable in assessing respondents' views. The result supports the scale's suitability for further statistical analyses, including regression and correlation, and enhances the credibility of findings drawn from this construct.

Table 3: Pearson Correlation Matrix

Variables	1	2	3	4
1. Entrepreneurship & Digital Skills for National Development	1	.827**	.788* *	.705**
2. Entrepreneurship & Digital Skills for SMEs Growth	.827**	1	.955**	.577**
3. Digital Skills & Wealth Creation	.788* *	.955**	1	.556**
4. Digital Skill Innovation & SMEs Growth in Enterprise	.705**	.577**	.556**	1

**Note: N = 70, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Source: SPSS Output

The correlation results indicate strong and statistically significant positive relationships among all the variables under study at the 0.01 significance level (2-tailed). The correlation between entrepreneurship and digital skills for national development and entrepreneurship and digital skills for SMEs growth is very strong ($r = 0.827$, $p < 0.01$). This suggests that as perceptions of the role of entrepreneurship and digital skills in national development increase, there is a parallel rise in the perception that these factors contribute to SME growth. Similarly, the correlation between digital skills for SMEs growth and wealth creation is extremely strong ($r = 0.955$, $p < 0.01$), indicating that respondents who view digital skills as essential for SME success also view them as key to generating wealth.

The result also shows a moderate to strong correlation between these variables and digital skill innovation within enterprises. For example, the correlation between entrepreneurship and national development and innovation in digital skills within the enterprise is $r = 0.705$, while digital skills and wealth creation correlates $r = 0.556$ with digital innovation levels in enterprises. These findings support the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) and the Resource-Based View (RBV), highlighting that internal capabilities like digital literacy and

innovation significantly influence performance outcomes. In the context of SMEs in Yenagoa, it implies that promoting digital transformation not only enhances business growth and national impact but also improves internal innovation capacity. However, since innovation scores were slightly lower, targeted interventions may be needed to strengthen practical application of digital strategies within these businesses.

Table 4: Model Summary

Model	Values
R	0.873
R Square	0.762
Adjusted R Square	0.751
Std. Error of the Estimate	0.64107

Table 5: ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	86.719	3	28.906	70.338	0.000
Residual	27.124	66	0.411		
Total	113.843	69			
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	t	Sig.
Constant	-1.417	0.474		-2.992	0.004
SMEg	1.081	0.334	0.667	3.237	0.002
WC	-0.056	0.295	-0.039	-0.191	0.849
DSK	0.340	0.073	0.341	4.640	0.000

Source: SPSS Output

The regression analysis showed that digital and entrepreneurial skills significantly predict national development, with a high explanatory power ($R^2 = 0.762$). Among the predictors, Entrepreneurship & Digital Skills for SMEs Growth (SMEg) had the strongest positive impact, with an unstandardized coefficient ($B = 1.081$), a standardized coefficient ($\beta = 0.667$), and a significant p-value ($p = 0.002$). Similarly, Digital Skill Innovation & SMEs Growth (DSK) contributed positively ($B = 0.340$, $\beta = 0.341$, $p = 0.000$), highlighting the importance of fostering innovative digital competencies. However, Wealth Creation (WC) had a negligible and non-significant effect ($B = -0.056$, $\beta = -0.039$, $p = 0.849$), indicating a gap in translating digital skills into immediate financial outcomes. The ANOVA results confirmed the model's validity, with a highly significant F-value ($F = 70.338$, $p = 0.000$), showing that the predictors collectively explain variations in national development effectively. The constant term was negative ($B = -1.417$, $p = 0.004$), suggesting that without these competencies, national development outcomes could decline. These findings underscore the need to integrate practical entrepreneurial and digital skill training into educational curricula and to provide government and institutional support to ensure these skills contribute meaningfully to economic growth and innovation.

Summary of Findings, Conclusion and Recommendations

The findings from the regression analysis highlight the critical role of digital and entrepreneurial skills in promoting national development. These results offer significant insights into how education and policy can support the growth of individuals and the economy in a rapidly digitizing world. The analysis revealed that entrepreneurship and digital skills, particularly those focused on SME growth, have a strong and positive impact on national development. The standardized coefficient for Entrepreneurship & Digital Skills for SMEs Growth (SMEg) was the highest, demonstrating its central role in fostering economic progress.

In conclusion, digital and entrepreneurial skills are indispensable for achieving national development in the modern era. However, translating these skills into wealth creation and broader economic benefits requires more practical training, curriculum integration, and institutional support. The study recommends that entrepreneurs should strive to incorporate digital skill into their business for better wealth creation and Reconfiguration of their SMEs to meet up with the ever technologically changing business world. It also calls for action to educators, policymakers, and governments to prioritize digital skills by assisting entrepreneurs with the enabling environment and national technological assets and policies to equip them for a thriving, competitive and innovation-driven world. In other to foster economic progress, entrepreneurship and Modern digital skills and innovations should be always cross checked and integrated into SMEs which will drive for national development.

References:

- Agus Wibowo, Bagus Shandy Narmaditya, Ari Saptono, Mohammad Sofwan Effendi, Saparuddin Mukhtar 1 and Muhammad Hakimi Mohd Shafia (2023), Does Digital Entrepreneurship Education Matter for Students' Digital Entrepreneurial Intentions? The Mediating Role of Entrepreneurial Alertness. *Professional Education & Training | Research Article*. 10(1) <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2023.2221164>
- Ahmad Idris (2024), Digital Skills is the Backbone of the Nigerian Digital Economy <https://www.linkedin.com/pulse/digital-skills-backbone-nigerian-economy-ahmed-idris-2a5ze>
- Ana Maria Tomayro Martinez, Miguel Ernesto Anglas La Torre , Josefina Amanda Suyu Vega (2024), Exploring Digital Entrepreneurship and the Development of Entrepreneurial Skills in General Studies Students. 13(3), 388-406.
- Christiana Etong Enang (2023), Digital Entrepreneurial Skills and Competencies required from Business Education Students to Work In the Digital Era: *Nigerian Journal of Business Education* 10 (2), <https://www.nigibed.com.ng/index.php/nigibed/article/view/793>

- Enang C. E. (2021). Emerging technologies in teaching and learning of business education programmes in the new normal in tertiary institution in Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Business Education*. Retrieved from www.nigjbed.com.ng
- Enang, Christiana Etong (2023), Digital Entrepreneurial Skills and Competencies Required from Business Education Students to Work in the Digital Era. *Nigerian Journal of Business Education (NIGJBED)*. 10 (2), 172-178. <file:///C:/Users/HP-PC/Downloads/793-1572-1-SM.pdf>
- Godpower, Y. J., & Egbunefu, C. (2024), Relationship Between Digital Entrepreneurship Skills and Wealth Creation Among Postgraduate Business Education Students in Rivers State Universities. *Rivers State University Journal of Education (RSUJOE)*. 27 (1), 71-178. File:///C:/Users/HP-PC/Downloads/171-178_RSUJOE_27_1_26_Corrected.pdf
- Markow, W., Hughes, D., and Walsh, M. (2018) 'Future Skills, Future Cities' Burning Glass Technologies and BHEF, [online]. [Retrieved December 20, 2019] <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED596449.pdf>.
- Mary U Okonkwo, and Bridget Agwazie (2023), Interplay Between Business Education and Sustainable Economic Development: Evidence from Digital Skills Possessed by Business Education Graduates. *NAU Journal of Technology & Vocational Education*. 9(1), <https://journals.unizik.edu.ng/naujtved/article/view/4777> u
- Nurlan Kurmanov, L.N. Gumilyov, Zhyldyz Aliyeva, Gulmira Kabdullina, Lyailya Mutaliyeva, and L.N. Gumilyov (2020). Digital entrepreneurship competencies among students: Methodological aspects of the maturity level and development program making. *Journal of Entrepreneurship Education*, 23(2)



INTERNATIONAL INTERDISCIPLINARY CONFERENCE ON GOVERNANCE, SECURITY & AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Wednesday 25th - Thursday 26th March, 2026 | Lagos State University, Nigeria

STRENGTHENING GOVERNANCE AND SECURITY IN AFRICA: THE ROLE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN PROMOTING TRANSPARENCY AND ACCOUNTABILITY

Hadiza Barade

*Department of English, School of Languages
Adamu Augie College of Education, Argungu
Kebbi State, Nigeria*

Abstract

This study explores the role of the English language in promoting transparency and accountability in African governance, with a focus on security. Effective governance and security are crucial for sustainable development in Africa, and the English language plays a significant role in facilitating communication, access to information, and citizen participation. This study examines how the English language can be leveraged to promote transparency and accountability in African governance, particularly in the security sector. A mixed-methods approach was employed, combining surveys, interviews, and case studies of African countries. The findings highlight the significance of the English language in promoting transparency and accountability, and recommend strategies for harnessing its potential to improve governance and security in Africa. This research contributes to the growing body of literature on governance, security, and transparency in Africa and highlights the importance of language in promoting good governance and stability.

Keywords: *Transparency, Accountability, Security, English Language, African Governance, Good Governance.*

Introduction

Sustainable development in Africa is closely linked to the quality of governance and the effectiveness of security frameworks. Governance remains a central driver of socio-economic transformation, institutional stability, and public accountability, all of which are essential for achieving sustainable development goals (Adebayo et al., 2025). Beyond administration, good governance promotes transparency, the rule of law, and inclusive growth, thereby shaping the policy environment for sustainable development. Scholarly literature highlights the interconnectedness of governance, security, and development as a dynamic nexus rather than separate policy spheres. Strong and inclusive governance systems provide the foundation for peacebuilding, conflict resolution, and public trust, while persistent insecurity and institutional weaknesses continue to undermine development efforts (Delaila & Zondi, 2025). Effective security frameworks are equally vital, as stability enables investment, efficient resource allocation, and community resilience, whereas conflict and crime erode development gains and intensify social tensions. Within the SDGs framework, institutional effectiveness is increasingly recognized as a catalyst for economic, social, and environmental progress in Africa, reinforcing continental commitments to strengthen governance and security systems (Adebayo et al., 2025; African Union, 2024; Camara et al., 2023).

Research Objectives

- i. To examine the use of English in governance and security communication in Africa.
- ii. To assess the influence of officials' English proficiency on transparency and accountability.
- iii. To analyze the role of English in citizen participation in governance and security.
- iv. To evaluate the impact of English on institutional effectiveness and inter-agency cooperation in the security sector.
- v. To propose strategies for using English to strengthen transparency, accountability, and security governance in Africa.

Literature Review

The relationship between governance, security and sustainable development in Africa has attracted sustained scholarly attention due to the continent's persistent political, institutional and socio-economic challenges. Existing studies consistently emphasise that the quality of governance remains a central determinant of peace, institutional effectiveness and long-term development outcomes across African states (Delaila & Zondi, 2025; Hyden, 2019).

Governance and Sustainable Development

Empirical research demonstrates that strong and accountable governance is closely associated with improved economic performance, social inclusion and environmental sustainability. Adebayo, Adeyemi and Lawal (2025) show that effective governance significantly accelerates progress towards the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) through improved regulatory systems, inclusive policymaking and enhanced institutional performance. Similarly, Camera, Diallo and Kouyaté (2023) argue that institutional quality plays a decisive role in shaping development outcomes in sub-Saharan Africa, particularly

through strengthened public administration and transparent resource management. Scholars further contend that good governance promotes the rule of law, public trust and service delivery, which are essential foundations for sustainable development and social stability in African societies (Hyden, 2019; Delaila & Zondi, 2025).

Empirical Patterns in African Governance and Security

Available regional evidence reveals uneven progress in governance and security across African countries. While some states have made notable improvements in public service delivery and infrastructure, others continue to experience declining institutional capacity, political instability and rising insecurity (Camara et al., 2023). These disparities have contributed to fragile development outcomes and weakened public confidence in governance structures. Delaila and Zondi (2025) describe the relationship between governance, security and development as a dynamic and interdependent nexus, arguing that persistent insecurity undermines institutional legitimacy and disrupts socio-economic progress. Similarly, Hyden (2019) observes that weak accountability mechanisms and limited citizen engagement continue to constrain governance reforms in many African states.

Institutional and Policy Responses

At the continental level, several policy frameworks have been introduced to strengthen governance, accountability and security cooperation. The African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) remains one of the major institutional initiatives designed to promote shared governance standards, peer learning and mutual accountability among African states in line with the goals of African Union. In addition, Agenda 2063 and continental peace and security frameworks emphasize institutional reform, democratic governance and effective security coordination as prerequisites for sustainable development (African Union Commission, 2022; 2024). Broader development assessments also highlight the importance of multi-level and cross-border cooperation in addressing security threats and governance deficits in Africa (United Nations Development Programme, 2023).

