

TITLE PAGE

**PUBLIC PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP AND PROVISION OF RURAL
INFRASTRUCTURES IN ANAMBRA STATE, NIGERIA (2005-2013)**

BY

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**A RESEARCH DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE
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CERTIFICATION/ APPROVAL PAGE

The dissertation titled “Public Private Partnership and Provisions of Rural Infrastructure in Anambra State, Nigeria(2005-2013) written by Orié Ifeyinwa Helen meets the requirements of the regulations governing the award of degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Co-operative Economics and Management of Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka and is approved for its contributions to knowledge and literary presentation.

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I hereby declare that this dissertation titled “Public Private Partnership and Provisions of Rural Infrastructure in Anambra State, Nigeria (2005-2013) is the record of a research carried out by Orie , Ifeyinwa Helen for the award of degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Co-operative Economics and Management and has not been submitted for the award of a degree, Diploma or any other qualification, in any institution. All information and excerpt from the work of the authors have been appropriately acknowledged.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to Anambra State Government for its development efforts in the State.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title Page	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	i
Certification/Approval	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ii
Declaration	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	iii
Dedication	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	iv
Acknowledgements	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	v
Table of Contents	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	vi
List of Tables	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	viii
List of Figures	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ix
Abstract	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1	Background of the Study	1
1.2	Statement of the Problem	3
1.3	Objectives of the Study	4
1.4	Research Questions	5
1.5	Research Hypotheses	5
1.6	Significance of the Study	6
1.7	Scope of the Study	7
1.8	Limitations of the Study	7
1.9	Definition of Terms	7

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1.	The Conceptual Framework	9
2.2	Models of Public-Private Partnerships	14
2.3	Trends in Public-Private Partnerships	18
2.4	Bureaucratic Red tape and other Challenges Impeding Effective Public Private Partnership	27
2.5	Rural Infrastructure and Socioeconomic benefits of rural dwellers	33
2.6	Empirical review	36
2.7	Gap-in-Literature	44
2.8	Theoretical Framework	44
2.9	The Relevance of the Theory to the Study	46

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1	Research Design	48
3.2	Study Area	48
3.3	Population of the Study	49
3.4	Sample and Sample Size Determination	50
3.5	Sampling Technique	50
3.6	Methods of Data Collection	52
3.7	Validity of Research Instrument	53
3.8	Reliability of Research Instrument	53
3.9	Methods of Data Analysis	54
3.10	Tools for Data Analysis	54

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS		
4.1	Demographic Data of Respondents	56
4.2	Analysis of Core Areas of Research	58
4.2.1	Dominant PPP Models	58
4.2.2	Infrastructure Needs	58
4.2.3	PPP Involvement in Provision of Infrastructure	60
4.2.4	Residents Contribution to PPP	61
4.2.5	Effect of PPP on Income and Standard of Living of Residents	62
4.2.6	Effect of Bureaucracy and other Challenges on PPP	63
4.3	Test of Hypothesis	64
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS		
5.1	Summary of Findings	70
5.2	Conclusion	71
5.3	Recommendations	72
5.4	Contribution to Knowledge	73
5.5	Suggestions for further Study	73
	References	74
	Appendix	82

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Defining Characteristics of the Various PPP Models	18
Table 2	Sample Questionnaire Distribution	52
Table 4.1	Demographic Data of Respondent	56
Table 4.2	Dominant PPP Models in Anambra State	58
Table 4.3	Infrastructure Investment Needs	59
Table 4.4	Sectoral engagement of PPP	60
Table 4.5	Contribution of Residents to PPP Projects	61
Table 4.6	Effect of PPP on Income and Standard of Living	62
Table 4.7	Effect of challenges on PPP	63
Table 4.8	Correlation analysis for hypothesis one	65
Table 4.9	Correlation analysis for hypothesis two	66
Table 4.10	Correlation analysis for hypothesis three	67
Table 4.11	Regression Estimates of effect of challenges on PPP	68

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1:	Typical forms of Partnership Model	14
Figure 2:	Map of Anambra State	49

ABSTRACT

The study was aimed at evaluating the contributions of Public Private Partnership (PPP) in providing infrastructural projects in rural area of Anambra State. (This will provide a credible platform for improving infrastructure development in state and Nigeria in general.) The study specifically assessed the relationship between rural infrastructure needs and level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision; determined the contribution of residents towards establishment of PPP projects; assessed the level of achievement of PPP projects in addressing needs; determined the effect of PPP on the income and standard of living of rural dwellers; identified and assessed the level of challenges constraining provision of infrastructure through PPPs. The study adopted the survey research design. The researcher drew a sample size of 400 respondents using Bowley formular. Proportional stratified sampling was used in distribution of questionnaire. Both primary and secondary sources were employed in data collection. Data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Systems theory was adopted as the theoretical framework. Also four hypotheses were formulated and tested using Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient analysis and multiple regression model of the ordinary least square type. The findings revealed that significant infrastructural needs in health, education, road, transportation, water and sanitation have been met through PPP arrangement (Pearson Correlation=0.292; Significant@ 0.01). It was also found that rural residents contributed significantly to PPP project via financial contribution, land donation and provision of securities at project sites(Pearson Correlation=0.191;Significant@ 0.01).Available evidence also showed that provision of infrastructure through PPP has brought about a significant improvement to the state of rural infrastructure and economic well being of rural dwellers. It was equally found that though bureaucracy and other related problems bedeviled PPP, they do not have significant effect on the level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision (F ratio=1.074; Significant@ 0.381).It was recommended that effort should be made by government and stakeholders to increase awareness and level of adoption of PPP approach to infrastructure provision, strengthens the institutional and legal framework to PPP arrangements.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

It is the desire of every nation to meet the increasing infrastructure demand of its citizens to ensure a self-reliant and strong economy capable of generating an internally self-sustaining economic growth and development (Ajayi, 2010). Infrastructure facilities consist of three major categories or classes. These categories of infrastructures are physical, social and institutional. The physical infrastructures are composed of transformation facilities consisting of roads, bridges and railways, storage facilities made up of warehouse and silos; irrigation and water resources development facilities composed of dams, irrigation, water facilities, drainage etc. soil conservation facilities and other forms of processing facilities.

The social infrastructures are also divided into different segment, which include health and medical facilities. These consist of hospitals, dispensaries, and maternity and health centers. Educational components of infra-structural facilities constitute of primary, secondary and technical schools, vocational and adult educational facilities while rural utilities consist of a wide range of welfare facilities such as water supply, electricity etc. The components of institutional infrastructures, continues, include cooperative societies, farmers' unions , community development programmes/projects through self help efforts, financial institutions like banks, post offices, agricultural research facilities made up of research sub stations, experimental farms, demonstration plants, agricultural extension and training services, marketing crop and animal protection services; post and telecommunication facilities. Agba(2011).

Agba (2011) is equally emphatic that the improvement of the status of rural residents is greatly influenced by the type, quality and quantity of infrastructures placed there and with regular maintenance. For example, sources of drinking water, condition of personal hygiene, nature of environmental sanitation, nutritional status, literacy levels and the overall socio-economic condition of the community must be the focus of attention and

therefore sustained for a viable rural development. Water supply and sanitation require a participatory approach that aims at strengthening collaboration among the three key stakeholders, namely; governments (national government, local governments and municipalities), private sector (national and transnational business, formal and informal enterprises), and CSOs (communities, NGOs, research centres and professional associations). PPPs are seen in this context as effective means to establish cooperation between public and private actors and to bundle their financial resources, know-how and expertise to meet the challenges facing service provision. While this approach promises several benefits, experience shows that involving private actors in the provision of basic services needs to be carefully planned and monitored if the benefits of such a model are to be fully realized and the numerous potential drawbacks avoided.

Governments all over the world are constantly saddled with the responsibility of providing the basic amenities like education, health care facilities, portable water supply, rural electrification, construction and maintenance of roads, waste management and disposal, among others, to make life more comfortable for its citizens. The ability of Governments to meet these diverse needs of their citizens has continued to wane. This is against the backdrop of the fact that public expectations from the government have continued to rise. Amujiri (2011) noted that the high cost of providing some of these services are usually beyond the capacity of the Government in most cases. Public infrastructure would require massive injection of capital, and with slow rate of return. This means an absence of profit motivation which will naturally become a disincentive for the private sector to invest.

Even the corporations, agencies and firms established by the government to provide statutory essential services for the people have failed to deliver on their mandate. Non-delivery of basic services to the people could be tantamount to denial of human rights. It is on record that many publicly- owned corporations in Nigeria have not performed creditably when compared to the privately -owned companies. For example, Nigeria Telecommunications Company Ltd (NITEL), Power Holding Company of Nigeria (PHCN) and some Government Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) have failed in providing adequate services to the people due to high level of corruption, mismanagement and bad leadership (Nwankwo, 2008). Public-Private Partnership (PPP) as

a concept has now dominated discussion of national concern and effective management of public-private partnership to fast-track infrastructural development in our society has become imperative if the democratic dispensation will succeed in placing Nigeria among the 20th economies of the world as envisioned (Oyedele,2012)

Public-Private Partnership in the perspective of Americans is contractual relationships between the public and private sectors that bring together the strength of both parties to provide services or infrastructure in a cost effective manner (Sharpe,1999). Many countries now recognize that the public and private sectors can work together in new and innovative ways to provide public services. Nigeria has attempted to create the legal/institutional framework for PPPs in the country. In 2005, the Infrastructure Concession Regulatory Act (2005) was signed into law, and the Infrastructure Concession Regulatory Commission (ICRC) was set up in 2008. These signal the seriousness with which infrastructural development through PPP initiatives is viewed in Nigeria.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Nigerian government cannot be said to be effective in the discharge of its responsibility when majority of the population who reside in rural areas are still suffering from poverty, diseases, and hunger as a result of lack of food, inadequate health care facilities, poor standard of education, poor environmental conditions and unemployment (Effiom, 2001). Without doubt, Nigeria's infrastructure gap is very wide because of the irresponsibility of past and present leaders in the provision of infrastructures (Oyeweso,2011; Oyedele, 2012). But, Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons (2001) note that services are crucial for the survival of a country's economy and people. For instance, effective service delivery provided by Government such as public education, health care, access roads, good drinking water, security of lives and property are fundamental to any nation's economic survival, sustainability and prosperity of its citizens. The above realities dictate that alternative models in infrastructure provision at the rural level should be identified and used to strengthen and improve infrastructural facilities.