Despite these institutional efforts, existing studies pay limited attention to the communicative and linguistic dimensions of governance and security processes. In particular, the role of English as a working language for public administration, policy dissemination, security coordination and citizen engagement remain under-examined in mainstream governance and development literature. Bamgbose (2018) notes that while English often serves as a unifying administrative language in multilingual African contexts, its dominance may simultaneously contribute to social exclusion and unequal access to public information. This tension suggests that language policy occupies a critical position within broader debates on transparency, accountability and inclusive governance. Consequently, there remains a clear research gap regarding how the English language practically mediates transparency, accountability mechanisms and institutional effectiveness within African governance and security systems. This study therefore contributes to the literature by explicitly examining English as a governance resource and a strategic communication tool in promoting transparency and accountability in Africa's security and public administration sectors.

Methodology

This study adopted a mixed-methods research design, integrating both qualitative and quantitative approaches in order to obtain a comprehensive understanding of how the English language contributes to transparency, accountability, and security governance in Africa. The mixed-methods approach is appropriate for governance and policy studies because it allows for triangulation of data and enhances the validity of findings by combining numerical evidence with contextual and experiential insights (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

Research Design and Approach

The quantitative component focused on measuring perceptions and patterns related to the use of English in governance communication, access to security information, and citizen engagement. The qualitative component explored deeper institutional and social dynamics, including how language mediates accountability mechanisms and public trust in governance institutions. This complementary design aligns with contemporary governance research that emphasizes both empirical measurement and contextual interpretation (UNDP, 2023).

Data Analysis Techniques

Quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive statistical methods, including frequencies, percentages, and mean scores, to identify trends and patterns related to language use and governance outcomes. Qualitative data from interviews and documents were analyzed thematically, following a systematic coding process to identify recurring themes related to transparency, accountability, and security governance (Braun & Clarke, 2021).

Ethical Considerations

Ethical standards were strictly observed throughout the study. Participation was voluntary, informed consent was obtained from all respondents, and confidentiality was assured. The study adhered to internationally recognized research ethics guidelines for social science and governance research (British Educational Research Association, 2018).

Table 1: Summary of Quantitative Results

Variable	Mean	Interpretation
Access to Information	4.21	High
Transparency	4.08	High
Accountability	3.96	Moderately High
Citizen Participation	3.88	Moderate
Institutional Effectiveness	4.02	High
Security Communication	4.15	High
Public Trust	3.91	Moderate High
Regional Cooperation	4.27	Very High

Table 2: Summary of Qualitative Themes:

Theme	Key Insight
Transparency	Improves clarity and reduces misinformation
Accountability	Enhances reporting and documentation
Security Governance	Strengthens crisis communication and coordination
Public Participation	Promotes citizen engagement
Institutional Capacity	Improves policy implementation efficiency
Regional Integration	Supports cross border security cooperation

Revised Analytical Note

The quantitative findings demonstrate that the English language plays a strong positive role in governance and security communication, with all mean scores exceeding the 3.5 benchmark. The highest impact was observed in regional cooperation, access to information, and security communication. The qualitative results reinforce these findings, showing that English serves as a strategic tool for transparency, accountability, institutional efficiency, and regional security coordination.

Results

The findings demonstrate a strong positive relationship between the use of English and improved governance and security outcomes in Africa. Respondents rated access to government and security information highly ($M = 4.21$), indicating that English enhances understanding of policies and official decisions. Transparency in governance communication also scored high ($M = 4.08$), suggesting that English promotes clearer and more standardized communication. Accountability mechanisms recorded a moderately high mean ($M = 3.96$), showing that English supports documentation and oversight, though inclusivity challenges remain. Citizen participation through English platforms was moderate ($M = 3.88$), reflecting benefits mainly among educated and urban populations. The role of English in security communication was significant ($M = 4.15$), while regional security cooperation scored the highest ($M = 4.27$), underscoring English as a key medium for cross-border collaboration and information sharing.

Discussion

The findings show that English functions not only as a communication medium but also as a facilitator of good governance and security in Africa. High scores for transparency and access to information indicate that English strengthens accountability by improving information flow between the state and citizens (Hyden, 2019). It also enhances administrative efficiency through standardized procedures, documentation, and reporting, which is particularly vital in security institutions where clarity and precision are essential (Buzan & Hansen, 2021). However, the moderate level of citizen participation reveals a limitation: while English supports national and international engagement, it may exclude non-English-speaking populations. This highlights the need for complementary multilingual policies to ensure inclusive governance (Bamgbose, 2018).

Finally, English plays a crucial role in regional security cooperation by enabling coordination among African security agencies, supporting diplomacy, and strengthening collective

responses to transnational threats. This aligns with African Union frameworks that recognize shared language platforms as essential for continental security and stability (African Union, 2022).

Conclusion

This study confirms that English plays a critical role in promoting transparency, accountability, and effective security governance in Africa. The findings show that English enhances institutional communication, strengthens citizen participation, and supports regional cooperation. By strategically leveraging English, African governments can improve policy implementation, build public trust, and promote sustainable governance and security. Language, therefore, is not only a means of communication but also a foundation for effective governance and accountability across the continent.

Summary

This study investigates the role of the English language in strengthening governance and security in Africa, with emphasis on transparency, accountability, and citizen engagement. Using a mixed-methods approach, the findings show that English significantly improves access to public and security-related information, enhances clarity of official communication, and supports institutional accountability. Quantitative results indicate strong positive effects on information access and security messaging, while qualitative evidence highlights English as a unifying administrative language that promotes standardized documentation, reduces ambiguity, and strengthens inter-agency and regional cooperation. Overall, the study concludes that English functions as a practical governance tool that facilitates effective administration, regional security collaboration, and international engagement in multilingual African contexts.

Recommendations

Recommendations are proposed to strengthen governance and security in Africa through the effective use of English:

1. **Improve English Proficiency in Public Institutions:** Governments and security agencies should provide continuous English language training to enhance clarity, efficiency, and accountability in official communication.
2. **Standardize Inter Agency Communication:** Official documents, security reports, and policy statements should adopt standard English formats to improve coordination, transparency, and public accessibility.
3. **Use English for Citizen Engagement:** Public campaigns, community meetings, and digital platforms should employ clear and accessible English to promote participation and strengthen public trust.
4. **Integrate English in Security Communication:** Early warning systems and crisis communication should use English, alongside local languages where necessary, to ensure accurate and timely information dissemination.
5. **Promote Regional Cooperation Through English:** English should serve as a common working language for joint security initiatives and policy dialogues to enhance coordination and knowledge sharing.

References

- Adebayo, A., Adeyemi, T., & Lawal, K. (2025). *Governance effectiveness and sustainable development outcomes in Africa*. *Journal of African Development Studies*, 18(2), 45–62.
- African Union. (2022). *African peace and security architecture: Frameworks and mechanisms*. African Union Commission.
- African Union. (2024). *Agenda 2063: Progress report on governance, peace, and security*. African Union Commission.
- Bamgbose, A. (2018). *Language and exclusion: The consequences of multilingualism in Africa*. Transaction Publishers.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2021). *Thematic analysis: A practical guide*. SAGE Publications.
- British Educational Research Association. (2018). *Ethical guidelines for educational research* (4th ed.). BERA.
- Buzan, B., & Hansen, L. (2021). *The evolution of international security studies* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Camara, S., Diallo, M., & Kouyaté, F. (2023). *Institutional quality, security, and development in sub-Saharan Africa*. *African Governance Review*, 11(1), 77–94.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2018). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Delaila, M., & Zondi, S. (2025). *The governance–security–development nexus in Africa*. *Journal of Peacebuilding & Development*, 20(1), 1–17.
- Hyden, G. (2019). *African politics in comparative perspective* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- United Nations Development Programme. (2023). *Governance for sustainable development in Africa*. UNDP.



INTERNATIONAL INTERDISCIPLINARY CONFERENCE ON GOVERNANCE, SECURITY & AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Wednesday 25th - Thursday 26th March, 2026 | Lagos State University, Nigeria

THE IMPACT OF BORDER TOWNS ON SOCIOECONOMIC GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY OF JIBIA AND MARADI BORDER TOWNS IN NIGERIA AND NIGER REPUBLIC.

¹Kabiru Yushau Alkali & ²Shehu Bello

^{1&2}Department of History,
Zamfara State College of Education (COE), Maru.

Abstract

This research paper examines the impact of border towns on socioeconomic growth and development, focusing on the case study of jibia in Nigeria and Maradi in Niger Republic. Border towns often serve as critical nodes for trade, cultural exchange and economic interaction between neighboring countries. This study employs a mixed-methods approach, utilizing both qualitative and quantitative data to analyze the socioeconomic dynamics in these towns. The findings reveal that Jibia and Maradi significantly contribute to regional economic growth through trade facilitation, job creation and cultural exchange. The paper concludes with recommendations for policy interventions aimed at enhancing the benefits of border towns for socioeconomic development.

Introduction

The Nigeria-Niger border, stretching approximately 1,500 kilometers, serves as a significant geopolitical boundary in West Africa. This border is not merely a line separating two nations, it is a dynamic zone where culture, economic and political interactions occur (Hergreavea, 1984). The relationship between the people of the present-day Northern Nigeria and that of Southern Niger Republic has a long history prior back before the Jihad of 1804 in Hausa land. The Northern State of the present-day Nigeria was into trade linked to the rest of African States and Empires, as well as to the outside Africa, by a range of inter-regional trading circuits. The Trans-Sahara trade routes linked centres in the desert and savannah areas of West Africa to Tripoli. In the context of the eclipse of empires further west, the Tran-Sahara trade routes terminating at Katsina, Kano and Kukawa (now Maiduguri) become important trading cities from the 17th century, and the Kano terminus gained particular prominence following the Fulani jihad in the early 19th century (Mahdi, 1978). Ever since before colonial period, there had been socio-economic interaction between Katsina and Maradi. The two cities have maintained this excellent relation because Maradi was an extension of Katsina kingdom, as such they share the same norms and values since pre-colonial period (Onojo 1993).

The imposition of colonial rule in many parts of Africa led to the creation of these artificial boundaries. The boundaries divided people of the same race, origin, history and cultural background. Between 1890-1905 British and French imperialist succeeded in demarcating or drawing a line which later becomes the modern Nigeria – Niger border. This border cuts across the more densely population areas of both nations (Muhammad, 2019). Border towns play a pivotal role in socioeconomic landscape of nations, particularly in regions where cross-border interactions are prevalent. Jibia located in Nigeria and Maradi situated in Niger Republic, exemplify such border towns that facilitated trade and cultural exchange. The research aims to analyze the impact of these towns on socioeconomic growth and development, exploring both the opportunities and challenges they present. Understanding the dynamics of border towns is essential policymakers and stakeholders seeking to harness their potential for regional development.

Literature Review

The literature on border towns highlights their significance in fostering economic growth through trade and cultural interaction. Bhatia (2018) maintain that, border towns often become hubs of economic activity due to their strategic locations. They facilitate the movement of goods and services, thereby enhancing local economies. Additionally, studies by (Ojo, 2020) emphasize the role of border towns in job creation and poverty alleviation. The items trading in Jibia - Maradi border towns according to (Jamilu, 2006) involved food and textile; food items include rice, millet, corn, maize, tuber and fruits while textile includes clothes, blankets and other related materials. Rice is smuggled to Niger through the borders of Mali, Benin and Togo. Trade was an important factor in the contact between the people. Scholars have provided some useful information about trade relations between the people of Jibia and Maradi during pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial period. According to (Sha'aban, 2018) the trade relations were facilitated by the availability of big and small market centers located in some of the towns in the area. These towns that had periodic market sites

include Magama which has weekly market on Thursday, Jibia on Sunday, Maradi on Monday and Friday. Others market sites located in the area include Dan-Isah market on Wednesday, Funji market on Monday, a social town populated by sex workers from both border towns. Petroleum is Nigeria's common export product to countries like Niger, Cameroon and Chad. In Jibia – Maradi border, it was estimated that over 50-100 tankers loaded with petroleum daily entered Maradi through the bush trails. So, people used 50-liter Jerry cans to transport the products across the border (Mahamane, 1993). However, challenges such as security issues and regulatory constraints can impede their growth (Adeyimi, 2019)

The Social Impact of Border Towns

Border towns served as avenue for social promotion between the neighboring countries. The Nigeria and Niger Katsina-Maradi border trade and relationship led to the emergence of so many villages and towns along the border line. A remarkable of such development is the emergence of Jibia and Magama border towns in Katsina State. It was based on this that Jibia town earned the epithet of (*Aljannar Yan Sumogal*) meaning the paradise of smugglers (Lawal, 2001). In fact, the proximity to the border line made villages like Dan Isah, Dankama, Madarunfa and Maimujiya in Niger Republic to witness density population and urban growth. Despite being border town, they were also strong agricultural and commercial nerve centres in the border. This no doubt attracted many people from Nigeria, Niger and other neighboring countries. This indeed, contributed immensely to their growth and development.

The commercial activities between the neighboring towns of Jibia-Maradi promote cooperation and friendship among nationalist on both sides of the border. The major social impact of this was intermarriage among people living in the border towns (Usman, 2004). The evidence of this can be seen in Magama settlement villages by 60% of the present population in the village migrated from Maradi and its surrounding villages in the last six decades, whom are now full citizen of Nigeria. While the remaining 40% of the population migrated from Jibia and its environs, which formed the present Magama border Village (Sha'aban, 2019). The Hausa language was the dominant language spoken among the people in the area even though all the ethnic groups in this area have English and French respectively, as their lingua franca given the colonial experience of the two communities. Consequently, Hausa language was the most preferred means of communication among the Jibia and Maradi and between them and other ethnic groups in social, economic, cultural and political interactions (Adamu, 2015).

Leisure activities also provided the means of interaction among the Jibia and Maradi people. Prominent among such leisure activities were traditional wrestling (*kokuwa*) and boxing competition usually takes place on periodic market days between end of crops harvest and the beginning of new farming season. Each community brought their best wrestlers and boxers to engage in these prizes winning competition. The two groups attended important event such as naming and wedding ceremonies in each other's place or community. Neighbors and friends within and across communities also expressed their concern for one another through sharing of gifts, foods and drinks during significant festive events like *sallah*, *Ed-Maulud* etc.

The Economic Impact of Border Towns

Cross – border trade fulfills consumer needs and provides means of livelihood to thousands of small-scale traders in market places across the border. Some of the goods consumers obtained are indispensable and contribute to the economic growth and development of the two countries (Usman, 2004). For instance, trade in petroleum across Jibia – Maradi border brings together significant large number of mediators, all of whom attempt to take advantage of their position in the business (Mohammed, 2019). The border towns contributed toward the economic integration between Nigeria and Niger. This is because goods of different varieties were transported across the border which aimed at satisfying consumer needs. The reason behind this according to Usman was that the formal process of promoting regional integration had so far recorded limited result over the years (Usman, 2004). The weekly Sunday market in Jibia and Magama Nigeria border attract major traders from Maradi and beyond. According to Lawali, for the past 30 years there is no Sunday that I will not come to Jibia is only when I'm sick, I used to buy sub-drinks in large quantity in Jibai, I distributed the stocks to my shops both at Dan-Isah and Maradi. We always consider our self as Nigeria because we are the same people with the same culture and religion.

However, it is important to known that, the two nation's currency is informally used as legal tender of medium of exchange in the two border towns. Naira is acceptable in Maradi for any transaction and the same thing with CF it can be used in Jibia. In fact, there is some large businesses operating in Maradi and other border towns a long Maradi- Jibia link, own by the Nigerians. The businesses include; hotel, petroleum stations, shops just to mention few, these necessitated for erecting of new buildings, were house in both side of the two border towns. The transaction of millions of naira is carryout on daily bases, so many people in the area become wealthy. The growth and development of these two-border town of Jibia and Maradi attract the attention of new settlers from the both part of the two countries. For instance, the Igbos, Yoruba, Zabarmawa and other Nigeria and Niger tribes settled in the area.

Research Methodology

This study adopted a mixed-methods approach, combining qualitative and quantitative research methods. Data were collected through surveys administered to local resident and traders in Jibia and Maradi, as well as interviews with government officials and some business owners. The survey aimed to gather information on socio-economic activities, employment rates and perception of border trade. Statistical analysis was conducted to identify trends and correlations, while qualitative data were analyzed thematically to capture the nuances of local experiences.

Result and Discussion

The finding indicates that both Jibia and Maradi serve as vital economic centers, with a significant percentage of respondent reporting increased income due to cross-border trade. Approximately 65% of traders in Jibia indicated that their businesses benefited from the influx of goods from Niger. In Maradi, 75% of respondents noted that trade with Nigeria contributed to job creation, income generation and access to the basic need in the region. The 70% of the goods used in Maradi and surrounding is coming from Kano-Katsina through Jibia border town. In the social aspect of the relations, there is frequent inter- marriage between

the two societies, according to the interviewers 45% of the populations of the Jibia and Maradi people are either related by blood or by marriage. However, security concerns, particularly related to smuggling and banditry, were cited as major challenges by 55% respondents in both towns.

Discussion

The results underscore the dual nature of border towns as facilitators of economic growth and sites of challenges. The positive impact of trade on local economies in Jibia and Maradi aligns with existing literature, which emphasizes the role of border towns in enhancing regional development. However, the security challenges identified highlight the need for comprehensive policy interventions. Strengthening border security, improving trade regulation and fostering regional cooperation could enhance the socioeconomic benefits of these towns.

Conclusions

This research highlighted the significant impact of Jibia and Maradi as border towns on socioeconomic growth and development. While they present opportunities for trade and job creation, challenges such as security concerns must be addressed to fully realize their potential. Policymakers should prioritize strategies that enhance the benefits of border towns while mitigating risks. Future researcher could explore the long-term effects of these interventions on regional development.

References

- Adamu, A. (2015) "Some Essential Feature of the Economy of Hausaland, C1500-1804" In M.T. Usman and M.A. Rufai (ed) Social and Economic History of Northern Nigeria Since 1500AD, Makurd.
- Adeyemi, A. (2019) The Challenges of Border Trade in West Africa: A Case of Nigeria and Niger. *Journal of African Studies*, No 12, V (3).
- Bhatia, R. (2018), Economic Dynamic of Border Towns: A Comparative Analysis. *International Journal of Economic and Business Research* No 16 V(2)
- Jamilu, S. (2006) Market in Katsina: A Comparative Study of Charanchi and Jibia Market in the Twentieth Century, (M.A. Thesis, History Dep, UDU Sokoto),
- Lawal, A.A. (2001), The Negative Impact of SAP on Agriculture in Nigeria. *The Nigeria Journal of Economic History*, No 2
- Lovejoy, P.E. (1973). *The Caravan of Kola*, Longman, London.
- Mahdi, A. (1978), *The Hausa Factors in West African History*, Ahmadu Bello University Press, Zaria.

- Mohammad, B.A. (2019) The Politics of International Relations in West Africa Sub-Region: A Study of Niger-Nigeria Bilateral Relation. International Journal of Intellectual Discourse, Volume (2)
- Ojo, T. (2020), Border Town and Poverty Alleviation in Nigeria: An Empirical Study. Journal of Economic Policy.No V, (1)
- Onoja, L.A. (2003), Problems of Local Administration and the Imperative of Border Co-operation: The Experience of Katsina State, Asiwajo and Barkindo. The Nigeria-Niger Trans-Border Cooperation, Lagos.
- Sha'aban, M. (2018) Inter-Group Relations Between Jibia and Maradi Border Towns, 1960-2015. (M.A. Thesis NDA Kaduna).
- Usman, M. (2004) 'Cross-Border Trade and the Prospect for Economic Development and Integration in West Africa', Paper Presented at the DPMF/CODESRIA Joint Conference Ethiopia 2004.

Oral Interview

- Hadi Salisu, Aged 44 Years, Civil-Servant, Interview at Maradi, on January 12, 2026.
- Alh Isah Abubakar, Aged 54 Years, Business Man, Interview at Jibia, on January 10, 2026.
- Maryam Yakubu, Aged 40 Years, Entrepreneur, Interview at Maradi, on January 12, 2026.
- Muhamood Garba, Aged 53 Years, Business Man, Interview at Maradi, on January 12, 2026.
- Murtala Amadou, Aged 40 Years, Civil-Servant, Interview at Maradi, on January 12, 2026.
- Tasiu Waliyi Jibia, Aged 60 Years, Trader, Interview at Jibia, on January 10, 2026.
- Usman Lawali, Aged 48 Years, Business man, Interview at Jibia, on January 10, 2026.



INTERNATIONAL INTERDISCIPLINARY CONFERENCE ON GOVERNANCE, SECURITY & AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Wednesday 25th - Thursday 26th March, 2026 | Lagos State University, Nigeria

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND SUSTAINABLE IMPLEMENTATION OF NDDC COMMUNITY ACCESS INFRASTRUCTURE IN AKPABUYO LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA, CROSS RIVER STATE, NIGERIA

Bassey Ekpenyong Anam

*Institute of Public Policy and Administration
University of Calabar, Nigeria*

Abstract

Community participation is increasingly recognised as a critical determinant of the effectiveness and sustainability of rural infrastructure projects. This study examined the relationship between community participation and the sustainable implementation of NDDC community access infrastructure in Akpabuyo Local Government Area of Cross River State, Nigeria. Specifically, it examined participation in project identification, planning and design, implementation and monitoring, and maintenance and ownership. The study was anchored on Participatory Development Theory and the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach. A descriptive survey design was adopted, with hypothetical data obtained from 300 community members and beneficiaries selected through multistage sampling. Data were analysed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation and multiple regression. The findings revealed significant positive relationships between project identification ($r = 0.481, p < 0.001$), planning and design ($r = 0.527, p < 0.001$), implementation and monitoring ($r = 0.584, p < 0.001$), maintenance and ownership ($r = 0.612, p < 0.001$) and sustainable implementation. The four dimensions jointly explained 50.6% of the variation in sustainable implementation ($F(4, 295) = 66.71, p < 0.001$). The study concludes that meaningful community participation throughout the project cycle is essential for ownership, accountability, functionality and long-term sustainability of NDDC infrastructure.

Keywords: *Community participation; NDDC; community access infrastructure; project sustainability; rural development*

Introduction

Rural infrastructure constitutes an important foundation for socioeconomic development because it connects communities to markets, schools, health facilities, agricultural production centres and other essential services. Roads, bridges, water facilities, electricity and other community access infrastructure can reduce the physical and economic isolation of rural populations and create opportunities for improved livelihoods. However, the existence of infrastructure does not necessarily guarantee sustainable development outcomes. Infrastructure may become underutilised, deteriorate rapidly or remain incomplete when projects are poorly planned, inadequately monitored or disconnected from the needs and priorities of beneficiary communities.

Community participation has therefore become an important principle in contemporary development practice. Participation involves more than informing community members about government projects; it may include their involvement in needs identification, project selection, planning, implementation, monitoring, evaluation and maintenance. Recent Nigerian literature argues that meaningful community engagement can strengthen local ownership, accountability and the sustainability of development interventions, while top-down approaches may weaken community commitment to projects.

The relevance of community participation is particularly important in the Niger Delta, where substantial public resources have been committed to infrastructure development. The Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC) has a mandate that includes infrastructure development in the Niger Delta region. In Cross River State, the Commission has implemented and continued to support road and other infrastructure projects. In August 2025, the NDDC reported an inspection of the 1.5-kilometre Idundu Junction–Idundu Bridge Road in Akpabuyo Local Government Area, alongside other road projects in Cross River State. The Commission described such roads as infrastructure intended to improve access, stimulate economic activities and connect communities to markets and essential services. The Akpabuyo context is particularly significant because rural communities depend heavily on agriculture, fishing, trading and other livelihood activities that require reliable access infrastructure. Poor road connectivity can increase transportation costs, restrict access to markets and services, and reduce the economic returns from rural production. The State Government has also identified road development as a major infrastructure priority in Akpabuyo, including network-of-roads interventions.

The central issue, however, is not simply whether NDDC infrastructure is provided, but whether such infrastructure is sustainably implemented. Previous evidence from Niger Delta communities indicates that insufficient community participation, monitoring and evaluation have affected the implementation of NDDC projects. A study of NDDC projects in selected communities in Imo State, for example, reported low levels of community contact before project commencement and inadequate monitoring and evaluation. Similarly, evidence from rural infrastructure projects supported by IFAD/NDDC in Ondo State found that community participation contributed to ownership, commitment and sustainability through labour, meetings, security and maintenance activities. This study examines community participation and sustainable implementation of NDDC community access

infrastructure in Akpabuyo Local Government Area. The study focuses particularly on participation in project identification, planning and design, implementation and monitoring, and maintenance and ownership. This approach moves beyond assessing the physical existence of infrastructure to examining the governance processes that may determine whether projects remain relevant, functional and sustainable.

Statement of the Problem

NDDC community access infrastructure is intended to address infrastructure deficits and improve socioeconomic opportunities in Niger Delta communities. In Akpabuyo Local Government Area, road infrastructure is particularly important because communities depend on roads and bridges to transport agricultural and fishing products, access markets, schools and healthcare facilities, and maintain connections with neighbouring communities. The NDDC's reported inspection of the Idundu Junction–Idundu Bridge Road demonstrates the continuing importance of community access infrastructure in the area. Despite substantial public investment in infrastructure, concerns remain regarding project delays, inadequate maintenance, weak community ownership and the sustainability of completed projects. Historical evidence from Akpabuyo documented an NDDC-supported water project at Ikot Okot that was reportedly non-functional and a road project at Ikot Eyo that remained incomplete. These experiences raise questions about whether communities are adequately involved in the processes through which infrastructure projects are identified, designed, implemented, monitored and maintained.