The concept of PPP is not new in Nigeria, As early as 1956 PPP arrangement was used to develop the oil industry in Oloibiri in Bayelsa State (Oyedele 2012). The development of Dolphin Estate in the eighties was through PPP by the Lagos State government and HFP Construction Limited. Also, the Lekki Expressway concession that was signed in 2006 between Lagos State Government and Lekki Concession Company is already being mentioned as very successful. Equally successful PPP efforts are in the various housing estate development projects and the Bus Rapid Transport (BRT) initiative (Oni, 2010). There are other forms of PPP being practiced in many other States of the Federation, but these are largely undocumented. Indeed and to the best of the knowledge of the researcher, there are very limited research reports that focused on the use of PPP arrangement to provide facilities in the core areas of rural needs such as water and sanitation, transportation, education, and healthcare in Anambra State. Without properly documented evidence of PPP achievements, models and constraints in providing rural infrastructure, it will be difficult to appreciate their role and contribution towards rural development .These has necessitated this study

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study was to evaluate the contribution of Public Private Partnership in providing infrastructural projects in the rural areas of Anambra State, Nigeria, from 2005 to 2013.

The study specifically sought to:

1. identify the dominant PPP models in the State
2. assess the level PPP involvement in infrastructure provision and contribution of residents in addressing needs in healthcare, educational facilities, transportation and roads infrastructure;
3. determine the effect of PPP on the income and standard of living of rural dwellers;
4. Identify challenges constraining provision of infrastructure through PPP.

1.4 Research Questions:

The researcher was guided in the investigation by the following research questions which constitute the basic research problem of the study:

1. How are the infrastructural needs of rural residents related to PPP involvement in infrastructure provision?
2. How is PPP involvement related to financial and other contributions by rural residents?
3. How is PPP involvement in infrastructure provision related to socio-economic wellbeing of rural dwellers?
4. How do bureaucracy and other related challenges constrain the provision of infrastructure through PPP?

1.5 Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis I:

H_O: Infrastructure needs are not significantly related to level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

H_I: Infrastructure needs are significantly related to level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision

Hypothesis II:

H_O: Financial and other contributions by rural residents are not significantly related to level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

H_I: Financial and other contributions by rural residents are significantly related to level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

Hypothesis Three:

H₀: Socio-economic wellbeing of rural residents is not significantly related to level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

H₁: Socio-economic wellbeing of rural residents is significantly related to level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

Hypothesis Four:

H₀: Bureaucracy and related challenges do not have significant effect on level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

H₁: Bureaucracy and related challenges have significant effect on level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

1.6 Significance of the Study

Clearly, a study of this nature is significant in a number of ways. Firstly, the research is timely and in accordance with national priority. The Government's commitment to improving the state of infrastructure in Nigeria at the federal, state and local government level is commendable. The study is a welcome addition to the growing body of literature in the area of PPP as a complementary, and in some cases alternative means of rural infrastructure provision in Nigeria.

The study generated issues that would help provide a sufficiently articulated and appropriately elaborated theoretical platform for PPP use in provision of infrastructure in Nigeria. Indeed, the findings and recommendation of this study would also add to the existing literature on PPP and development studies. Such literature would be of benefit to other researchers and scholars interested in similar studies.

1.7 Scope of the Study

The study focuses on the contributions of PPP to provision of infrastructure in rural Anambra State. The period of 2005 to 2013 is the time frame which was covered in the study. This time frame was chosen because it falls within the purview of the democratic dispensation of governance, and 2005 is actually the year that the Infrastructure Concession Regulatory Commission (ICRC) Act was promulgated to embolden government's efforts in the PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The researcher encountered difficulty in obtaining all the needed secondary information which the respondents often regarded as classified information. Some of them felt that a release of certain financial report and policy documents would constitute a threat to their official position. These constraints notwithstanding, the researcher ensured a careful representative sample and statistical analysis that their effect were reduced to the barest minimum and, therefore, had no effect on the outcome of the research findings

1.9 Definition of Terms

Public Private Partnership (PPP) ___ It is a cooperative arrangement between the Public and the Private sector to harness the expertise and efficiencies that the private sector can bring to the delivery of certain facilities and services traditionally procured and delivered by the public sector.

Private Finance Initiative (PFI) ___it is a government scheme to encourage private investment in public projects scheme under which private sector finance is used to supplement public sector investment in public services.

Private Sector Participation (PSP) _____ It is a situation that occurs when a private company or investor engage in a project along with a public sector or other entity. This participation allows major risks to be spread among several different parties to ensure one group does not have full financial responsibility.

Infrastructure Concession Regulatory Commission (ICRC) _____ It is the National Governing body for Public Private Partnership (PPP) process. To regulate, monitor and supervise the contracts on infrastructure or development projects.

Public Sector Comparator (PSC) _____ It is a tool used by governments in determining the proper service provider for a public sector project. An assessment of the likely cost of public sector project delivery.

Critical Success Factors (CSF) _____ It is a management term for an element that is necessary for an organization or project to achieve its mission. The essential areas of activity that must be performed well to achieve the mission, objective or goals of a business or project.

Value for Money (VFM) _____ It is used in reference to something that is well worth the money spent on it.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of literature has been selected based on the thematic areas of this study; the specific areas that the research questions are intended to test and its relevance to the work in general. Therefore the reviewed literature focuses on:

- The Concept of Public Private Partnership
- Models of Public-Private Partnerships
- Trends in Public-Private Partnerships
- Challenges Impeding Effective Public Private Partnerships
- Rural Infrastructure and Socio-economic Wellbeing
- Empirical Literature
- Gap in the Literature
- Theoretical Framework

2.1 The Conceptual Review

The concept of Public-Private-Partnership originates from USA, initially relating to joint public and private sector funding for educational programme, and then in the 1950s, it referred to similar funding for utilities, but has come into wider use since the 1960s as it is referred to as public-private joint ventures for urban renewal. The American definition of PPP according to Harris (2007) "is contractual relationship between the public and private sectors that bring together the strength of both parties to provide services or infrastructure in a cost effective manner". The private sector brings in innovation, technology and its resources, while the public sectors provide sufficient control and monitoring of these contracts. In Britain, it started in 1992 as private finance initiative(PFI)to achieve 'value for money' (Wikipedia, 2011).It is also referred to as publicly-funded provision of social services by non-public sector bodies, often from the voluntary (not-for-profit) sector, as well as public funding of private sector research and development in the fields such as technology (Buse and Watt, 2002).

It is a spectrum of possible relationships between government, business, civil society organizations, including non-governmental organizations and local communities, for the co-operative provision of basic services (World Bank, 2004). Charles (2009) writes that

forms of public-private partnerships (PPP) in developing countries are many, ranging from the construction of physical infrastructure, to public administration, to the provision of health and social services.

It is instructive to note that there is currently no clear definition of what constitutes Public-Private Partnership. The literature offers several possibilities. Public-Private Partnership is conceptually, collaboration between public and private sector organizations in public service delivery (Commonwealth, 2003; Nkya, 2000).

In its widest sense, a public-private partnership (PPP) may be defined as “a long term relationship between public and private sectors that has the purpose of producing public services and infrastructure” (Vining, Boardman and Poschman, 2005). Public/private partnerships bring public and private sectors together in long term contracts. PPPs (public-private partnership) encompass voluntary agreements and understandings, service-level agreements, outsourcing and private finance initiative. PPP projects usually involve the delivery of a traditional public sector service and can encompass a wide range of options. A general idea of that concept is to mobilize, to use private sector capital to generate economic development, and to deliver value for money to the public sector, and the higher costs of private sector financing and the level of returns demanded by the private sector investors must be outweighed by lower whole-life costs and increased risk transfer. One of the main goals is to develop infrastructure projects including roads, hospitals and schools, without the response to the limited capital of the public sector and utilizing superior cash and project management capacity of the private sector. (McKee, Edward and Atun, 2006).

PPP describes a government service or private business venture which is funded and operated through a partnership of government and one or more private sector companies. In some types of PPP, the cost of using the service is borne exclusively by the users of the service and not by the tax payer. In other types, capital investment is made by the private sector on the strength of a contract with government to provide agreed services and the cost of providing the service is borne wholly or in part by the government. Government contributions to a PPP may also be in kind (Abiola and Adebayo, 2011).

According to Rom (1999), the term ‘Public-Private Partnership’ (PPP) was initially used to describe entrepreneurial activities that engaged both public and private sectors typically to fund the redevelopment of public infrastructure, for example, the public financing initiatives. However, the term is now used to embrace those many examples of partnerships between governments at all levels, and the private sector, to operate social welfare functions such as pensions, education, transportation, criminal justice and environmental protection. This shift represents an extension of the partnership concept from state-market models to include state-community arrangements.

The Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development in Namibia, has defined the Namibian Governments definition of PPP as follows:

Public-Private Partnership describes a range of possible relationships between public and private actors for the cooperative provision of municipal services. It therefore offers alternatives to full privatization by combining the social responsibility environmental awareness and public accountability of the public sector, with the finance technology, managerial efficiency and entrepreneurial spirit of the private sector (MRLGH, 2004)

The concept of partnership between governments and a broad range of non- state actors offers a complementary approach to traditional public service delivery methods and also provides an alternative to full privatization of public service delivery. PPP combines the power, authority, social responsibility, accountability of the public sector, with the finance, technology, managerial efficiency and entrepreneurial abilities of the private sector and the informed voice, energy, drive and oversight responsibilities of Civil Society Organization, including the service users. Webster, (2002).

Canadian Council for Public Private Partnership (2008) defines PPP as a “Cooperative venture between the public and private sectors built on the expertise of each partner that best meet clearly defined public needs through the appropriate allocation of resources, risks and reward”. The definition points that PPP are arrangement, but in the arrangements,

the parties (the public sector agencies and the private sector participants) have their obligations clearly defined.

World Bank (2004) defined PPP as the combination of a public need with private capability and resources to create a market opportunity through which the public need is met and a profit is made. The UNDP Public –Private Partnership for local Service Delivery (PPPSD) Programme uses the term “Public-Private Partnership” to describe a spectrum of possible relationships between local government, business, civil society organizations, including non-governmental organizations and local communities, for the co-operative provision of basic services. There is not a single model for PPP because one size does not fit all. The “right” alliance is the one that best meets the needs of the partners based on the local context, the service delivery challenges, and the one that contributes in a sustainable way to poverty reduction efforts and attainment of MDG targets. (NEEDS, 2005)

International Monetary Fund (2006) conceives public-private partners as the arrangements where the private sector supplies infrastructure assets, the services that traditionally have been provided by the government. In addition to private execution and financing of public investment, PPPs have two other important characteristics: there is an emphasis on service provision, as well as investment, by the private sector; and significant risk is transferred from the government to the private sector. PPPs are involved in a wide range of social and economic infrastructure projects, but they are mainly used to build and operate hospitals, schools, prisons, roads, bridges and tunnels, light rail networks, air traffic control systems, and water and sanitation plants.

Public-Private Partnership is an agreement between the government and one or more private partners (which may include the operators and the financiers) according to which the private partners deliver the service in such a manner that the service delivery objectives of the government are aligned with the profit objectives of the private partners and where the effectiveness of the alignment depends on a sufficient transfer of risk to the private partners (OECD, 2008).

The objectives of PPP is to contribute to the economic integration, accelerate economic growth and sustainable development, engender and sustain Private Sector Participation

(PSP) in traditionally public sector projects, and expand local access to international markets. In order to achieve a sustainable PPP for ensuring the most effective, productive, compassionate, result-oriented and efficient use of resources, it is imperative that the partners should adopt a single framework of action that provides the basis for co-ordinating the work of all partners; put in place and maximally utilize a single national or community coordinating body with a mandate from various sectors or stakeholders, and agree on a single national monitoring and evaluation mechanism to ascertain and maintain accepted standards (Abiola and Adebayo, 2011). PPP aims to engage the strengths of both sectors, private (more competitive and, in some instances, more efficient) and public (responsibility and accountability). PPP is based on cooperation, not competition, to spread risks rather than reduce input costs through the competition mechanism. Rather than cede public activity to private organizations, PPP works to blur boundaries between state, markets and community (Hodge, 2002).

PPP is an arrangement between a public (government) entity and private (non-government) entity by which, services traditionally delivered by the public entity are now provided largely by private entity under a set of terms and conditions well defined at the outset. Hence, under the PPP approach, output based indicators are much more important –level of cleanliness in the city, ward, for instance, PPP therefore, implies sharing of management control, and imposes local, as opposed to distant accountability. So far, PPP's main charm seems to be in leveraging private money as a supplement to public funding. It should be realized that service quality and output are much better in PPP, since private sector rewards and incentives result in efficiency. Projects get executed faster, and are maintained better, given a good contractual relationship (Pathak, 2007).

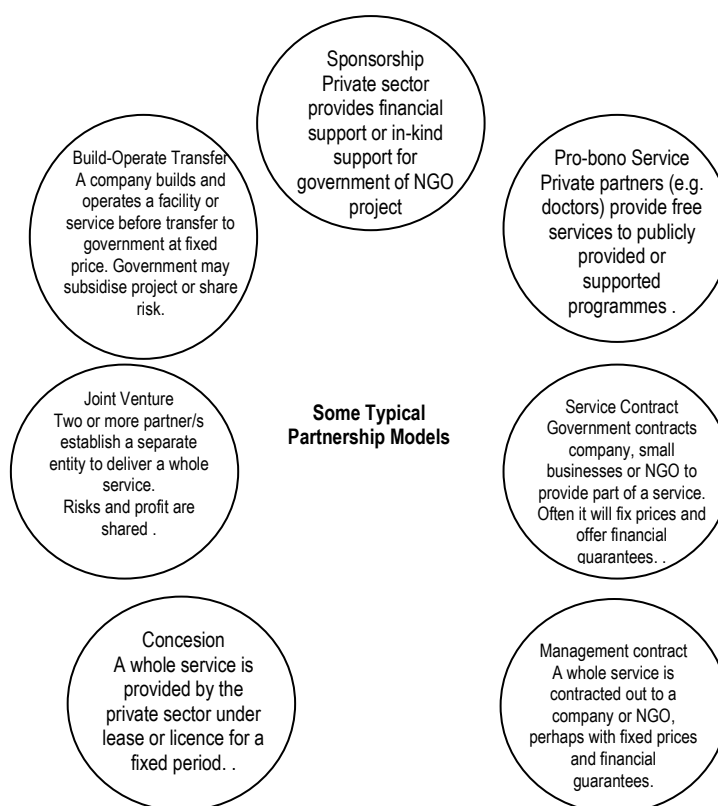
Public-private collaboration models present a greater diversity. Sub-contracting and outsourcing are two common types. In these cases, Government retains responsibility for a service that is totally or partially operated by the private sector. However, public-private partnerships are emerging as the models of collaboration that trigger the most debate. They are distinct in that they focus on a sharing of resources, risks, and benefits across sectors. And while the service is public, as a general rule (usually), the funds are private. In certain models of collaboration, reciprocal support might even include the creation of a corporation, as in the case of mixed ownership corporations or regulated private companies (Lise, 2000). In both cases, government hands over part of its management responsibilities

while retaining enough control to ensure the protection of the public interest. This control is ensured by maintaining a controlling interest or through laws and regulations governing the activities of the corporation.

2.2 Models of Public-Private Partnerships

Graham (2005) observed that Public-Private Partnerships are seen as a means of filling the widening gap between pressures for improved public services in those countries and the capacity of governments and international development budgets to meet the cost. They also represent a response to perceptions of poor performance by state –owned enterprises, as well as concerns about the quality of government service delivery and the way it is administered ('government failure'). This includes concerns about inefficiency, mismanagement and corruption – that is, about the need for better governance. There are numerous variations on the theme of Public-Private Partnerships. Some common types are shown in Fig.1:

Figure 1: Typical forms of Partnership Models



Source: Lawson, (2002) Private sector perspective on Public-Private Partnership.

Urban Matrix (2010) identifies two major PPPs: Service Delivery PPP and Regeneration PPP. These are discussed below:

(i) Service Delivery PPPs: – These are partnerships that deliver guaranteed services to certain customers. The type of service will determine whether the service delivery PPP can be free-standing, partly free-standing or public. A service delivery PPP is said to be free standing when people pay directly to use their services. A service delivery PPP is said to be partly free-standing when people pay only part of what the real costs are as in the case with public transport and other public services/goods providing ventures. Examples would include waste management and water schemes where the people are made to pay at a subsidized rate. Service delivery PPPs are said to be public PPPs when they provide services that are run by private companies financed by everyone without paying. Examples are schools and hospitals that are funded by public money and operated by private entities on behalf of the public.

(ii) Regeneration PPPs: - These differ from the service delivery PPPs in the way a return on the investment is achieved. They are typically used in housing market and area development. Important issues to consider in these PPPs are careful planning; clarity about public sector objectives and the respective roles/contributions of public/private partners. Also formal contractual arrangements, prior market analysis and stakeholders consultation are needed before embarking on regeneration PPP. Such PPPs have no direct financial benefit for the public party. For instance, by refurbishing properties in a municipality, value added is created in the wider area and this is rewarding to the municipality in the long term (Urban Matrix, 2010). In more operational terms, Mbanasor and Nwachukwu (2011) classified different models of PPPs according to the contractual arrangement between the partners as:

- (ii) Build-and-Transfer (BT)** – in this arrangement, the government provides the financing and construction of the infrastructure and transfers it to the private sector for operation and management.
- (iii) Build-Lease-and-Transfer (BLT)** – in this arrangement, the private party finances and constructs the infrastructure and then hands it over to the government agency for management on a lease basis.

- (iv) **Build-Own-Operate (BOO)** – in this arrangement; the private party is authorized to finance, construct, own and operate an infrastructure project, and is allowed to recover both the acquisition and operating expenses by charging levies over a specified period of time.
- (v) **Build-Operate-and-Transfer (BOT)** – in this arrangement, the government provides the financing and construction of the project, operates and maintains the project over a fixed period of time and charges levies for the use. At the end of the period; it transfers the project to the private sector.
- (vi) **Built-Transfer-and-Operate (BTO)** –in this arrangement, the government agency arranges for the private party to build the infrastructure project on a turn-key basis, so that upon completion the private party is given the right to operate the facility and collect levies there from.
- (vii) **Contract-Add-and-Operate (CAO)** – this is an arrangement in which the private party expands an existing infrastructure facility which it has leased from a government agency. The private party operates the expanded facility and collects user levies there from.
- (viii) **Rehabilitate-Operate-and-Transfer (ROT)**- in this arrangement, the private party takes over an existing facility, refurbishes it, then operates and maintains it for a specified period during which he charges user levies.
- (ix) **Rehabilitate-Own-and-Operate (ROO)**- in this arrangement, the existing facility is taken over by a private party, then refurbishes, operates and maintains the facility with no time limitation and charges user levies on the facility.
- (x) **(ix) Concession Agreement (CA)** - in this arrangement, the private party acquires the operation and management of an infrastructure project for a specified consideration. The government agency collects the user levies.
- (xi) **Management Contract (MC)** – in this arrangement, the government agency hands over the operation and management of infrastructure facility for an agreed period on the payment of a consideration.
- (xii) **Service Contract (SC)** – in this arrangement, the private party undertakes to provide specified services to a government agency for a specified period in terms of an infrastructure facility.

Oluoch and Wainainai (2010) and Karisa and Dantas (2006) write that there are various PPP financing approaches to infrastructure provision applied by different countries. The precise definition of each depends on the combination of various contractual functions expected to be performed by the respective partners on the infrastructure project. These individual functions include designing, building, financing, operating, maintaining, owning, transferring, leasing, developing and buying the infrastructure. The matrix of the functions performed, the degree of risk borne by either partner and/or the length of period necessary for project implementation define the type of PPP structure or model put in place. Table 1 describes these various approaches.

Table 1: Defining Characteristics of the Various PPP Models

PPP Type	Explanation	Life contract
Service contract	Public sector entrusts private companies with providing some services provided traditionally by government such as maintenance of equipment and/or cleaning services and payment for these services are according to contract	1-3 years
Management contract	Public sector entrusts private companies with operating infrastructure or providing management services according to contract.	3-5 years
Design-build-transfer-DBT	Private sector designs and builds infrastructure and bears the risks of extension and any additional costs-the standards and the price are set in advance-assets are finally transferred to the public sector	Variable
Design-build-major maintenance	Public sector is responsible for the management of the infrastructure designed and built by the private companies who are also responsible for major maintenance	Variable
Operation and maintenance-OM	Public sector signs agreement with the private sector that will be responsible for operation and maintenance of infrastructure according to contract. Payment is through fees from government	5-8 years
Design build operate- DBO	Private companies design build and operate infrastructure projects although ownership remains with the government	Variable
Lease-upgrade-operate transfer –LUOT	Infrastructure is leased and operated for a certain period by a private company over which it can be upgraded and extended before transfer to the public sector at the end of the contract	8-15 years
Purchase, upgrade, operate transfer-PUOT	Private companies operate the infrastructure which will be upgraded/extended and possess ownership during the contract which is transferred to the public sector at the contract's end	8-15 years
Build lease operate, transfer- BLOT	A long run lease is signed between the public and private sectors. Infrastructure is built by private companies on public land and operated until the private capital is recovered through fees from users. At the end, ownership is transferred to the public sector	25-30 years
Build, own, operate, transfer	Private companies invest, build and operate and own infrastructure until capital is recovered through fees under a concession from the government	25-30 years
Design, build, transfer, operate	Infrastructure is invested in and built by the private sector and transferred to the government at a pre-agreed price. It is then leased and operated by the private sector who through this arrangement avoid ownership risks	25-30 years
Design build finance, operate	Private sector invests and establishes the asset. Public sector provides core services to the asset and private sector provides related services e.g. a hospital	25-30 years
Purchase upgrade operate	Private sector purchases, operates and upgrades assets with view to permanent ownership and the end of the contract under government supervision.	Permanent
Build own operate	Private sector invests, builds and permanently owns asset under terms that secure public interest under government supervision	Permanent

Source: Oluoch and Wainainai (2010)

2.3 Global Trends in Public-Private Partnerships

In spite of the theoretic grounding of the use of PPPs in infrastructure financing, there is widespread documentation of the varied experiences of countries across the globe. In Europe, most PPP models are derivatives of the French concession model and the British Public Finance Initiative (PFI) model. Karisa and Dantas (2006) indicate that PPPs were instrumental to the development of high-performance roads in France originating from the use of concessions and tolls for financing motorway construction by public companies from the mid 1950s. They document several major issues arising from France's experience with concession as a form of PPP. These include the relative advantages and disadvantages of motorway financing through cross subsidies; relative advantages and disadvantages of toll financing of highways; efficiency of private concessions for highways; dilemma of regulating toll rates of concessionaires; importance of guarding against potential conflicts of interest when construction companies participate in concessions and relative ability of public and private sector companies to take environmental considerations into account.