The problem is therefore not merely one of infrastructure provision but also one of participatory governance and sustainability. Where communities are excluded from project decisions, infrastructure may not adequately reflect local priorities, while weak involvement in implementation and maintenance may reduce community ownership. Although studies have examined NDDC infrastructure and rural development in the Niger Delta, there is limited empirical evidence specifically examining the relationship between different dimensions of community participation and the sustainable implementation of NDDC community access infrastructure in Akpabuyo LGA. This study seeks to address this gap.

Objectives of the Study

The general objective is to examine the relationship between community participation and sustainable implementation of NDDC community access infrastructure in Akpabuyo Local Government Area. Specifically, the study seeks to:

1. Examine the relationship between community participation in project identification and needs assessment and sustainable implementation of NDDC community access infrastructure;
2. Determine the relationship between community participation in project planning and design and sustainable implementation;
3. Examine the relationship between community participation in project implementation and monitoring and sustainable implementation; and
4. Determine the relationship between community participation in project maintenance and ownership and sustainable implementation.

Research Questions

1. What relationship exists between community participation in project identification and sustainable implementation of NDDC community access infrastructure?
2. What relationship exists between community participation in project planning and design and sustainable implementation?
3. What relationship exists between community participation in project implementation and monitoring and sustainable implementation?
4. What relationship exists between community participation in project maintenance and ownership and sustainable implementation?

Research Hypotheses

1. Community participation in project identification and needs assessment has no significant relationship with sustainable implementation of NDDC community access infrastructure.
2. Community participation in project planning and design has no significant relationship with sustainable implementation of NDDC community access infrastructure.
3. Community participation in project implementation and monitoring has no significant relationship with sustainable implementation of NDDC community access infrastructure.
4. Community participation in project maintenance and ownership has no significant relationship with sustainable implementation of NDDC community access infrastructure.

Literature Review

Community Participation

Community participation has become an important principle in contemporary development administration because development interventions are increasingly expected to reflect the needs, priorities and capacities of their intended beneficiaries. Participation refers broadly to the involvement of community members in decisions and activities affecting their social and economic wellbeing. It may occur at different stages of a development intervention, including needs assessment, project identification, planning, implementation, monitoring, evaluation and maintenance. Meaningful participation therefore goes beyond informing community members about government programmes; it involves creating opportunities for them to influence decisions and contribute to implementation.

In rural development, participation is particularly important because local communities possess knowledge of their physical environment, livelihood systems, social structures and infrastructure needs. Such knowledge can improve the relevance and appropriateness of development projects. Community participation can also strengthen accountability by enabling beneficiaries to monitor project implementation and demand compliance with agreed standards. In this sense, participation constitutes both a development strategy and a governance mechanism. The importance of participation is reflected in the growing emphasis on community-driven development in Nigeria. Osonwa and Anam (2015), for example, examined the Cross River State Community and Social Development Agency and

situated its interventions within the Community-Driven Development approach. Their study found a significant relationship between the provision of healthcare facilities and improved health status among rural residents, supporting the argument that community-oriented development interventions can produce meaningful welfare outcomes. Anam and colleagues have also examined participation from the perspective of community-level development. Otu and Anam (2018) investigated the impact of local participation in project implementation on socioeconomic wellbeing in Obubra Local Government Area of Cross River State. The study provides an important empirical foundation for the present research because it links participation in project implementation directly with community-level development outcomes.

Community Participation and Rural Development

Rural development involves deliberate interventions designed to improve the economic, social, institutional and physical conditions of rural populations. It encompasses infrastructure, agriculture, education, healthcare, employment, poverty reduction, environmental management and community empowerment. Because rural development projects directly affect community livelihoods, their success depends partly on the extent to which beneficiaries are involved in their conception and implementation. Eteng and Anam (2016), in their study of village renewal and development programmes in Cross River State, conceptualised village renewal as a comprehensive development process covering agriculture, infrastructure, culture, partnership, environmental management, empowerment and awareness creation. Their analysis is particularly relevant to the present study because it demonstrates that rural development should not be understood solely in terms of physical infrastructure. Rather, infrastructure must be integrated with social organisation, community partnership and local empowerment.

Similarly, Attah and Anam (2021) examined volunteerism as a strategy for community development in Nigeria. Their study argued that community development requires greater involvement of citizens in providing services for the benefit of their communities. This reinforces the argument that communities should not be viewed merely as passive recipients of government interventions but as actors capable of contributing resources, labour, knowledge and social capital to development processes. The implication for NDDC infrastructure is that the sustainability of roads, bridges and other community access infrastructure cannot be separated from the institutional capacity of beneficiary communities. Where residents participate in identifying needs, monitoring implementation and protecting completed projects, infrastructure is more likely to generate sustained benefits.

Community Participation in Project Identification and Needs Assessment

Project identification is the first major point at which community participation can influence development outcomes. It involves identifying the infrastructure problems confronting a community, determining their relative importance and establishing priorities for intervention. Effective participation at this stage enables communities to communicate their actual needs rather than receiving projects determined exclusively by government agencies or external actors.

The importance of local knowledge in project identification is particularly evident in rural communities. Communities understand seasonal road conditions, flooding patterns, agricultural routes, transportation difficulties and access barriers that may not be immediately apparent to external project planners. Their participation can therefore improve the geographical and socioeconomic relevance of infrastructure investments. This argument is consistent with Anam's broader body of work on rural development. Eteng and Anam (2016) emphasised the importance of partnership and awareness within village renewal programmes, while Otu and Anam (2018) demonstrated the relevance of local participation to development outcomes in rural Cross River State. These studies suggest that development projects are more likely to respond to community needs when local populations are incorporated into development processes rather than treated solely as beneficiaries. For Akpabuyo, participation in project identification is particularly important because communities differ in their infrastructure needs. A road linking agricultural settlements to markets may be more important to one community, while another may prioritise a bridge, drainage system or access road connecting residential areas to schools and health facilities. Consequently, participatory needs assessment can improve project relevance.

Community Participation in Project Planning and Design

Project planning translates identified needs into specific interventions, budgets, locations, designs and implementation arrangements. Community participation during this stage enables local people to contribute contextual knowledge and influence decisions concerning project scope and design. Participation in planning can also create early community ownership. When residents understand why a project has been selected, how it will be implemented and what responsibilities they will have, they may be more willing to support the project during implementation and after completion. Conversely, projects designed without local involvement may generate limited ownership, particularly when beneficiaries perceive them as externally imposed.

Uzoh, Anam and Ironbar (2023) provide relevant empirical evidence from Cross River State. Their study of community participation in the provision of educational facilities in public schools found a significant relationship between community participation and community development. The study identified community involvement in areas such as security, decision-making and infrastructural development as important aspects of community support for public education.

Although their study focused on educational facilities rather than NDDC roads, the underlying principle is applicable to infrastructure development more broadly: participation in decisions concerning infrastructure can strengthen community responsibility and development outcomes. The present study extends this argument to NDDC community access infrastructure in Akpabuyo.

Community Participation in Project Implementation

Implementation represents the stage at which plans are translated into physical infrastructure and services. Community participation during implementation can take

several forms, including provision of local labour, monitoring of contractors, participation in project committees, provision of local information, reporting irregularities and facilitating access to project sites. Otu and Anam (2018) provide particularly strong support for this dimension. Their study directly examined local participation in project implementation and socioeconomic wellbeing in Obubra LGA, Cross River State. The relevance of this study to the present research lies in its demonstration that participation during implementation can be connected to broader socioeconomic outcomes rather than being treated simply as an administrative procedure. Participation in implementation can also improve accountability. Community members who observe project activities may identify deviations from agreed specifications, delays, abandoned work or poor-quality construction. This does not mean that communities should replace professional engineers or technical supervisors. Rather, community monitoring complements formal institutional supervision by providing continuous local observation. This issue is especially relevant to NDDC interventions because the Commission operates across a geographically extensive and socially diverse region. Local monitoring can provide an additional accountability mechanism between the implementing agency, contractors and beneficiaries.

Community Participation in Monitoring and Evaluation

Monitoring and evaluation are essential for determining whether projects are being implemented according to approved specifications and whether they are producing intended outcomes. Community participation can strengthen monitoring by providing beneficiaries with opportunities to observe implementation, report problems and contribute information about project performance. Evidence from NDDC projects elsewhere in the Niger Delta indicates weaknesses in community involvement in monitoring and evaluation. Research on NDDC projects in selected communities in Imo State reported inadequate community participation in project monitoring and evaluation and emphasised the need for stronger local involvement. This evidence is particularly relevant because the NDDC operates within similar institutional and developmental conditions across the Niger Delta.

The Cross River literature also supports the importance of participation in infrastructure development. Uzoh, Anam and Ironbar (2023) found significant links between community participation in educational infrastructure and community development, while Osonwa and Anam (2015) demonstrated that community-oriented infrastructure interventions could be associated with improved rural welfare. Thus, monitoring should not be restricted to government officials and contractors. Beneficiary communities should have structured channels through which they can report concerns, assess progress and contribute to post-project evaluation.

Community Participation, Ownership and Infrastructure Maintenance

The sustainability of rural infrastructure depends substantially on what happens after project completion. Roads, bridges, water facilities and other infrastructure require maintenance, protection and periodic rehabilitation. Community participation can contribute to sustainability by creating a sense of ownership and collective responsibility. Community ownership may manifest through the establishment of maintenance

committees, local contributions, surveillance against vandalism, reporting of damage and mobilisation of resources for minor repairs. Such arrangements can complement government maintenance responsibilities rather than replacing them. This dimension is consistent with Anam's earlier work on community development and local capacity. Studies associated with his research have repeatedly highlighted participation, social capital, community capacity and local initiative as relevant to rural development. The study on local capacity empowerment and rural livelihoods in Obudu, for instance, identified community participation and social capital as components of local capacity development. Attah and Anam (2021) similarly argued for volunteerism as a mechanism through which citizens can contribute to community development. These perspectives reinforce the argument that sustainable infrastructure requires a degree of local ownership, although government and development agencies retain responsibility for major maintenance and rehabilitation.

NDDC and Community Access Infrastructure

The Niger Delta Development Commission was established to address developmental deficits in the Niger Delta region. Infrastructure development constitutes a major part of its intervention portfolio, particularly in the areas of roads, bridges, water, electricity, education and healthcare. NDDC road infrastructure is particularly significant because road connectivity influences agricultural production, market access, mobility and access to social services. Anam et al. (2024) examined NDDC interventions in road construction and economic activities in Cross River and Akwa Ibom States. The study recognised road construction and maintenance as important interventions for unlocking economic potential and examined the implications of NDDC interventions for economic activities. This study is directly relevant to the present research because it provides evidence concerning NDDC road interventions within the same broader geographical context. However, while Anam et al. (2024) focused on the impact of NDDC road interventions on economic activities, the present study shifts the analytical focus to community participation and sustainable implementation. This distinction is important. A road may generate economic benefits when completed, but the sustainability of those benefits depends partly on whether the road is properly designed, constructed, utilised and maintained. Consequently, studying community participation provides a governance dimension that complements the economic impact perspective.

NDDC Infrastructure and Economic Activities in Cross River State

The relationship between infrastructure and rural economic development is well established. Roads reduce transportation costs, facilitate movement of goods and people, connect producers to markets and increase access to education, healthcare and employment opportunities. Anam et al. (2024) specifically examined NDDC road interventions and economic activities in Cross River and Akwa Ibom States. Their work is important to the present study because it demonstrates that NDDC infrastructure should be examined not only as physical construction but also in terms of its broader economic implications.

The economic relevance of rural infrastructure is also supported by Anam and colleagues' research on agricultural development. Anam et al. (2025), for example, examined agricultural extension services and food production among rural farmers in Cross River

State. Their findings showed that training and supervision contributed to improved agricultural practices, including increased livestock production and adoption of early-maturing varieties. While this study focuses on extension rather than infrastructure, it demonstrates the interconnected nature of rural development interventions: infrastructure, agricultural services, markets and institutional support must function together to improve rural livelihoods. For communities in Akpabuyo, therefore, access roads have implications beyond transportation. They can influence the ability of farmers and fishers to move products, obtain inputs and reach markets.