Besides France, key economic sectors in the UK have benefited from the PFI in infrastructure development especially the health, transport and the energy sectors. For instance, the London underground railway network began operating as a public private partnership in 2003 (Wolmer, 2004). In this context, the issues arising in PPP finance include determination, appropriate sharing of revenues, risks and other issues relating to value for money derived from PFI infrastructure projects. Evidence from South America seems to suggest that most countries follow the French concession model of PPPs in infrastructure financing (Karisa and Dantas, 2006). This category includes Chile, Brazil, Colombia and Argentina. The major issues arising from the experience in these South American nations relate mainly to the challenges of structuring PPP contracts and facilitating a legal environment for their implementation. Political issues are also of great interest. Karisa and Dantas (2006) note that Brazil in this respect grappled with the challenges of using cross-subsidies to fund unprofitable toll roads, as well as with issues concerning the use of relatively low toll rates to foster public acceptance. To solve these challenges, some countries have resorted to legal measures. Chile, for instance, enacted a law allowing for the award of concessions for the construction, maintenance, and operation

of toll roads, tunnels, and related infrastructure under Build, Operate and Transfer (BOT) schemes, which intended to attract enough funds over the 1997 to 2000 period. Besides, there has been collaboration between these nations and multinational lending institutions, including the World Bank.

In the Oceania region, English (2007) notes that the development and implementation of PPPs in Australia in the pre-2000 period was largely steered by non-PPP specific infrastructure procurement policies, that resulted in the Build, Own and Operate (BOO) and Build, Own, Operate and Transfer (BOOT) models of PPPs. These models involved private consortia in building, operation, ownership and transfer of infrastructure projects to the public sector with varying conditions. She shows that in the post 2000 period, control modifications were done resulting in two main PPP models. In the first model, the core public services are delivered by government agencies whereas infrastructure and associated ancillary services are delivered by the private partner. The government directly pays the consortium for service provision. In the second model, there is transfer of demand, market or revenue risk to a private consortium and the financial risk to the project users. For control purposes, these PPPs are limited to a maximum life of 35 years.

In Asia, China and India, among other countries, have also had experience with PPPs in financing infrastructure projects. According to Government of India (2008), both transport and water supply infrastructure heavily benefited from the PPP infrastructure financing initiatives. In China, Hao (2004) classifies Chinese PPPs into three distinct types of outsourcing, concession and divestiture. Each portrays variations in application, design and purpose. Adams, Young, and Zhihong (2006) note that one of the greatest challenges in China's PPP set-up is the country's legal system that is not clear about ownership of private property. They argue that this has impacted policy risk where there is a big gap between the policies of central government and implementation by the local governments where local governments could vary PPP policies to align with local circumstances contrary to the aims of the national policy.

In Africa, PPPs have been implemented on a lower scale than in the developed countries. Sheppard, Klaudy and Kuma (1997) show that Sub-Saharan Africa receives only a small

share of private funds targeted for foreign PPP investment in infrastructure. They suggest that this could be a consequence of the difficulties in accessing project finance mostly because of the low creditworthiness of most African countries, the limits of local financial markets, and the adverse risk profiles typical of infrastructure projects. They further indicate that the ability of the region to attract more private foreign currency funding for infrastructure depends in part on the ability to reduce foreign exchange risks. Alexander (2008) indicates that the World Bank (WB) Group through its private sector arm, the International Finance Corporation (IFC) supports PPPs in Africa through the Sustainable Infrastructure Action Plan (SIAP).

Russell and Bvuma (2001) indicate that PPPs in all sectors, including infrastructure financing were introduced in South Africa in the year 2000. This was after implementation of reforms geared towards new public management including the enactment of the Public Finance Management Act of 1999 to guide PPPs contracting, implementation and evaluation (PPP Unit, 2003). According to their model, value for money is only achieved if all appropriate risks are transferred to the private sector. The lessons the PPP experiences offer in the country are that there is need for regulatory framework that is effective, affordable and which offers value for money. The PPP Unit (2003) also suggests that procedural certainty coupled with technical assistance and political goodwill can boost infrastructure projects. Ultimately, development of capital markets would enhance accessibility to private debt finance for facilitating PPPs.

Oni (2010) reported on the application of PPP approach to address socio economic needs of the people in the area of provision of infrastructure in water and sanitation, transport, telecommunication, healthcare and housing in Nigeria and other countries:

Water and Sanitation

Public Private Partnerships have existed in the international water sector for a number of years. For example, private sector concessions for the development and operation of water supply and treatment plants have been common place in France for at least forty years, leading to the growth of the large and diversified French private sector utility companies.

The construction of water supply or waste water networks under PPP arrangements is likely to be linked to the level of information available on the extent, composition and performance of existing networks (European Commission, 2003).

According to the UNDP's *Human Development Report*, in 2000, the population's access to safe water in SSA (Sub Sahara Africa) was only 44%, while the average for countries in East Asia and the Pacific (EAP) stood at 67% and in Latin America and the Caribbean was reported to be 65%. Furthermore, it is amply clear that the challenge of providing basic water and sanitation persists as not much improvement has been made since the early 1990s. Even where water supply systems and sanitation facilities have been installed, they are still often inadequate, unsafe and in disrepair. In 2002, at the world summit on sustainable development in Johannesburg, the most significant achievement was that all government agreed to a target to halve the proportion of people without access to adequate sanitation by 2015. Prior to this meeting, sanitation had never been an issue of its own on the development agenda. According to UNICEF, Nigeria requires more than 120 million dollars (14 billion naira) to provide 62 million citizens access to basic sanitation and hygiene by 2015. (United Nation Development Programme, 2000)

According to the UN agency, Nigeria needs to build more than eight million toilets before 2015 to achieve sustainable sanitation and hygiene. In essence, Nigeria requires at least one million toilets annually across the 774 local government areas. Three million dollars is required for hygiene intervention through the practice of hand washing with soap and water. Statistics given by UNICEF show that out of the country's population of 140 million, only 53% of urban and 36% of rural dwellers have access to safe sanitation (Asabia, 2009). With these statistics in mind, one has a clearer picture of some of the sanitary challenges facing Nigeria and the West Africa region. It is evident that lack of resources is a major contributing factor to the continued existence of poor sanitary and hygiene practices. Research shows that Government resources are targeted more towards the water sector. Sanitation has been labeled as the poor cousin who is often neglected during resource allocation. The study identifies initiatives using the public-private partnership model as a vehicle to provide the much needed finance in this sector.

Water supply and sanitation require a participatory approach that aims at strengthening collaboration among the three key stakeholders, namely; governments (national government, local governments and municipalities), private sector (national and transnational business, formal and informal enterprises), and CSOs (communities, NGOs, research centres and professional associations). PPPs are seen in this context as effective means to establish cooperation between public and private actors and to bundle their financial resources, know-how and expertise to meet the challenges facing service provision. While this approach promises several benefits, experience shows that involving private actors in the provision of basic services needs to be carefully planned and monitored if the benefits of such a model are to be fully realized and the numerous potential drawbacks avoided.

More recently, the use of PPPs has been stimulated in sectors where there has been a significant increase in the burden of traditional public sector responsibilities and this is particularly true with regard to the disposal of urban waste. Increasingly, for economic and environmental reasons, public authorities are reducing their reliance on landfill which has been the traditional means of disposing of waste. New methods of waste disposal such as waste to energy schemes and recycling plants require substantial investment and specialized technical know-how.

In promoting successful partnership among all stakeholders for the provision of water and sanitation services, in recent years, most governments in Africa, Nigeria in particular, have undertaken policy reforms that emphasize the need to create an enabling environment in which key roles and responsibilities are clearly defined and allocated among all actors in a stable and predictable regulatory regime.

In the water and sewerage sector, the relative scarcity of projects stems from both host government reticence and a lack of investor interest. Fears of a political backlash against private ownership and the relatively greater role played by sub-national governments have dampened enthusiasm for PPPs.

Transportation

The state of transportation in Nigeria can be classified into five major modes: - Roads, Rail, Water, air and Pipelines. The contribution of the transport sector to the economy of Nigeria if considered by the GDP tends to stagnate or decline at about 3% of GDP. Indeed, the sector's real contribution to GDP continued to decline from 6% in 1981 to 3.12% in 1991 and 3.10% in 1998. In particular, road declines from 5.17% in 1981 to 2.90% in 1995 and to 2.86% in 1996 and 2.84% in 1997 (Oni, 2010). From the above therefore, there is need to provide and manage transport to help in maintaining the continuous survival of the Nigeria society. Recognizing the complexities in the provision and maintenance of transport, there is further need to evolve effective, reliable and functional management objectives and policies that could yield public-private partnership framework in Nigeria's urban transport system. The transport sector represents only 16 percent of total investment but 27 percent of projects. One half of this investment has gone into toll roads, with the rest in railways, seaports and airports. Unlike in telecommunications and energy, concessions are by far the most important form of PPP in this sector, (for instance, Bus Rapid Transport (BRT) in Lagos State through LAMATA and private partners), owing partly to the political sensitivity of transferring public assets to the private sector (Oni, 2010).

Some of the most important issues that will influence the selection of a preferred form of PPP for projects in the transport sector are the size and scope of the project, the ability to apply user tolls and the extent of risk transfer required.