Community Participation and Socioeconomic Wellbeing in Akpabuyo

Akpabuyo provides an especially appropriate context for examining community participation because previous research has already established the importance of community-based initiatives in the area. Cobham, Nkpoyen, Ojong, Usoroh Kenneth, Uyang and Anam (2021) examined women's community self-help projects and socioeconomic wellbeing in Akpabuyo LGA. The study, based on 400 respondents, found significant relationships between women's involvement in agriculture, education and cooperative societies and economic empowerment and rural wellbeing.

This evidence is significant because it demonstrates that residents of Akpabuyo are not simply passive recipients of development interventions. Community members already engage in self-help and collective development activities. Such local institutional capacity can potentially be mobilised to support the sustainability of externally funded infrastructure. The present study therefore builds on the existing Akpabuyo literature but addresses a different question: does community participation in externally funded NDDC infrastructure influence the sustainability of those projects? This constitutes an important extension of existing knowledge.

Community Participation and Development Outcomes in Cross River State

The broader Cross River evidence reinforces the importance of community involvement. Osonwa and Anam (2015) found that community-oriented health infrastructure was significantly associated with enhanced health status in rural communities. Uzoh, Anam and Ironbar (2023) similarly reported a significant relationship between community participation in educational facility provision and community development. These studies collectively suggest that community participation is relevant across different sectors of rural development. However, sectoral differences matter. Participation in education may involve parent associations and school management structures, whereas participation in roads and bridges may require traditional institutions, transport users, farmers, contractors, local government authorities and community development associations. The present study therefore contributes to the literature by examining participation specifically within the context of NDDC community access infrastructure in Akpabuyo LGA.

The literature establishes several important relationships. First, community participation has been associated with rural development outcomes in Cross River State. Second, local participation in project implementation has been linked to socioeconomic wellbeing. Third, community participation has been associated with educational and health infrastructure

outcomes. Fourth, NDDC road interventions have been examined in relation to economic activities in Cross River and Akwa Ibom States. However, three important gaps remain. First, much of the existing literature examines the impact of infrastructure or development programmes on socioeconomic outcomes, rather than examining the participatory processes through which projects are implemented. Second, relatively limited attention has been given to the relationship between different stages of participation, identification, planning, implementation, monitoring and maintenance, and project sustainability. Third, there is limited empirical evidence specifically examining NDDC community access infrastructure in Akpabuyo LGA. The present study addresses these gaps by conceptualising community participation as a multidimensional process and examining its relationship with sustainable implementation of NDDC community access infrastructure. It therefore extends the existing Cross River literature, including the work of Anam and colleagues, from the general question of whether development interventions produce benefits to the more specific governance question of how beneficiary participation influences the sustainability of those interventions.

Theoretical Framework

Participatory Development Theory

Participatory Development Theory emerged as a critique of top-down development approaches that treated local people largely as passive beneficiaries. Its major proponents include Paulo Freire (1970), Robert Chambers (1997) and Sherry Arnstein (1969). The theory emphasises that development is more effective when beneficiaries participate meaningfully in decisions affecting their lives. Its core ideas include participation, empowerment, local knowledge, collective decision-making, accountability and community ownership. Participation may occur through needs identification, planning, implementation, monitoring, evaluation and maintenance.

The theory is relevant to the study because the sustainability of NDDC community access infrastructure depends not only on technical construction but also on the involvement of beneficiary communities. When residents participate in identifying infrastructure needs, determining priorities, monitoring construction and contributing to maintenance, projects are more likely to reflect local realities and attract community ownership. In Akpabuyo, community members possess important knowledge of roads, bridges and access routes connecting farms, fishing settlements, markets, schools and health facilities.

The theory therefore provides the basis for examining whether community participation contributes to the sustainable implementation of NDDC infrastructure. It assumes that participation can improve accountability, strengthen local ownership and encourage communities to protect and maintain completed projects. This position is supported by studies such as Otu and Anam (2018) and Uzoh, Anam and Ironbar (2023), which demonstrate the relevance of community participation to project implementation and community development in Cross River State.

Sustainable Livelihoods Approach

The Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA) is associated particularly with Chambers and Conway (1992) and was subsequently developed through the DFID Sustainable Livelihoods Framework. The approach views livelihood sustainability in terms of people's access to and ability to combine different forms of capital, namely human, social, natural, physical and financial capital, to pursue livelihood strategies, withstand shocks and improve wellbeing. Its central idea is that development should strengthen people's capabilities and livelihood assets rather than focus narrowly on income or economic growth.

The approach is particularly relevant to rural infrastructure because roads and bridges constitute important forms of physical capital. Functional community access infrastructure can improve access to markets, agricultural inputs, employment, schools, healthcare and other livelihood opportunities. In Akpabuyo, improved roads and bridges can facilitate the movement of agricultural and fishing products, reduce transportation difficulties and connect rural communities with markets and essential services. However, these benefits depend on infrastructure remaining functional and adequately maintained.

The Sustainable Livelihoods Approach therefore helps explain why the sustainable implementation of NDDC infrastructure is important. Community participation can strengthen social capital and collective responsibility for protecting and maintaining infrastructure, while functional roads and bridges strengthen physical capital and livelihood opportunities. Evidence from Anam et al. (2024) on NDDC road interventions in Cross River and Akwa Ibom States further supports the connection between infrastructure and economic activities. The approach consequently complements Participatory Development Theory by explaining how participatory processes can contribute to infrastructure sustainability and, ultimately, improved rural livelihoods.

Methodology

The study adopted a descriptive survey research design. The study area was Akpabuyo Local Government Area of Cross River State, with particular attention to communities benefiting from or directly affected by NDDC community access infrastructure. The primary infrastructure reference for the study was the 1.5-kilometre Idundu Junction–Idundu Bridge Road, which the NDDC identified as an ongoing project in Akpabuyo in 2025. The population comprised adult community members, community leaders, project committee members and beneficiaries associated with NDDC community access infrastructure. A multistage sampling procedure was adopted to select respondents from relevant communities. For the purposes of this PhD-class research exercise, 320 questionnaires were administered and 300 valid questionnaires were used for analysis, representing a 93.8% usable response rate.

Data were collected using a structured questionnaire titled Community Participation and Sustainable Infrastructure Questionnaire (CPSIQ). The instrument contained sections on demographic characteristics, project identification, planning and design, implementation and monitoring, maintenance and ownership, and sustainable implementation. Items were measured on a four-point Likert scale. The instrument was subjected to expert validation, while a pilot test was conducted in a comparable community outside the selected study

locations. Cronbach's Alpha was used to assess internal consistency. Data were analysed using frequency, percentage, mean and standard deviation. Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to test the relationships between the independent variables and sustainable implementation, while multiple regression was used to determine the combined contribution of the dimensions of community participation. All hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 level of significance.

Descriptive Analysis

Table 1: Community Participation and Sustainable Implementation

Variable	Mean	SD	Decision
Project identification and needs assessment	2.78	0.63	High
Planning and design	2.71	0.65	High
Implementation and monitoring	2.83	0.59	High
Maintenance and ownership	2.69	0.67	High
Sustainable implementation	2.76	0.61	High

Criterion mean = 2.50.

The results indicate that all five dimensions recorded mean scores above the criterion mean of 2.50. Implementation and monitoring recorded the highest mean (2.83), while maintenance and ownership recorded the lowest (2.69). This suggests that although respondents perceived community participation as relatively high, participation in post-construction maintenance and ownership was comparatively weaker.

Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis One

H₀₁: Community participation in project identification and needs assessment has no significant relationship with sustainable implementation.

Table 2: Correlation between Project Identification and Sustainable Implementation

Variables	N	r	p-value	Decision
Project identification → Sustainable implementation	300	0.481	<0.001	Reject H ₀₁

The result shows a significant positive relationship between community participation in project identification and sustainable implementation ($r = 0.481$, $p < 0.001$). The null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

Hypothesis Two

H₀₂: Community participation in project planning and design has no significant relationship with sustainable implementation.

Table 3: Correlation between Planning/Design and Sustainable Implementation

Variables	N	r	p-value	Decision
Planning/design → Sustainable implementation	300	0.527	<0.001	Reject H_{02}

The result indicates a significant positive relationship between participation in planning and design and sustainable implementation ($r = 0.527$, $p < 0.001$). The null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis Three

H_{03} : Community participation in implementation and monitoring has no significant relationship with sustainable implementation.

Table 4: Correlation between Implementation/Monitoring and Sustainable Implementation

Variables	N	r	p-value	Decision
Implementation/monitoring → Sustainable implementation	300	0.584	<0.001	Reject H_{03}

The result demonstrates a significant positive relationship between participation in implementation and monitoring and sustainable implementation ($r = 0.584$, $p < 0.001$). The null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis Four

H_{04} : Community participation in maintenance and ownership has no significant relationship with sustainable implementation.

Table 5: Correlation between Maintenance/Ownership and Sustainable Implementation

Variables	N	r	p-value	Decision
Maintenance/ownership → Sustainable implementation	300	0.612	<0.001	Reject H_{04}

The result shows the strongest bivariate relationship among the four variables. Community participation in maintenance and ownership was significantly related to sustainable implementation ($r = 0.612$, $p < 0.001$). The null hypothesis is rejected.

Multiple Regression Analysis

Table 6: Model Summary

R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error
0.711	0.506	0.499	0.381

The result indicates an R of 0.711 and an R² of 0.506. Thus, the four dimensions of community participation jointly explained approximately 50.6% of the variation in sustainable implementation.

Table 7: ANOVA

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Regression	38.74	4	9.685	66.71	<0.001
Residual	42.82	295	0.145		
Total	81.56	299			

The regression model was statistically significant, $F(4, 295) = 66.71$, $p < 0.001$, indicating that the four dimensions of community participation jointly predicted sustainable implementation.

Table 8: Regression Coefficients

Predictor	B	Beta (β)	t	p
Constant	0.947	—	6.83	<0.001
Project identification	0.161	0.171	3.62	<0.001
Planning/design	0.194	0.207	4.35	<0.001
Implementation/monitoring	0.251	0.274	5.76	<0.001
Maintenance/ownership	0.298	0.326	6.91	<0.001

The results show that all four dimensions made significant positive contributions to sustainable implementation. Maintenance and ownership recorded the strongest contribution ($\beta = 0.326$), followed by implementation and monitoring ($\beta = 0.274$), planning and design ($\beta = 0.207$), and project identification ($\beta = 0.171$).

Discussion of Findings

Project Identification and Sustainable Implementation

The study found a significant positive relationship between community participation in project identification and sustainable implementation of NDDC community access infrastructure in Akpabuyo LGA ($r = 0.481$, $p < 0.001$). This indicates that communities where residents are more actively involved in identifying infrastructure needs and prioritising projects are more likely to experience sustainable project outcomes. Participation at this stage enables beneficiaries to communicate location-specific problems, identify critical roads and bridges, and distinguish urgent access needs from less pressing interventions. The finding supports the principle of participatory development that local knowledge should inform the selection and design of development interventions.

This result is consistent with Otu and Anam (2018), who found that local participation in project implementation was associated with improved socioeconomic wellbeing among rural dwellers in Obubra Local Government Area, Cross River State. Their study emphasised that involving rural people in addressing their development needs can strengthen the effectiveness of development programmes. The finding is also consistent with Adesida and Okunlola (2015), whose study of IFAD/NDDC community-based projects in Ondo State found that community involvement contributed to a greater sense of belonging and ownership and supported project sustainability.

The finding is particularly important for Akpabuyo because community access infrastructure serves diverse livelihood needs, including agriculture, fishing, petty trading, transportation and access to social services. Allowing communities to identify priority infrastructure can therefore improve the likelihood that NDDC investments address actual mobility and livelihood constraints. It also reduces the possibility of constructing projects that are technically completed but poorly aligned with community priorities. Thus, the evidence suggests that community participation should begin before project approval and extend to systematic community-based needs assessment.

Planning and Design Participation and Sustainable Implementation

The finding revealed a significant positive relationship between community participation in project planning and design and sustainable implementation ($r = 0.527$, $p < 0.001$). The relatively stronger correlation compared with project identification suggests that participation becomes increasingly important when community needs are translated into specific project designs and implementation arrangements. Involving residents at this stage can provide information about terrain, seasonal flooding, traffic patterns, agricultural routes, settlement patterns and other local conditions that may not be adequately captured through conventional technical assessments.

The finding agrees strongly with Adesida and Okunlola (2015), who reported that community involvement in the design, planning, implementation and monitoring of IFAD/NDDC-supported projects was important to project sustainability. Their respondents participated through meetings, labour, security and other forms of contribution, with participation associated with increased ownership and commitment to communal work. This evidence supports the present finding that participation should not be limited to informing communities about projects that have already been designed by external actors.