Telecommunication

In telecommunications, technological innovations – in particular the advent of cellular networks – have allowed for new entrants thus dramatically transforming the competitive structure in national markets. In Nigeria, telecommunication industry has been privatized. Overall, divestitures of government assets have in the past been slightly more important, and much of the recent decline in investment can be explained by the completion of privatization programmes. Investment in expansion within this sector has held up better.

Health Care

Within health services today, social and physician entrepreneurs are already engaged in laboratory services, medical transport services, walk-in clinic services, long-term residential facilities and personal and occupational therapeutic services. Physician entrepreneurs also deliver surgical services and other elective medical services. Private Service providers are well suited to deliver most chronic care therapeutic services as partners with government hospitals as Consultants. By building these partnerships, the health system is able to better manage cost. Positioning health care services with appropriate client-centered, privately delivered service and support helps to alleviate excessive demand on the publicly operated critical care system. As with all such projects, when PPP are used in the health sector, there are serious concerns about cost and the risks inherent in partnering. Experience from the United Kingdom suggests that the PPP model may have serious effects on the operation of hospitals and the quality of care provided.

In Nigeria and other developing countries, sustainable access to healthcare and other socio-economic services and products can be accomplished through public-private partnerships, where the government delivers the minimum standard of services, products and or care, the private sector brings skills and core competencies, while donors and business bring funding and other resources. Such collaborations will be especially productive in promoting poverty alleviation through micro-finance, enhancing health through partnership as has been the case with polio eradication and other child immunization efforts.

Several commentators, including the authors, hold a strong view that public and private sectors are complementary, and that effective public-private partnership is only possible through mutually designed, analyzed and accepted instruments of cooperation and collaboration. We believe that such instruments are effective in all sectors of human endeavour including health, profit and not-for-profit, education, housing, micro-finance and community-based development projects. For Nigeria in particular, achieving the PPP paradigm in health care delivery would mean deliberate and sincere effort to understand the nature of prevailing efforts in this regard within the country, identify their key

challenges and opportunities, and seek to know how they can contribute to stronger national and family-level health, economic and social systems.

Housing

Public-private partnership (PPP) is the most prominent urban housing policy that has emerged in the last decade in Nigeria. Housing reforms in Nigeria, under the flagship of PPP has taken the city into a different league after decades of ineffective housing policy. Public-private partnership (PPP) is the most prominent urban housing policy that has emerged in the last decade in Lagos. The Lagos State of Nigeria has been in the forefront of housing, market revival with its own PPP model, regarded nationally as highly successful. Oni (2010) reported that the Dolphin Estate was constructed in the eighties through a PPP of the Lagos State government and HFP Construction Limited. Oni (2010) also reported that Lekki Expressway concession that was signed in 2006 between Lagos State Government and Lekki Concession Company was also an example of PPP success story.

With the accent on enabling policies for housing development, PPP has been widely advocated for housing and infrastructure development in Nigeria as part of recent housing reforms. It advocated increased participation by the private sector and emphasized government's role in creating conditions to boost housing supply by eliminating legal and regulatory constraints and supporting appropriate infrastructure investments. This entailed a notable shift in the private sector in constructing, financing, operating and maintaining housing units.

Housing production under the PPP model to date is impressive in terms of costs and quality, but minuscule in terms of numbers. It is still early to comment on the likely long-term success of such partnerships. However, given the huge housing stock deficiency, high proportion of low-income groups in the city and slow pace of regulatory reforms, it is argued that future success is contingent upon the inclusion of low-income communities, which comprise half of the population of Nigeria. (Oni, 2010).

Education

Recent years have seen an expansion and broadening of the private sectors role in the financing and provision of education services in many countries. A key trend has been the emergence of more sophisticated forms of non-state involvement in education through public private partnerships. Ojose (2009) stated that the development of human resources is the key to sustainable development as the real development of any economy hinged on manpower development through quality education and this cannot be left to the government alone. Through PPPs education infrastructure such as laboratory equipment, lecture rooms, furniture ,toilets, ICT rooms , scholarships, sports equipment ,school buses and hostels are possible .The return of some of the public schools back to the missions is a way of re-establishing the partnership that once existed, which is most rewarding because position change is manifesting in many of those returned schools. Okafor (2009) said that a close collaboration between the public and private sector is particularly crucial for the revitalization of our public school system through which thousands of indigent children are able to obtain education. A World Bank publication (2011) advocates for working in strategic partnerships to help developing countries strengthen education systems beyond inputs and to build a global knowledge base for reform .It collaborates with a host of development partners to advance the global commitment to achieving the goal of the Education for All Initiative and the education for Millennium Development.

2.4 Bureaucratic Red-tape and other Challenges Impeding Effective Public Private Partnerships

A bureaucracy is a body of non-elective government officials and/or an administrative policy-making group (Wikipedia, 2014). A bureaucracy is a way of administratively organizing large numbers of people who need to work together. Organizations in the public and private sector, including universities and governments, rely on bureaucracies to function. The term bureaucracy literally means “rule by desks or offices,” a definition that highlights the often impersonal character of bureaucracies. Even though bureaucracies sometimes seem inefficient or wasteful, setting up a bureaucracy helps ensure that

thousands of people work together in compatible ways by defining everyone's roles within a hierarchy.

Red tape, on the other hand, is an idiom that refers to excessive regulation or rigid conformity to formal rules that is considered redundant or bureaucratic and hinders or prevents action or decision-making. It is usually applied to governments, corporations, and other large organizations. It could be described as the collection or sequence of forms and procedures required to gain bureaucratic approval for something, especially when oppressively complex and time-consuming. Another definition is the bureaucratic practice of hair splitting or foot dragging, blamed by its practitioners on the system that forces them to follow prescribed procedures to the letter. Indeed, red tape generally includes filling out paperwork, obtaining licenses, having multiple people or committees approve a decision and various low-level rules that make conducting one's affairs slower, more difficult, or both. Red tape can also include filing and certification requirements, reporting, investigation, inspection and enforcement practices, and procedures.

In spite of bureaucratic challenges that face PPP, there are still arrays of other issues that are equally exigent. For example, Graham (2005) argues that there are still considerable doubts in some quarters about the extent to which Public-Private Partnerships can and should be used as a normal part of delivering local services. Some of the major concerns raised include:

- Whether appropriate legal, policy and regulatory frameworks are in place to govern Public-Private Partnerships;
- Whether governments (especially local governments) have the necessary skills and resources to negotiate Public-Private Partnerships agreements with large, often multi-national companies; and
- That operating costs to government will actually increase because any efficiency gains will be more than offset by the resources required to negotiate and regulate partnerships, higher interest rates paid by the private sector and profit margins.

It does not seem clear, however, that for local governments, the task of negotiating a major Public-Private Partnership with a large company can pose a serious challenge with a high risk that a less than satisfactory outcome will be achieved. For example, a large and well-resourced local government in Sydney, Australia, recently suffered losses of more than A\$20 million from a failed property development Public-Private Partnership (Munawwar, 2009). Allegations of corruption have not been proven, but an independent inquiry found that the Council was incapable of dealing with a Public-Private Partnership of the scale involved due to deficiencies in organizational capacity and decision-making processes.

The inquiry recommended changes to local government legislation to bring about increased ministerial control over proposed Public-Private Partnerships with a total project cost of over A\$30 million, and new regulations to provide for, among other things:

- Clearly establishing the need for the Public-Private Partnership and whether it is in the public interest; and
- Undertaking preliminary risk analysis

Osioma (2012) posits that the Nigerian Public-Private Partnerships journey so far has not been without challenges. Some of the challenges are not peculiar to Nigeria alone. For example, there is a school of thought that is opposed to the idea of the private sector providing for what is a primary duty of the government. Those who hold this opinion are known for their opposition of the privatization of government corporations. They are suspect of any move by government to engage the private sector. The belief is that the government would always favour cronies and enrich the companies owned by government officials secretly to the detriment of the common man. The champions of the anti-public-private partnership school of thought are also of the view that PPPs will introduce higher cost of using government facilities. Osioma further observed that even if the view of introducing higher cost may be possible, it is worthy to state that many publicly owned corporations in Nigeria have not performed creditably when compared to the privately owned companies.

Public-Private Partnerships may fail if not well managed. The process of partnership may be problematic as it is usually the case for all collaborative efforts. According to NASCIO (2006), “problematic public-private partnerships usually result from non-technical challenges that arise in a working relationship. Lack of executive and project leadership, insurmountable communication issues, or deficiencies can create barriers to collaboration. Unfortunately, the technology often is a “scapegoat” within an unsuccessful partnership”.

The German Embassy New Delhi (2010) evaluates public-private partnerships using the following criteria:

- i. Compatibility with specifications;
- ii. Common goals; and
- iii. Subsidiary principles.

Governments normally set out development policy principles and so such partnerships must be clearly relevant to development, and environmentally and socially compatible. Also the contributions of partners must be complementary so that both sides can achieve their respective goals, that is, development benefits and commercial success. By the same token, the private partners must make contributions to the project in terms of financing and human resources and /or materials. The scope of PPP projects must go beyond the limits of normal commercial activity. The following are the building blocks for a successful partnership:

- i. A commitment from executive leadership;
- ii. A statutory foundation for partnership;
- iii. Direct public sector involvement;
- iv. A well-crafted plan;
- v. Effective communication with stakeholders;
- vi. The right opportunity;
- vii. The right partner; and

- viii. Well-defined management processes (NASCIO, 2006 and Mbanasor and Nwachukwu, 2011).

In order to be successful, a communication strategy relies on the following factors:

- i. Timely sharing of information;
- ii. Accurate and consistent messages conveyed to key audience; and
- iii. Realistic messages from trusted sources that set realistic expectations.

Conversely, Mbanasor and Nwachukwu (2011) further identifies the challenges of PPPs as including Corruption; Conflict of interest; Absence of political will; Fiscal constraints; Complex Intellectual Property Rights (IPR) issues; and Lack of trust. In addition to these challenges are also attendant risks which Mbanasor and Nwachukwu (2011) identify as:

i. Loss of Control by Government

Public private partnerships, by their nature, involve a sharing of risks, benefits and decision making between the partners. Significant investments and risks by the private partner often provide for greater involvement of the private partner in decisions concerning how services are delivered and priced. This often leads to concerns about who controls the delivery of services. In the final analysis, government has the authority and responsibility to establish servicing standards and to ensure that the public interest is protected.