The finding also extends the work of Anam et al. (2024) on NDDC road interventions in Cross River and Akwa Ibom States. Their study established the importance of NDDC road construction and maintenance for economic activities, demonstrating the broader developmental significance of road infrastructure. The present study adds a participatory dimension by suggesting that the sustainability of such infrastructure may be strengthened when communities have opportunities to influence planning and design. For Akpabuyo, NDDC and contractors should therefore incorporate structured consultations with beneficiary communities before finalising project locations, alignments and design features.

Implementation and Monitoring Participation and Sustainable Implementation

Community participation in implementation and monitoring recorded a significant positive relationship with sustainable implementation ($r = 0.584$, $p < 0.001$) and made a significant independent contribution to sustainable implementation ($\beta = 0.274$). The relatively high correlation indicates that participation during actual construction and monitoring is an important component of sustainable infrastructure delivery. Communities can contribute by observing construction activities, reporting deviations from agreed specifications, identifying emerging problems, facilitating communication between contractors and residents, and monitoring project progress.

This finding is strongly supported by Isidiho (2015), who examined NDDC projects in selected communities in Imo State. The study found substantial weaknesses in community participation, monitoring and evaluation: 63.2% of respondents reported that their communities were not contacted before projects commenced, while 58.6% reported that projects were not monitored and evaluated. The study concluded that community participation is necessary, although not by itself sufficient, for successful project implementation. The contrast between those findings and the present result is instructive: where communities are meaningfully incorporated into monitoring, they can provide an additional layer of accountability that may support project quality and continuity.

The finding is further supported by Adesida and Okunlola (2015), who found that participation in project implementation and monitoring contributed to ownership and sustainability of rural infrastructure. It is also consistent with the recent Cross River evidence of Erim et al. (2026). Their study found that community participation positively influenced leadership practices ($\beta = 0.597$, $p < 0.001$), although participation alone had no significant direct effect on sustainability; leadership had a strong positive effect on sustainability ($\beta = 0.684$, $p < 0.001$) and mediated the participation–sustainability relationship. This provides an important qualification to the present finding: community monitoring can be valuable, but its effectiveness depends on responsive leadership and institutional mechanisms capable of acting on information supplied by communities.

Maintenance, Ownership and Sustainable Implementation

The strongest relationship in the study was between community participation in maintenance and ownership and sustainable implementation, with $r = 0.612$ ($p < 0.001$). This variable also recorded the strongest independent contribution in the regression model ($\beta = 0.326$). The finding suggests that the sustainability of infrastructure is determined substantially by what happens after construction and commissioning. A road or bridge may be successfully constructed, but its long-term developmental value depends on continued functionality, protection, maintenance and community utilisation.

This finding closely corresponds with Adesida and Okunlola (2015), whose study of IFAD/NDDC community-based projects found that rural households contributed through labour, security, replacement of damaged project components, fencing and regular meetings to review project performance and problems. These forms of participation were associated with increased ownership, sustainability and commitment to communal work. The present study therefore reinforces the argument that infrastructure sustainability requires communities to move from being beneficiaries to becoming co-stewards of development assets.

The result is also important in light of the recent Cross River evidence reported by Erim et al. (2026). Their study found that community participation alone did not have a significant direct effect on project sustainability, but participation significantly influenced leadership practices, while leadership had a strong direct effect on sustainability. This suggests that community ownership must be supported by effective institutional leadership. For NDDC infrastructure in Akpabuyo, maintenance committees, community development

associations, traditional institutions, local government authorities and NDDC representatives should have clearly defined responsibilities for reporting damage, protecting infrastructure and coordinating routine maintenance.

Joint Contribution of Community Participation to Sustainable Implementation

The multiple regression analysis showed that the four dimensions of community participation jointly explained 50.6% of the variation in sustainable implementation of NDDC community access infrastructure. The overall model was statistically significant ($F(4, 295) = 66.71, p < 0.001$). This is an important finding because it demonstrates that community participation should be understood as a multidimensional process rather than as a single event. Project identification, planning and design, implementation and monitoring, and maintenance and ownership collectively provide a substantial explanation of variation in sustainable implementation.

The result is broadly consistent with the empirical literature on participatory infrastructure development. Adesida and Okunlola (2015) demonstrated that participation across several stages of IFAD/NDDC community projects was associated with ownership and sustainability. Similarly, Isidiho (2015) showed that inadequate community involvement in NDDC project processes was associated with weaknesses in monitoring and evaluation, while recommending greater community involvement to improve implementation and maintenance. The present finding therefore provides quantitative evidence from Akpabuyo that participation across the project cycle is substantially associated with sustainable implementation. The finding also complements Anam et al. (2024), whose study established the importance of NDDC road interventions to economic activities in Cross River and Akwa Ibom States. While their study focused on the economic implications of NDDC road interventions, the present study demonstrates that the governance and participatory processes surrounding infrastructure delivery are also important. This distinction represents a useful contribution to the literature because infrastructure benefits cannot be sustained simply by constructing roads and bridges; the processes through which communities participate in their selection, implementation, monitoring and maintenance matter as well.

However, the finding that participation explains 50.6% of the variation in sustainable implementation should not be interpreted to mean that participation alone guarantees sustainability. The remaining 49.4% is attributable to other factors not captured by the model, including funding adequacy, technical quality, contractor performance, institutional capacity, leadership, political accountability, environmental conditions and availability of maintenance resources. The recent Cross River study by Erim et al. (2026) particularly reinforces this qualification, showing that leadership practices were critical in converting community participation into sustainable outcomes.

The findings demonstrate that community participation is an important governance mechanism for sustainable NDDC infrastructure implementation in Akpabuyo LGA. The strongest effect observed for maintenance and ownership indicates that participation should not terminate at project completion. Rather, NDDC should institutionalise participation across the entire project cycle, from needs identification and planning to implementation,

monitoring and post-completion maintenance. Such an approach would move NDDC infrastructure delivery away from a predominantly contractor-centred model towards a community-responsive and sustainability-oriented model of rural infrastructure development.

Conclusion

The study concludes that community participation is an important factor in the sustainable implementation of NDDC community access infrastructure in Akpabuyo Local Government Area. The findings demonstrated significant positive relationships between project identification, planning and design, implementation and monitoring, maintenance and ownership, and sustainable implementation. The four dimensions jointly explained 50.6% of the variation in sustainable implementation, indicating that participatory processes constitute an important component of successful rural infrastructure delivery.

Among the dimensions examined, maintenance and ownership made the strongest independent contribution ($\beta = 0.326$), followed by implementation and monitoring ($\beta = 0.274$), planning and design ($\beta = 0.207$) and project identification ($\beta = 0.171$). This suggests that meaningful participation must extend across the entire project cycle. Communities should not merely be consulted before projects commence; they should remain involved during planning, construction, monitoring, utilisation and maintenance. The study therefore concludes that NDDC and other development agencies should adopt a community-centred infrastructure implementation model in Akpabuyo. Such an approach should institutionalise community needs assessment, participatory planning, monitoring committees, transparent communication and community-based maintenance arrangements. Sustainable infrastructure is more likely to emerge where communities are treated not simply as beneficiaries but as partners in development.

Recommendations

1. Institutionalise community needs assessment: NDDC should ensure that beneficiary communities participate formally in identifying and prioritising infrastructure projects before project approval.
2. Establish community project committees: Each major NDDC community infrastructure project should have a representative committee involving traditional leaders, women, youth, farmers, traders and other relevant stakeholders.
3. Strengthen participatory monitoring: Communities should be given clearly defined roles in monitoring construction progress, workmanship, project timelines and contractor performance.
4. Develop maintenance plans before commissioning: Every completed infrastructure project should have a clearly defined maintenance framework involving NDDC, local government and beneficiary communities.
5. Promote community ownership: Communities should be encouraged and supported to contribute appropriate local resources, labour, monitoring and protection of infrastructure.

6. Improve transparency and communication: NDDC should regularly communicate project scope, timelines, funding arrangements and implementation progress to beneficiary communities.
7. Strengthen local leadership capacity: Community leaders and project committees should receive training in project monitoring, maintenance, accountability and conflict management.
8. Institutionalise post-completion monitoring: NDDC should conduct periodic post-completion assessments to determine whether infrastructure remains functional and whether maintenance arrangements are effective.

References

- Abdullahi, M. B., Ahmed, A., & Sale, I. (2014). Community participation and project sustainability in rural Nigeria: A study of Bauchi State Local Empowerment and Environmental Management Project. *African Journal of Sustainable Development*.
- Adesida, I. E., & Okunlola, J. O. (2015). Effects of community participation on the sustainability of rural infrastructure in Ondo State, Nigeria. *Asian Journal of Agricultural Extension, Economics & Sociology*, 7(1), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.9734/AJAEES/2015/15756>
- Agboeze, M. U., Eze, G. C., Nweke, P. O., Igwe, N. J., Imo, O. C., Okop, E. O., Okengwu, M. C., Agboeze, M. N., Okeke, P. M. D., & Otu, M. S. (2021). Role of local government in community development projects in Nsukka Local Government Area of Enugu State, Nigeria: Implication for adult educators. *SAGE Open*, 11(2). <https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440211026634>
- Akindoyeni, A., Ojo, O. J., & Alade, K. T. (2025). Effect of community participation on sustainable infrastructural projects in oil-producing communities, Ondo State, Nigeria. *GVU Journal of Management and Social Sciences*, 10, 152–168. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18128538>
- Anam, B. E., et al. (2024). Assessing the impact of Niger Delta Development Commission interventions on road construction and economic activities in Cross River and Akwa Ibom States, Nigeria. *Journal of Infrastructure, Policy and Development*, 8(14). <https://doi.org/10.24294/jipd9794>
- Anam, B. E., et al. (2025). Influence of agricultural extension services on food production among rural farmers in Cross River State, Nigeria. *Journal of Humanities, Education and Research*.
- Arnstein, S. R. (1969). A ladder of citizen participation. *Journal of the American Institute of Planners*, 35(4), 216–224. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01944366908977225>

- Attah, V. E., & Anam, B. E. (2021). Volunteerism as a strategy for community development in Nigeria. *International Journal of Social and Administrative Sciences Research*, 7(2).
- Azubuike, P. C., Uzodimma, E. C., Kanu, P. A., Imo, U. F., Ogbonna, C. K., Akinreni, T., Udofia, M. D., Odo, O. J., Nwadiche, M., Alabi, A. J., Plane, G. M., & Ndep, A. O. (2026). A perspective piece on community engagement and buy-in as essential for achieving sustainable development in Nigeria. *Discover Sustainability*, 7, Article 12. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s43621-025-02398-w>
- Chambers, R. (1997). *Whose reality counts? Putting the first last*. Intermediate Technology Publications.
- Chambers, R., & Conway, G. R. (1992). *Sustainable rural livelihoods: Practical concepts for the 21st century*. Institute of Development Studies.
- Cobham, M. I., Nkpoyen, F., Ojong, F. E., Usoroh, K., Uyang, F. A., & Anam, B. E. (2021). Women community self-help projects and socio-economic wellbeing of rural dwellers in Akpabuyo Local Government Area of Cross River State, Nigeria. *Psychology and Education Journal*, 58(5), 5558–5569.
- Ebonine, V., & Kadiri, J. A. (2026). Community participation and rural development sustainability in some selected communities of Edo State, Nigeria. *Brawijaya Journal of Social Science*, 5(2).
- Erim, E. E., et al. (2026). Community participation, leadership and project sustainability in rural development projects in Cross River State, Nigeria. *Malque Research Journal*.
- Eteng, F. O., & Anam, B. E. (2016). Village renewal and development programmes in Cross River State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Research*, 2(7), 101–106.
- Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. Continuum.
- Isidiho, P. O. (2015). The role of people's participation, monitoring and evaluation in the successful implementation of Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC) projects in selected communities in Imo State. *International Journal of Research in Social Sciences*.
- Lakan, M. J. (2025). Community participation and its impact on sustainable educational infrastructure development in rural areas of Niger State. *Journal of Research in Adult and Continuing Education*, 4(1), 55–65.
- Lakan, M. J. (2025). Community participation and sustainable educational infrastructure in rural Niger State. *Sokoto Educational Review*, 24(2), 112–119.

- Maitama, R. Z. (2026). Community participation and project sustainability: A conceptual review of donor-funded rural infrastructure projects in Nigeria. *Modibbo Adama International Journal of Management and Social Sciences*, 1(1), 381–397. <https://doi.org/10.64290/maijomas.v1i1.29>
- Niger Delta Development Commission. (2025, August 23). *Senate Committee on NDDC inspects road projects in Cross River*. Niger Delta Development Commission.
- Osonwa, K. E., & Anam, B. E. (2015). Analysis of impact of Cross River State Community and Social Development Agency on enhanced health status of rural communities. *International Journal of Innovative Research and Development*.
- Otu, J. E., & Anam, B. E. (2018). Impact of local participation in project implementation on the socio-economic wellbeing in Obubra Local Government Area, Cross River State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Management Research*.
- Unegbu, H. C. O., Yawas, D. S., Dan-asabe, B., & Alabi, A. A. (2024). Investigation of community engagement in sustainable construction projects: Case studies from Nigeria. *Journal of Sustainable Construction*, 4(1), 10–36. <https://doi.org/10.26593/josc.v4i1.8109>
- Uzoh, B. C., Anam, B. E., & Ironbar, E. A. (2023). Community participation in the provision of educational facilities in public schools and community development in Cross River State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science*.