Although worldwide, there are many successful PPP projects, there are also examples of costly failures which have negatively affected development. The key to implementing a successful PPP lies in carefully and thoroughly researching the PPP project to ensure that the appropriate type of PPP has been selected, that the financial, political, social and economic conditions are in place to support the PPP, the risks have been reduced to a minimum and a risk management strategy is in place.

ii. Increased Costs

It is not all that governments consider the true costs of providing services when establishing their pricing policies on fees for services (McKinlay, 2005). For example, the costs of overhead or administration and depreciation of assets are often not included in the pricing of individual services. In some cases, there are explicit subsidies for specific services. The delivery of services through public private partnerships requires pricing policies and fees to reflect all relevant costs. This can have the effect of increasing user fees for specific services.

iii. Political Risks

The combination of inexperience by governments and stakeholder unfamiliarity with public private partnerships may result in higher political risks. Governments may wish to reduce potential risks by initially entering into fewer, less complex, and better understood public private partnership contracts. (Hari, 2003).

Thus, to maximize the gains of PPPs, the above mentioned factors must be carefully balanced. The challenges must be minimized, while the building blocks must be well strengthened and reinforced. Nigeria has attempted to create the legal/institutional framework for PPPs in the country. In 2005, the Infrastructure Concession Regulatory Act (2005) was signed into law, and the Infrastructure Concession Regulatory Commission (ICRC) was set up in 2008. These signal the seriousness with which infrastructural development through PPP initiatives is viewed in Nigeria.

2.5 Rural Infrastructure and Socio-economic Well-being of Rural Dwellers.

The World Bank (2013) refers to rural infrastructure as a set of investments that include rural roads, water supply and sanitation, energy and telecommunications, and agricultural processing. Traditionally, agriculture-related processes were not considered part of rural infrastructure. However, linking these processes with traditional rural infrastructure investments enables programs to respond to the multi-sector demands of communities.

The provision of rural infrastructure can be an important agent in the reduction of poverty and exclusion, in the strengthening of social capital, and in providing conditions for improving the provision of services. However, some key issues must be considered when designing Social Fund interventions. Due to the multi-sectoral nature of SFs, some sector-specificities and good practices may be ignored. Rural infrastructure is a technical field and needs a focused attention. The arrangements to build, operate, and maintain a rural road, for example, are different from those needed in rural water works, or in isolated electric grids. Social Funds should avoid relying on public services delivery with insufficient consideration of sustainability or incentives for private sector growth (World Bank, 2013).

Lakshman (2005) defines infrastructure as an integral part of economic development that provides the basic services which makes life meaningful for the populace. Physical infrastructure enhances the effective performance of socio-economic services, improves competitiveness, provides a vital support to productive sectors and assists in high productivity.

Agba (2011) reckons that infrastructure facilities consist of three major categories or classes. These categories of infrastructures are physical, social and institutional. The physical infrastructures are composed of transformation facilities consisting of roads, bridges and railways, storage facilities made up of warehouse and silos; irrigation and water resources development facilities composed of dams, irrigation, water facilities, drainage etc. soil conservation facilities and other forms of processing facilities.

The social infrastructures are also divided into different segment, which include health and medical facilities. These consist of hospitals, dispensaries, and maternity and health centers. Educational components of infra-structural facilities constitute of primary, secondary and technical schools, vocational and adult educational facilities while rural utilities consist of a wide range of welfare facilities such as water supply, electricity etc. The components of institutional infrastructures, Agba (2011) continues, include cooperative societies, farmers' unions , community development programmes/projects through self help efforts, financial institutions like banks, post offices, agricultural research

facilities made up of research sub stations, experimental farms, demonstration plants, agricultural extension and training services, marketing crop and animal protection services; post and telecommunication facilities.

Agba (2011) is equally emphatic that the improvement of the status of rural residents is greatly influenced by the type, quality and quantity of infrastructures placed there and with regular maintenance. For example, sources of drinking water, condition of personal hygiene, nature of environmental sanitation, nutritional status, literacy levels and the overall socio-economic condition of the community must be the focus of attention and, therefore, sustained for a viable rural development.

Ekong (2003) looks at rural infrastructure as those underlying basic physical, social and institutional terms of capital which enhance rural dwellers' production, distribution and consumption activities and ultimately the quality of their life. Often, these include structures which cannot be privately provided and so call for large capital outlay on the part of the government. The facilities fall into three categories: Rural physical infrastructures; Rural social infrastructure and Rural institutional infrastructure. Rural Physical Infrastructure: this has to do with provision of rural roads, which cause accelerated delivery of farm input, reduce transportation costs and enhance spatial agricultural production efficiency. Storage facilities; which help to preserve foods in the farms that consumers need them and to the time they need them. Hence, On-farm storage also helps to stabilize inter- seasonal Supplies. Irrigation facilities, which assure farm water supply and stabilize food production by protecting the farm production system against uncontrollable and undesirable fluctuation in domestic food production. Other includes: Building of schools and equipments, Health centers, Postal services, housing and recreational facilities. Rural Social Infrastructure: which includes; Clean water, decent housing, environmental sanitation, personal hygiene and adequate nutrition which help to improve the quality of life? Also, formal and informal education which promote rural productivity by making the farmer to able to decide agronomic and other information so as to carry out other desirable modern production practices; basic education also promotes feeding quality, dignity, self respect,- sense of belonging as well as political integration of the rural people. Rural Institutional Infrastructure: this has to do with the formation of

Farmers unions and cooperatives which facilitates economies of scale and profitability of rural people, Agricultural extension which improves technological status of the farm business respectively (Galadima, 2014)

According to FAO (2005), rural infrastructure plays a crucial role in poverty reduction, economic growth and empowerment for the rural poor. Family efforts to escape poverty and lift themselves above subsistence levels are limited by the present poor access to market, supplies and vital information: investments in rural infrastructure, particularly rural roads, storage, processing and marketing facilities will, therefore, be required to support the anticipated growth in agricultural production. Since rural infrastructure is one of the several sub-sets of activities that are essential elements for rural transformation, the existence of poor quality or inadequate infrastructure will inevitably have a negative impact on agriculture. The provision of adequate and cost effective infrastructure will clearly, therefore, underpin the development of agriculture in general and in particular facilitate lower cost of production. Moreover, the provision of basic rural infrastructures is also a prerequisite for enabling African countries to stimulate economic growth and to reach the targets for economic recovery and poverty alleviation through increasing and diversifying agricultural output. Projects Coordinating Unit- National Fadama Development Office (PCU-NFDO) (2005) likens the role played by infrastructure to secondary and tertiary arteries of the body system and stressed that they are crucial as the main arteries for blood circulation. Some of the difficulties arising as a result of inadequate infrastructure, according to them, include non-availability of hand pumps, tube wells, collection centers for products, lack of storage facilities, and inadequate processing facilities, poor linkage with the market and bad roads. These problems affect the level of productivity and inhibit full utilization of potentials of farm households thereby leading to low agricultural productivity, low level of income and poor standard of living. Infrastructure is known to impact welfare on three basic respects. It has basic consumption value and as such affects utility derivable from existing and budgeted income. Its availability affects productivity and capacity to earn income, which is of concern in rural agriculture. It also affects households and national stock real wealth in the entire economy. It has multiple effects on health and quality of life. Most often, individuals are poor

because they do not have access to infrastructure services of necessary quality. Infrastructure's ability to reduce the cost of marketing agricultural products is obvious and well known (Ahmed and Rustagi, 2000).

Thus the reasons why many rural development policies and strategies have failed to achieve their stated objective are largely due to the non- recognition and non -provision as well as non -maintenance of the necessary or appropriate infrastructural facilities that need to be put in place overtime and space. Without the appropriate provision, operation and maintenance of basic infrastructures therefore, no rural development policy or strategy can stand the test of time. Rural infrastructures are, therefore, the fundamental ingredients capable of preventing or at least reducing the phenomenal rural urban drift, which is always accompanied with swelling socio economic and political problems.

If the private sector is sensitized to partner with the government to provide part of the rural infrastructure, a huge amount of burden may have been lifted off the shoulder of the government thereby enabling to concentrate on more fundamental governance roles.

2.6 Empirical Review

A plethora of literature on PPP usage across the globe exists. Allen Consulting Group (2007), for instance, investigated cost performance and timeliness outcomes of PPPs in Australia relative to budgetary provisions for the management and construction of public infrastructure projects. The study covered largely completed projects that were undertaken from the year 2000 to 2007. Drawing from a population of 206 projects, 50 of which were PPP financed, the study is based on detailed analysis of publicly available data for a sample of 21 PPP projects and 33 traditional projects. On the cost aspect, they used value weighted analysis to test and estimate the optimism bias which is the possibility of underestimating costs and overestimating benefits from a PPP financed project. Findings of the study indicated that PPPs were more cost efficient than traditional procurement methods. This efficiency ranges from 30.8 percent when measured from the time of project inception, to 11.4 percent when measured from the time of contractual commitment to the final outcome.

The study indicated that in absolute terms, the PPP cost advantage was economically and statistically significant. Additionally, with respect to time over-runs, on a value-weighted basis, they find that traditional projects were likely to be completed later than PPPs relative to the budget. Between the signing of the final contract and project completion, PPPs were found to be completed 3.4 percent ahead of time on average, while traditional projects were completed 23.5 percent behind time. In their conclusion, they noted that PPPs provide superior performance in both the cost and time dimensions, and that the PPP advantage increased (in absolute terms) with the size and complexity of projects.

McKee,Edward,and Atun(2006) investigated the success of PPPs relative to the traditional method of procurement of hospital infrastructure projects in Australia, USA, UK, Canada and the European Union. They carried out the study of the two decades leading up to December 2006 by exploring four main issues related to PPPs: cost, quality, flexibility and complexity of the resultant infrastructural project. They used the British Public Finance Initiative (PFI) model and its variants DBFO, BOO, BOOT and franchising on one hand and public procurement on the other. They combined case study research method with cross-sectional analysis to investigate various types of hospital infrastructure projects in the countries identified above. The methodology involved identifying relevant cases, evaluating cost, flexibility, quality and complexity at individual levels and comparing with public facilities in the same country.

Eventually, cross section analysis was done by comparing similar facilities with those in other countries. After their comparison of PFI with the conventional mainly public finance procurement their results revealed varying results. In the UK for instance, 76% of PFI projects were delivered on time, while only 30% of the conventionally procured projects met this target. Furthermore, PFI approach was better at meeting budget provisions (79%) compared to the conventionally procured projects (27%). In the USA, out of 149 projects, 88 public facilities were found to be less costly than budgeted; there was no cost difference among 43, while 18 cases reported better cost performance for PPPs. In general, for all the countries investigated, the findings indicated that PFI was a significant success with regard to delivery on time and on budget of hospital infrastructure, although this was achieved at the expense of quality such that the gains of efficiency and time could be watered down from the detriment of poor quality. Further, their results imply that new facilities were in

general, more expensive under PPP than they would have been if procured using traditional methods. They concluded that PFI seemed to work well on budget discipline and timely delivery aspects assuming that neither budgets nor time were inflated at the contracting time. Such inflation, they observed, was less likely in competitive PPP implementation. In addition, PPP contracting procedures are found to be very complex because of regulatory policies. This gives the private sector an incentive to keep construction times low because they would otherwise lose part of their income stream. These findings imply that the advantages and shortcomings of PPP in infrastructure financing are finely balanced and that only careful analysis is likely to reveal if PPP approach is advantageous in particular circumstances.