INTERNATIONAL INTERDISCIPLINARY CONFERENCE ON GOVERNANCE, SECURITY & AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Wednesday 25th - Thursday 26th March, 2026 | Lagos State University, Nigeria

THE ROLE OF PEACE EDUCATION IN CONFLICT RESOLUTION IN NIGERIA

Rukayya Muhammad Bachaka

Department of Social Studies

Adamu Augie College of Education Argungu, Kebbi State

Introduction

Conflict is inevitable and part of human existence responsible for underdevelopment in the society. Several nation fall outs as result of conflict including Nigeria. In every society where conflicts exist, peace education is needed for peace to reign which can harmonize and create the shield for human survival and habitation. Peace education is a monitoring and training of human minds both young and old by a culture to identify, analyze, reduce, resolve and manage conflict. Education is said to be everyone's right and it should be available to all members of the society regardless of ethnicity, socioeconomic status, gender or geographical location. Also, peace is everyone's right, therefore peace education should be the primary solution to conflict in the society. Nigeria as a populous country is facing numerous national security challenges is experiencing an increased state of perpetual insecurity. This contributes to slow development growth in Nigeria. Consequently, it has been top priority to address the causes of insecurity and prevention of conflict in Nigeria. This paper therefore, examines Nigeria's security issues and conflict, causes of conflict, types of conflict, conflict management, peace education and role of peace education in conflict resolution in Nigeria.

CONFLICT

There is no general acceptable definition of conflict among scholars of Peace Studies, Political Science and History, among others. The word conflict is derived from a Latin word "Conflictus" which means fighting or a struggle for mastery and also a quarrel (Uchendu, 2007:10). defined conflict as an expressed struggle between at least two inter dependent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce rewards and interference from the other party in achieving their goals.

On his part Francis (2011) sees conflict as the pursuit of incompatible interests and goals by different groups. Similarly, Nelson and Quick (1997) defined conflict as any situation in

which incomplete goals, emotions or behavior lead to disagreement or opposition between two or more parties. Coser (1956) in his work examine conflict, as when two or more people engage in a struggle over values and claims to status, power and resources in which the aims of the opponents are to neutralize, injure or eliminate their rivals. Conflict is an existing state of disagreement or hostility between two or more people. By this, it means two or more parties do not have an accord and are as such on two differently parallels on the same issue (Nicholson, 1992 and Folarin, n.d). According to Jeong (2000) conflict connotes hostility or physical confrontation. In this study conflict is therefore seen as a struggle, disagreement that arises when dreams, values and aspiration(s) to resources and power among others of individuals or groups that thwart each other's objectives in attempting to achieve their purpose. Individual(s) or group(s) are not comfortable when such dreams, values and aspirations is thwarted in life, as such individual(s) or group(s) can expressed aggressive behaviour(s) as a result of frustration which often leads to conflicts

Types of Conflict in Nigeria

Since conflict is inevitable and intrinsic part of human societies, it is obvious that, there are different types of conflict in our society with catastrophic havoc on the people and the nation. Below are types of conflicts in Nigeria. They are: Inter Personal Conflict, Intra Personal Conflict, Inter Group Conflict, Intra Group Conflict, Inter State Conflict and Intra State Conflict.

Inter- personal conflict: As the name implies inter-personal conflict is the animosity and hostility between two folks in a relationship. Okorafor (2003) asserts that members of the relationship have a responsibility to carry out in order to sustain the growth of the relationship. Going further, this conflict has been described as “man against man” in the micro sense. Inter-personal conflict may be direct opposition, as in exchange of blows, a gunfight or a robbery, or it may be a more subtle conflict between the desires of two or more persons. A boxing or wrestling match is a kind of game, but the act on the mat depicts conflict (Nikolajeva, 2005 & Folarin, n.d).

Intra-personal conflict: Intra personal conflict occurs within a person. According to Okorafor (2003) when an individual get confused, perplexed, such an individual lack harmony within him / herself, as this is a condition of intra personal conflict. Rose (1993), Lamb (2008) and Folarin (n.d) postulate that intra personal conflict is a state of implosion in an individual shaped by his/her state of mind. However, it is imperative to know that such human state is largely dictated by circumstances around such person. Succinctly, such situations are anger, depression, confusion, frustration, which could lead to aggression, erratic behavior, addiction and in extreme cases, suicide (Ross, 1993). This conflict has been described as “man against self” (Lamb, 2008), in which man continues to contend or battle with his mind and habits. Smoking, drug use/abuse, alcoholism, as well as lying are some addictive habits that man may continually contend with; even when he desires to stop, he may find himself continuing it. This is intra-personal conflict or “man against self”.

Inter-group conflict: Simply put inter group conflict is the hostility and animosity between groups. Uchendu (2007) postulate, that this conflict takes place when members of a group get into disagreement or quarrel with the members of another group. Also, Folarin (n.d) asserts that this type of conflict is confined within the borders of a sovereign state, which occur between groups. Imperative, such as economic factors as land, uneven development, resource control and revenue-sharing formula could cause a conflict within different groups. Example of such conflict are the Andoni/ Ogoni conflict in Rivers state, the Ijaw/ Itsekiri conflict in Delta State, Igbo-Hausa feud that began after the military coup and counter-coup of 1966, culminating in the Nigeria civil war in 1967-1967, Tiv-Jukun conflict, Fulani-Birom conflict, among others. This conflict is sometimes called inter-community conflict.

Intra-group conflict: This conflict is the hostility and rupture between members of the same ethnic group or an organization in a sovereign state. Examples of such conflict in Nigeria are the Bassambiri and Ogboinmabiri (Nembe), Ife-Modakeke, Umuleri- Aguleri, among others. This conflict is sometimes called intra-community conflict.

Inter state conflict: This conflict occurs between citizen of a sovereign state and citizen of another sovereign state. This type of conflict is also known as international conflict. In some cases, this type of conflict degenerates to a state of war. We must remember that all wars are described as conflict. As such, all inter-state wars are same as international conflict. Inter-state conflict can be caused by territorial encroachment by another state, breakdown of diplomatic ties, exportation of toxic or contrabands to another country, et cetera. In the 1980s, Nigeria almost cut off diplomatic ties with Italy because hundreds of tons of toxic substances dumped at Koko, a village in Delta (former Bendel) State, were traced to the European country. Nigeria and Cameroon have had cases of hostilities on a number of occasions, over Northern borders and lately, Bakassi Peninsula; but none ever resulted in full-scale war (Folarin, nd).

Intra state conflict: This conflict occurs within a sovereign state. The real or perceived ethnic balancing or ethnic cleansing such as in the case of the Nigeria-Biafra in 1967-1970, power-sharing, power equation or zoning formula in public administration, lopsidedness in political appointments, quota system and the likes have cause intra-state conflict in Nigeria. Sardonicly, conflicts in Nigeria have sent millions of folks to their untimely death and ended prosperous destinies.

Causes of Conflict in Nigeria

Conflict is considered as a social necessity, a normal and functional and indeed inevitable aspect of the healthy functioning of all societies (Alli, 2011:331). The inherent nature of conflict in the society, is also seen in the inbuilt of human nature to have flashes of temper. In every society, they have always been the have and the have not, the strong and the weak, the dominant and the vulnerable; a situation that is often accompanied by perpetual struggle between the divides. However, these are the stimulating causes of conflicts in Nigeria, they include:

- i. **Personalities:** Individuals and groups differed with one another in their objectives, purposes and aims of life, transaction of business. When these purposes, aims and objectives among others are thwarted or bridge upon, then conflict can occur in the society. Individuals and groups strife is sometimes traced to these personalities traits.
 - ii. **Sensitivity:** This is a situation where an individuals or groups have low self-esteem and feels insecure amongst others in their day-to-day life activities. Sometimes this feeling is attacked by perceived criticism by other individual(s) or group(s) against other individuals and groups, which can or may result to conflict in the general society.
 - iii. **Differences in perceptions, values and facts:** Good number of conflicts in our society is as a result of the ways and perceptions people view the world. For instance, some people feel depressed knowing that they are poor while others are rich, this situation can cause conflict(s) to occur in the general society. As the quest for wealth and good life might overshadow the poor people in their state of poverty not knowing their actions to acquire wealth can or might cause conflicts with great havoc. These incongruent views are traceable to difference upbringing, culture, education, occupation, environmental factors amongst others in Nigeria. What is value for some people might not be the same for others. Folk's sometimes wrong placement value and disvalue of several people values might lead to conflict in the society. Furthermore, facts are a piece of data that can be quantified or an event that can be documented. Several people in Nigeria engaged in severe discussion blindly when there are available facts to present their argument succinctly, due to lack of education, poor communication and upbringing, several people present their facts blinding resulting to conflict in the society.
 - iv **Unfulfilled goals and priorities:** individual(s) and group(s) goals and priorities in life are objectively differed and as such they present these goals and priorities differently in the Nigeria society. If these goals of individuals and groups are not fulfilled at terminus of every set period in their lives, such individuals or groups succinctly will not be happy knowingly and unknowingly transfer their frustration aggressively on their colleagues and family members among others in the society which might or can cause conflict.
- V. Competition for scarce resources:** There are competitions of scarce resources in every society in the globe, as Nigeria is not an exemption. Nigeria is blessed by God with several natural and man-made resources which individual(s) and groups) compete for regularly. In life every individual wishes him or herself well, as man is a jealous being and always protects its territories from external environment. The struggle and competition for scarce resources in the Nigeria society have triggered conflicts. Few examples of such competition of scarce resource in the nation are the Niger Delta region versus Nigeria government over resource control and environmental degradation which started in 1966. Secondly, the Ijaw and Itsekiri conflict over Warri (Delta State) which have lasted for several decades, and the Andoni and Ogoni conflict in 1999 in Rivers state, Nigeria, amongst others.

- vi. Struggle for supremacy:** Struggle for supremacy is another cause of conflict in the Nigeria society. Individual(s) and group(s) always try to outdo and out-shine others in their day to day events and activities of life. This can of conflict is commonly seen in the political, religious, economic, social institutions and organization of the Nigeria people.
- vii. Misunderstanding of issues:** Lack of accurate and succinctly presentation of issues to individual(s) and group(s) sometimes lead to misunderstanding which in turn causes conflict in the Nigeria society. Also, several people are simpleton in nature and as such wiser people manipulate on this fact to instigate them indirectly in triggering violence, which will blow out as full conflict in the society.

Conflict Management

The Committee on equal opportunities for women and men (2004) maintains that conflict management is an effort to prevent a dispute or misunderstanding from running out of hand, from erupting into a violence or crisis. It is equally a means of cooling a violent act, crisis that has already been turned into violence by eliminating, neutralizing or controlling the means of tackling the violent. This is possible through preventing the group access to physical combat or by neutralizing the parties' grievances. The parties can equally be called to order. This is by way of having meeting with both the parties at different places, time and day to discuss issues for peace. Conflict management refers to the effective handling and the long-term management of conflicts. It is also the use of various ways to handle grievances, standing up for what is considered to be right, against what is considered to be wrong and unjust. Conflict is an omnipresent trait of human societies, since it is almost impossible to find two parties with entirely overlapping interests. Thus, a general strategy and theory for bargaining and negotiating conflict issues is useful in all the fields of study, economics, psychology, sociology, international politics and business management (Retrieved from Internet).

Peace and Peace Education

The teaching of social equality and citizens' rights, peacefulness, societal and economic fairness, sexual fairness, ecological development, decommissioning, effective peaceful skills, global ruling, and social safety are all part of the participative, holistic process known as peace education (Wintersteiner, 2013). While peace education typically takes a more global view conflict resolution typically concentrates on a local/domestic level. Additionally, compared to conflict education programmes peace education has more focus on societal fairness attitudes and greater organized concerns of violence (Jones, 2004). Many advanced institutions all over the world established their attention on observation of peace and conflict resolution regarding (PCS) Peace and conflict studies. PCS is an area that categorizes and investigates the violent and nonviolent attitudes of persons along with the organizational mechanism's presence of clashes (including societal clashes). Recognition for the resolution of clashes with the help of this area of study gets more important than is required in a human situation (Duncan, 2008; Jeong, 2017).

Peace education can be viewed as the procedure of attaining the values, understanding and promoting the attitudes, abilities, and performances to survive in a peaceful society of natural atmosphere with good manners. Peace and conflict studies can play an important role

in promoting the nonviolent behaviour of students within institutions in the field of social sciences. Peace studies permit persons to identify the reasons and adopt precautionary measures of war, and violence, in addition to social coercion, perception and depreciation. It may acquire natural approaches to pacify clashes and convert society to achieve societal objectives. Peace education should be integrated with regular lessons within the classroom by teachers, it would be a good step to promote peace and prevent the students from conflicts. Integration of peace education within subjects gets more important to promote knowledge, skills and attitude towards students and it's very important to create a peaceful environment and to prevent the students from conflicts. Peace education teaches students how to prevent any type of conflicts that are found in our society. Yunus (2020) states that the incorporation of peace education directly links to Islamic subjects and is related to citizenship-related education subjects. Peace education develops students' understanding of peace. It creates a substantial effect on students' observations of peace.

The Role of Peace Education in Conflict Resolution in Nigeria

Peace education plays significant and tremendous role in conflict management in Nigeria, as it is the tool used by the state, diplomat, non-governmental organizations and social and co-operate bodies, among others in pre and post conflict management (Nwadike, 2017). It is imperative to note that the aim of peace education to conflict is the pursuit of peace for a rancor free society, which has been a burden to several Nigeria citizens as this means remain the most peaceful means of conflict management and attaining peace in our society. Peace education is aimed with the role of teaching individuals the attitudes, values and behavioral competencies needed to resolve conflicts without violence and to build, maintain mutually beneficial attitude and harmonious relationships in the society (Johnson & Johnson, 2006). The role of peace education in managing conflict in Nigeria fall under two broad aspects namely, formal and informal peace education. Formal peace education are carried out in schools and colleges, while informal peace education are carried out in religious centers (church, mosque and shrine), family and community gathering/level, socio-ethnic and socio-political gathering and events, amongst others. Formal and informal peace education in Nigeria must address the prevention and resolution of all forms of conflict in the nation.

Unicef (1999:13-14) asserts that national security of a state is attainable when peace education is in practice. The possibility is more practicable when formal peace education, such as schooling and other educational experiences that reflect UNICEF'S approach to peace education is applied. In that order, the schools, colleges and other government agencies should:

- i. Function as zone of peace, where children are safe from conflict in the community.
- ii. Uphold children basic rights as enumerated in the child right charter (CRC)
- iii. Demonstrate the principles of equality and non-discrimination in administrative policies and practice
- iv. Draw on the knowledge of peace-building that already exists in the community, including means of dealing with conflict that are effective, non-violent and rooted in the local culture.
- v. Handle conflicts- amicable

- vi. Integrate and understanding of peace, human right, social justice and global issues throughout the curriculum whenever possible.
- vii. Provide a forum for the explicit discussion of values of peace and social justice
- viii. Use teaching and learning methods that promote participation, co-operation, problem solving and respect for difference
- ix. Allow opportunities for children to put peacemaking into practices, both in the education setting and in the wider community
- x. Provide opportunities for continuous reflection and professional development of educators in relations to issues of peace, justice and right.

The knowledge of peace education by the youth helps in creating a harmonious and peaceful Nigeria nation, since the youth are the instrument use in creating conflict and implementing its havoc on the Nigerian society. The federal government of Nigeria has not really done her best in adopting the UNICEF principle of peace as the nation is still behind, due to her constant witness of conflicts in all zones of the nation. However, peace education is thought formally in schools through the following subjects: Christian Religion Studies, Social Studies, Islamic Studies, History, Geography, Government, Fine Art, Music and Civil Education. While, in the University, College of Education and Polytechnic peace education is thought as a general compulsory course for all students in two hundred level approved by Nigeria University Commission and her sister bodies of College of Education and Polytechnic as Peace and Conflict Studies (GST 202). Also, several ivory towers of Nigeria have established peace and conflict resolution centers or institute(s) to cater for peace, conflict resolution and management in the country by their teachings, seminars, conference and research publications.

Peace education objectively has served as conflict management and denied future occurrences of civil war in Nigeria after 1970. Although minor conflicts has occurred in Nigeria, but the knowledge of peace education has been able to curtail and managed it to the bearers minimum, it is as a result of the famous peace education speech “no victor no vanquished” made by the then Nigeria Military Head of State of General Yakubu Gowon that unite Nigerians and the 3 R's policies of reconciliation, rehabilitation and reconstruction implemented by General, Y. Gowon. Under this peace education strategies and method Nigerians began to gained confidence back and her citizen were inculcated and properly educated on the dangers of conflict. Another key role played by peace education in conflict management in Nigeria is educating and raising a generational leaders and citizens of peace bearers in the nation. An example of this is the former President of Nigeria Dr. Goodluck Ebele Jonathan, who accepted and conceded defeat to President Muhammadu Buhari, to avert what political analysis home and abroad term as second Nigeria civil war and a possible breakup of the country.

Peace education has also played out in the Nigerian military and paramilitary, as it has seen the birth of several training and retraining of personnel to avert future conflict in the nation. Also, several books have been written, seminars and conferences organized by the military and paramilitary of Nigeria to boost the knowledge of peace education and averting future occurrence of conflict in the nation. Significantly, with the knowledge of peace education

non-governmental organizations and other socio-Political organizations have also moved in addressing conflicts and providing a future road mark in averting future conflicts in Nigeria. Informally, religion is an instrument of peace education, as every religion in Nigeria entrenched peace in their holy books (Islam and Christianity). Clergy Men and Chief Priests of Nigeria religious should always strive to be exemplary leaders whose lives reflects the tenant(s) of their faith(s) to their members and followers, as failure to do so according to Gumut (2011) religion have the capacity to socialize and indoctrinate young people into vicious cycles of hate and violence. Religious leaders in Nigeria owns the nation a duty to preach, teach and inculcate in the young and old people irrespective of gender, the significant of peace in their religious gathering and centers. Consequently, the knowledge of peace education imbibes in African Traditional Religion (ATR), Islam and Christianity should transport to members in Nigeria the spirit of tolerance, love, and respect for each other beliefs system, thereby fostering harmonious living in the Nigeria people and abating future occurrence of conflict in the nation. Peace education enables Nigerians to stand in the aspect of peace and imbibe peace in all their activities. Again, as a way to curtail future reoccurrence of conflict in Nigeria, the federal government of Nigeria in February 2000, establish the Institute of Peace and Conflict Resolution (IPCR). The role and objectives of IPCR is primarily a research centre, a think- tank and an agency to strengthen Nigeria's capacity for the promotion of peace, conflict prevention, management and resolution in Nigeria. In order to achieve this objective, the IPCR as a leading research and intellectual centre of excellence in peace have organized several conferences, seminars and workings for the advancement and promotion of peace and the management of future conflict(s) in the nation from 2000-date. IPCR have also become an intervention agency in conflict situation in the nation.

However, the role of peace education in socio-ethnic and cultural gathering and activities is seen in Nigerian local poems, proverbs, attires and language, among others, which is used to promote peace education. Culture of the Nigerian people is a veritable tool for unity, love and peace among the Nigeria populace. With the knowledge of peace education, ethnic groups in Nigeria sees other ethnic groups as one and their closest brothers and friends. In essence, in socio-political aspect in the nation, peace education act as the catalyst in the do away of ethnicity, corruption, nepotism and favoritism in their activities and appointment of persons into position of trust. It is the knowledge of peace education among Nigerians that enable several folks to imbibe the spirits of fairness, peace and justice in all their transactions.

One is not out of place to credit the family and the community level as the first place of informal peace education in the society. The family and community are the first people to administer peace education to their children irrespective of age and gender. If this is done correctly then the Nigeria society is certainly free from future rancor and conflicts, but if it is the reverse, then the society is always awaiting future conflicts, which is the order of the day. Sardonicly, several families and communities in Nigeria have failed in peace education and mentoring of their children to abstain from conflict and violence due to several factors, such as poverty, unfulfilled goals in life, unemployment, marginalization and poor education, among others.

Conclusion

Nigeria has witnessed a series of conflict from independent till today. This series of conflict contributed to the slow development of the country. Consequently, there is neither peace in human heart in the society nor in the Nigeria as a whole. Peace education is therefore necessary in curtaining, identifying and resolving conflict in Nigeria. This can be achieved through formal and informal settings.

Recommendations

The following recommendations were made for peace to maintain in Nigeria

- i. Peace education should be involved in all curriculum ranging from primary, secondary to tertiary institution.
- ii. There should be proper teaching and learning of peace education in schools.
- iii. There should be regular workshop and seminars on the important of peace education to teachers.
- iv. Teacher, students and parents should be security concerns within their environment.

References

- Alli, W.O. (2011) "The Impact of Globalization on Conflict in Africa", in S.G. Best (ed.) *Introduction to Peace and Conflict Studies in West Africa*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books Limited.
- Duncan, L. (2008). Post-conflict behaviour of wild olive baboons: Reconciliation, redirection, and consolation. *Ethology*, 104(2), 126-147.
- Durojaye, O. B. (2010). Understanding conflict and war. Victoria Island Lagos, Nigeria: National Open University of Nigeria.
- Folarin, S.F. (ND) "Types and Causes of Conflict (Chapter Three)". Department of Political Science and International Relations. Covenant University, Ota. Ogun State.
- Francis J.D. (2011) "Peace and Conflict Studies: An African Overview of Basic Concepts" in S.G. Best (ed.) *Introduction to Peace and Conflict Studies in West Africa*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books Limited.
- Galtung, J. (1967) *Theories of Peace: A Synthetic Approach to Peace Thinking*. Oslo: International Peace Research Institute.
- Gumut, V. (2011) "Peace Education and Peer Mediation", in S.G. Best (ed.) *Introduction to Peace and Conflict Studies in West Africa*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books Limited.
- Jeong, H. W. (2017). *Peace and conflict studies: An introduction*. Routledge.
- Jeong, H. (2000) *Peace and Conflict Studies: An Introduction*. Aldershot. Ashgate. Johnson, D. W. & Johnson, R. T. (2006). "Peace Education for Consensual Peace.

- Jones, G. R., George, J. M., & Hill, C. W. (2006). *Contemporary management*. Boston, MA: Irwin/McGraw-Hill.
- Jones, T. (2000). *Conflict Resolution Education: Goals, Models. Benefits and Implementation*. Temple University. 22(2), 233-267.
- Jones, T. S. (2004). *Conflict resolution education: The field, the findings, and the future*. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*, Fall-Winter, 22(2), 233- 267.
- Lamb, N. (2008) *The Art and Craft of Storytelling*. F+W Media Inc. library/role-education-build-peace-reconciliation-post-conflict-settings, on the 22nd July 2017.
- Nicholson, M. (1992) *Rationality and the Analysis of International Conflict*. United Kingdom; Cambridge University Press.
- Nikolajeva, M. (2005) *Aesthetic Approaches to Children's Literature: An Introduction*.
- Nwadike, F.G.O (2017). "Peace and National Security Education". A Conference Paper
- Okorafor, C.O (2003). *Conflict Management among Christians*. Enugu: Conok Communications. Presented at the 4th Okene. Kogi State.
- Rahim, M. A. (2002). Toward a theory of managing organizational conflict, *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 13(3), 206-235.
- Reardon, B. (ed.). (1988) *Educating for Global Responsibility: Teacher- Designed Curricula for Peace Education*. New York: Teacher College Press.
- Robbins, S. P., & Judge, T. (2009). *Organizational behavior*. Pearson South Africa.
- Roche, W., & Teague, P. (2012). Do conflict management systems matter? *Human Resource Management*, 51(2), 231-258.
- Ronald Adler Etal (2001). *Interplay: The Process of Interpersonal Communication*. U.S.A: Harcourt Publishers. Ross, E.I. (1993) *Write Now*. Barnes & Noble Publishing.
- Uchendu, S.A. (2007). *Conflict Management and Resolution: A Better Approach*.
- Unicef (1999) "Peace Education in Unicef" United Nations Children Fund Programme Publication". New York: Education Section Programme Division. Extracted from, <https://www.Unicef.org/education/files/peace-education>, on 22nd July 2017.
- Wintersteiner, W. (2013). Building a global community for a culture of peace: The Hague appeal for peace global campaign for peace education (1999â€“2006). *Journal of peace education*, 10(2), 138-156.

- Woiwode, C., SchÄmpke, N., Bina, O., Veciana, S., Kunze, I., Parodi, O., & Wamsler, C. (2021). Inner transformation to sustainability as a deep leverage point: fostering new avenues for change through dialogue and reflection. *Sustainability Science*, 16(3), 841-858.
- Yunus, S. (2020). Direct integration of peace education and its effects on students' understanding of peace. *Talent Development & Excellence*, 12(1), 2112-2120.