Consistent with the findings above were the results of HM Treasury (2003) who carried out a study among all PPP projects in Britain in the year 2003. The objective was to determine the ex post performance of PPPs in the country since the inception of the program in 1992. At the time of the study, there were 451 PPP projects that had become operational. Accordingly, a study was carried to evaluate the performance of these projects vis-à-vis the rationale for the involvement of the private sector in infrastructure financing. The evaluation was made for timeliness of completion, cost efficiency and quality of PPP projects as proxied by operational performance. The main findings of this research are that PFI projects in UK are being delivered on time and on budget as indicated by 88 per cent of the projects met these time and budget constraints. Although comprehensive, the study falls short on time comparisons by using the budgets as the benchmark instead of a more elaborate tool like Public Sector Comparator (PSC) that takes into consideration time value of money. This is critical given that PPPs are implemented over lengthy periods.

Low, Hills, and Rennison (2005) investigate relative costs and benefits of PPPs in comparison with the traditional procurement methods in Scotland. The study covered all infrastructure PPP projects implemented up to 2005 in that country. The approach involved sending questionnaires to the public authority and private sector contractor responsible for each operational PPP as well as interviewing public and private sector PPP contract managers. 84 percent of the projects used PSC in project evaluation and indicated the PPP returned a saving versus the PSC. However, from the procurement and construction standpoint, the PPP procurement process is shown to be expensive and particularly

burdensome for small projects. Here, the mean time taken to procure the PPP projects surveyed of 28 months was deemed to be slower than non- PPP procurement. Besides this, the study finds that authorities were satisfied with design quality and innovation levels inspired by PPPs in the construction of infrastructure. In addition, they promoted appropriate sharing of risks between the public and private sectors. On the flipside, they find no evidence on the improvement of the standard of service delivery by PPPs against the public sector. Further, the PPP contracts were found to be less flexible than non- PPP contracts. In general, majority of authorities considered PPPs to represent good or excellent VFM (value for money).

Vining, Boardman, and Poschman (2005) evaluate the cost savings of PPP projects in Canada and the USA. They collected evidence on cost aspects of PPPs from six major prison infrastructure projects in these two countries operational at the year 2005. They used qualitative analysis combined with descriptive statistics on the contracting costs of the target PPP projects. They then provided a summary analysis of these PPP financed prisons. Their results confirmed that PPP contracting costs are usually high. They conclude that these high contracting costs reflect the presence of complexity/uncertainty and lack of contract management skills by governments. According to them, efficiency and effectiveness of PPP projects would only be realized if public sector managers recognize that they must design contracts that both compensate private sector partners for risk and then ensure that they actually bear that risk.

Numerous studies have been conducted to ascertain the factors that impact the effectiveness of PPPs in financing public infrastructure projects. These factors can summarily be referred to as critical success factors (CSFs) or value for money drivers. Pitt, Collins, and Walls (2006) investigated the principal factors which drive value for money within the PFI framework in the UK. They first conducted literature review to identify these factors before they assess them against the existing Public finance initiative (PFI) projects in UK as at the year 2006. This was done through report analysis and interviews with PFI stakeholders. Their results revealed that the positive aspects of PFI incorporate the advantages of competition generated by the concept, as well as improved risk management. They, however, pointed out that lack of agreed formulae by all stakeholders

by which to benchmark VFM coupled with a cynical general public regarding the ability PFI concept to provide VFM provide the biggest challenge to their implementation. Their study identified the factors that affect a PFIs value for money which they refer to as the drivers of VFM

Hardcastle, Edwards, and Akintoye (2005) undertook a survey to assess the relative importance eighteen critical success factors (CSFs) among PPPs that were involved in service provision in the UK's construction industry. Their Data analysis involved descriptive procedure; reliability tests using Cronbach's alpha; one way analysis of variance and factor analysis. The eighteen CSFs evaluated included a strong private consortium in the PPP arrangement; appropriate risk allocation and risk sharing; a competitive PPP procurement process; the commitment/responsibility of public-private sectors; a thorough and realistic cost-benefit analysis; the project technical feasibility; the transparency of the procurement process and good governance practice. Others included a favourable legal framework; available financial market; political support; government involvement by providing guarantees; well organized public agency; sound economic policy; social support; technical transfer and shared authority between the public and the private sectors. The findings reveal that effective procurement processes; project implement ability; government guarantee; favourable economic conditions and the available financial market are the main factors that influence effectiveness of PPPs in financing infrastructure projects.

Hannami, Ruhashyankiko, and Yehoue (2006) used panel data analysis on PPPs in infrastructure projects in various countries for the period 1990 to 2003 to empirically investigate cross-country and cross-industry determinants of public-private partnership (PPP) arrangements and their prevalence thereof. Their PPP database incorporates projects in low- and middle-income countries mostly in Latin America, the Caribbean, East Asia, the Pacific, Eastern Europe, Central Asia, South Asia, sub-Saharan Africa, the Middle East and North Africa. They determined the prevalence through counting their occurrence; considering the monetary values of these PPP occurrences and considering the extent of private participation. To analyze their data, they carried out three different regression analyses. Where the dependent variable was the number of PPP projects, they used Poisson

or negative binomial regressions with zero-inflated Poisson (ZIP) specifications where appropriate (zero counts of PPPs in a year). Where the dependent variable is the non-negative dollar value of investments in PPP projects, they used Tobit regression model.

Finally, where the dependent variable is the extent of private participation in PPP arrangements, they judiciously used both ordered Probit and Logit regression models taking care to possible biases in the PPP index ranking given the ordinal nature of the data. They found that PPPs were more common in countries where governments suffered from heavy debt burdens and where aggregate demand and market size were large. Their findings suggested that macroeconomic stability is essential for successful implementation of PPPs. They also provided evidence on the importance of institutional quality, where less corruption and effective rule of law were associated with more PPP projects. PPPs were also more prevalent in countries with previous PPP experience over a long period of time. At the industry level, they found that the determinants PPPs vary across industries depending on the nature of public infrastructure, capital intensity, and technology required. They also found that private participation in PPPs depended on the expected service marketability and the technology required.

Athias and Nunez (2007) empirically assessed the effects of the bidding competitiveness (which they call the winner's curse) on the auctions for road concession contracts. They used their study to address three questions. First, they investigated the overall effects of the winner's curse on bidding behaviour in such auctions. Second, they examined the effects of the winner's curse on contract auctions with differing levels of common-value components. Lastly they interrogated how the winner's curse affects bidding behaviour in such auctions after accounting for the possibility of contract renegotiation by the bidders. They cross sectional investigate a dataset of 37 road concessions worldwide by comparing similar projects across countries. Their findings showed that the winner's curse effect was strong among less competitive toll road concession contract auctions. Bidders would bid less aggressively in toll road concession auctions when they expect more competition and weaker when the likelihood of contract renegotiation is higher. This showed that bidders were more likely to employ strategic bidding in weaker institutional frameworks, where renegotiations are easier.

Pollock, Allyson, and Vickers (2002) evaluate the accuracy and challenges of appraisal of value for money (VFM) focusing on evaluation of the discounting rate that is critical in time translation of project cash flows for comparison with PSC. They used the country's National Health System (NHS) data from 1991 to 2002. This corresponded to the time when the NHS was transferred to the PPP system of financing from the traditional public finance. They compared cash costs and net present costs of individual PFI hospital schemes and their risk valuations. Their data, derived from publications in the British House of Commons Health Select Committee Public Expenditure Memorandum of 2000 and 2001 and from full business cases for individual hospitals that benefited from the PPP system finance. Their methodology showed the impact of discounting on cash flows before and after risk transfer. Their results showed that the costs of raising the finance account for 39% of the total project costs under the PPP yet publicly financed capital did not incur these costs. On the other hand, the PPP approach seemed to be only better than PSC after risk transfer was included in the net present value of PFI. This indicated the crucial significance of incorporating risk transfer when appraising the suitability of the PPP, yet the evaluation of risk is quite problematic. For instance, the results indicated that the private sector's risk as a proportion of the total capital costs under PFI varies enormously between projects from 17.4% to 50.4%. This presented a difficulty in consistency of the project appraisal process. In addition, the results showed that the value of risk transferred to the private sector is remarkably close to the amount needed to close the gap between the public sector comparator and the PFI. This calls to serious doubt the usefulness of PPPs in this sector.

Leung and Hui (2005) examined the most appropriate method of appraisal of value for money from point of view of social costs and benefits to local residents where a PPP financed urban redevelopment project is implemented. They carried out a case study on the redevelopment of PPP financed London's Docklands in Britain. Docklands was redeveloped using PPP finances for commercial and residential purposes. The case study covered the period from 1974 when the redevelopment efforts commenced to 1998 when the redevelopment was completed. Their study demonstrated that the use of a multi criteria approach (MCA) encompassing CBA (cost benefit analysis) and option pricing concepts

was a more appropriate approach to realizing the social benefits and costs yielded to the local residents in the appraisal process.

Adams, Young, and Zhihong (2006) examined the PPP system in China to identify the constraints facing its implementation and progress in the context of several models of bureaucracy in the country. Their study used qualitative analysis based on Chinese PPP secondary data available for a twenty year period commencing when the PPP arrangements came to practice in China up to 2006. This involved intensive study of the individual projects by studying reports, news items, manager responses and the details of project implementation, ex ante budget and ex post cost and performance records. In the Chinese PPP context, they indicated that the main PPP models were concessions, divestiture and outsourcing. The qualitative desk-top research reveals the following as the major stumbling blocks to the effectiveness of PPPs in China. First, the allocation of risk between the public and private partners. The other challenges were identified as corruption, continued weak supervision, poor accessibility to investment capital and authorities and the central government which exacerbates this fluidity and policy contradictions.

The study by Iboh, Adindu, and Oyoh (2013) examined the PPP construction dispute in Nigeria. The research design was by descriptive survey. Research instruments included both structured telephone and online interview methods conducted to measure the opinion of stakeholders in the Nigeria PPP market on the causes and effects of dispute in PPP operations. The findings of the study revealed a low adoption of PPP contracting route and a lack of synergy on the different ways the private sector participates in infrastructural development in Nigeria, thus, indicative of vulnerability to disputes especially in long term project partnership. The study concluded that the current mode of operation of PPP in Nigeria involves a multiplicity of financial arrangements between the private sector and the public sector with attendant risks of disputes. The study recommended an increased adoption of PPP contracting route, and a modification of a number of Nigeria PPP practices in line with global best practices.

2.7 Gap-in-the Literature

The above literature review looked as much as possible into various studies done by many scholars in the area of PPP focusing on its taxonomy and/or models, benefits and challenges. Furthermore, there were examinations of the use of PPP in execution and management of projects in different parts of the world, including Nigeria. Clearly the review showed that nearly all the studies were conducted in European, American, Asian and African environments other than Nigerian. Mention of PPP activities in Nigeria were mostly a discussion of the models of PPP. Though there was at least one example of a PPP involvement service provision in Anambra State (in the transport sub-sector), no known study has articulated the role of PPP in the provision of infrastructure in the rural Anambra State. The present study is intended to address this obvious gap in knowledge.

2.8 Theoretical Framework

This present work is anchored on the systems theory. Systems theory comes from the general systems theory (GST). GST is particularly an approach in philosophy of science, aiming at understanding and investigating the world as sets of systems. Systems approach is the name of a methodology or procedure in which problems are solved from a holistic perspective, not as bundles of small isolated problems, which one then tries to combine. The GST version of the systems theory was developed by Ludwig von Bertalanffy (1901-1972). He wrote:

"... this shows the existence of a general systems theory which deals with formal characteristics of systems, concrete facts appearing as their special applications by defining variables and parameters. In still other terms, such examples show a formal uniformity of nature." Bertalanffy (1962).

The systems view investigates the components of the phenomena, the interaction between the components, and the relation of components to their larger environment. The underlying assumption of Bertalanffy's theory is that there are universal principles of organization across different field. The objectives of GST aim to point out similarities in

the theoretical constructions of different disciplines, and to develop something like a spectrum of theories -- a system of systems that may perform a gestalt in theoretical constructions. Systems theory opposes the reduction of systems. It criticizes that the mechanistic view neglects the relationship of the components with the larger systems. It emphasizes the totality, complexity, and dynamics of the system. However, it also argues that, despite the complexity and diversity of the world, models, principles and laws can be generalized across various systems, their components, and the relationships between them. In other words, corresponding abstractions and conceptual models can be applied to different phenomena.

Systems theory was furthered by Ross Ashby's concept of Cybernetics (2011). Cybernetics means steersman in Greek. Wiener introduced this idea as the science of communication and control in the animal and the machine. The idea was first described to illustrate the transmission of information through communication channels and the concept of feedback. It evolved to emphasize the constructive power of the observer, who controls/constructs models of the systems with which the observer interacts.

Characteristics/Tenets of the Systems Theory

The major purpose of systems theory is to develop unifying principles by the integration of various sciences, natural and social. With focus on the structures and functions of the system, the system can be viewed from different perspectives:

- Open system: a system keeps evolving and its properties keep emerging through its interaction with environment
- Holistic view: systems theory focuses on the arrangement of and relations between the parts that connect them into a whole.
- The mutual interaction of the parts of the system makes the whole bigger than the parts themselves.
- Goal-directedness: systems are goal oriented and engage in feedback with the environment in order to meet the goals.

- Every part of the system is interdependent with each other working together toward the goals.
- Self-organizing: productive dynamic systems are self-organizing. It implies the adaptive ability of the systems to the changes in the environment. Using a metaphor of social interaction, Pask (1975, 1984) described the self-organizing process as "a conversation between two or more participants, whose purpose is to arrive at "an agreement over an understanding."
- Inputs (policies, programs, implementation of agreements, etc.) are processed by the organization to produce hopefully desired outputs (Hicks and Gullet, 1981)

Assumptions about Systems View

Reigeluth, Bathany, and Olson (1993) described the following assumption in terms of design:

- "A systems view suggests that essential quality of a part resides in its relationship to the whole."
- "The system and its parts should be designed from the perspective of the whole system and in view of its embeddedness in its environment."
- "The systems design notion requires both coordination and integration. We need to design all parts operating at a specific system level of the organization interactively and simultaneously. This requires coordination. The requirement of designing for the interdependency across all system levels invites integration."

2.9 The Relevance of the Theory to the Study

The relevance of the systems theory to this study is that it enjoins us to see the rural area sub-system with the broader Nigeria system. It also offers enough provisions in explaining the various forces surrounding the organizational factors that must relate in other to attain country's goals of developing the rural sector. It creates an understanding of the intricacies of the variables that affect policies and programmes of the government that are focused at rural service delivery.

Certainly, to survive, the system must receive inputs which must be processed. In this instance, this will come in the form of will power on the part of the government to come up with policies and programmes that when implemented will lead to improvement of infrastructural facilities in the rural areas. Thus, PPP approach as a policy and a programme will bring about the needed input in the form of private investment in the critical areas of need in the rural area such as road, healthcare, housing, water and others. Certainly a well planned and articulated PPP arrangement will guard against abuse while at the same time ensuring adequate provision of rural infrastructure.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter explains the methods and procedures employed in the research study. This comprises of Research Design, Population of Study, Sample and Sample Size Determination, Method of Sampling /Technique, Methods of Data Collection, Validity and Reliability of Research Instrument, Methods of Data Analysis/Technique and Tools for data analysis

3.1 Research Design

According to Kerlinger (1979), research design is an overall scheme of research indicating what a research will do from the research questions, through the hypothesis and the operational paradigm of the variables.

The research design for this study comprises of the descriptive and survey research methods. This is because we infer that descriptive and survey research method will best appraise Public Private Partnership and provision of infrastructure in Anambra State, without loss of facts. Descriptive and survey research methods will enable comparison of the opinions of the respondents on influence of public private partnership on provision of infrastructure in Anambra State within the period under review.

3.2 Study Area

The area of the study is Anambra State. Anambra State was initially created in 1976 from the then East Central State by the regime of General Murtala Mohammed with capital at Enugu. A further State creation exercise by the then regime of General Ibrahim Babangida on 27th August 1991 divided Anambra into two States, Anambra and Enugu. The capital of present day Anambra State is Awka.

Anambra is a State in south-eastern Nigeria. Its theme is "Light of the Nation" Its boundaries are formed by Delta State to the west, Imo State to the south, Enugu State to the east and Kogi State to the north. The origin of the name is derived from the Omambala River -which is easily called Anambra River depending on which dialect used in pronouncing it. Omambala River is on the northern part of Anambra State and stretches to the famous River Niger.

The indigenous ethnic group in Anambra State is the Igbo. Anambra is rich in natural gas, crude oil, bauxite, ceramics and almost 100 percent arable soil. Most of its natural resources remain largely untapped. The State has twenty one Local Government Areas, namely, Aguata, Awka North, Awka South, Anambra East, Anambra West, Anaocha, Ayamelum, Dunukofia, Ekwusigo, Idemili North, Idemili South, Ihiala, Njikoka, Nnewi North, Nnewi South, Ogbaru, Onitsha North, Onitsha South, Orumba North, Orumba South, and Oyi .

Fig 2: Map of Anambra State



Source: Anambra State Ministry of Local Government (2013)

3.3 Population of the Study

The population of this study consists of all adult residents in the three geographical zone of Anambra State. The populations of adult in the three zones are; Anambra north zone, (1,132,276). Anambra South zone, (1,576,759). Anambra Central zone, (1,468,793).

(Anambra State Bureau of Statistics 2014). Thus the three geographical zones in Anambra State had adult population of 4,177,828 people. Therefore, the population of the study is 4,177,828.

3.4 Sample and Sample Size Determination

Given the population of 4,177,828, the sample size was determined using Bowler's formula for sample size determination which is concerned with the application of the normal approximation with a 95% confidence interval and a 5% allowance error. The formula is as follows:

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

Where, n = Sample size

N = Population, of 4177828

e = Error size or the margin of error, 0.05

I = Constant

Substituting Value for the formula as follows:-

$$n = \frac{4177828}{1+4177828 (0.05)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{4177828}{1+4177828 (0.0025)}$$

$$n = \frac{4177828}{1+10444.57}$$

$$n = \frac{4177828}{10445.57}$$

$$n = 399.96$$

$$n = 400 \text{ approximately}$$

Therefore, the Sample Size for the study is 400.

3.5 Sampling Technique

The selection of the sample for the study involved stratified, purposive and random sampling techniques. The selection procedures are multi-staged. The first stage involved

the selection of two local government areas (LGA) from each of the three Geographical zones of the State: Anambra North, Anambra South and Anambra Central. The second stage involves the selection of respondents from the selected local government areas.

Based on the advice of the Community Development Officers at the government headquarters, the following 6 LGAs representing the most rural LGAs from the three geographical zone of the State (Ministry of local Government Community data 2012) was purposively selected: Ayamelum and Ogbaru (Anambra North Zone), Orumba North and Ekwusigo (Anambra South Zone), Awka North and Anaocha (Anambra Central Zone).

The selection of the respondents from the local government areas was through a random sampling process from a list of communities stake-holders(Traditional Rulers, President - Generals, Women Leaders, Youth Leaders, Market Leaders, Age grade Association executives, Representatives of Faith -Based Organizations, Local Government Executive and Legislators), that make up the LGAs. Assistance of Community development officers was sought to ensure that all sectors of the communities were captured. The proportional stratified sampling was adopted in distribution of questionnaires to the respondents. The strata sample was determined by the following stratified sample method

$$n_s = N_p \times n/N$$

Where n_s -sample size allocated to each strata

N_p = Population size of each stratum

N = Total population size

n = Total sample size

$$\text{Anambra North} = \frac{1132276 \times 400}{4177828} = 108 \text{ copies of questionnaire}$$

$$\text{Percentage distribution} = \frac{1132276}{4177828} \times 100 = 27.1\%$$

$$\text{Anambra South} = \frac{1576759 \times 400}{4177828} = 151 \text{ copies of questionnaire}$$

$$\text{Percentage distribution} = \frac{1576759}{4177828} \times 100 = 37.7\%$$

$$\text{Anambra Central} = \frac{1468793 \times 400}{4177828} = 141 \text{ copies of questionnaire}$$

$$\text{Percentage distribution} = \frac{1468793}{4177828} \times 100 = 35.2\%$$

Table 2: Sample Questionnaire Distribution

Stratum/geographical Zone	Human Resource Population	Sample Percentage (%)	Number of copies of Questionnaire per Stratified Group
Anambra North	1132276	27.1	108
Anambra South	1576759	37.7	151
Anambra Central	1468793	35.2	141
	4177828	100.0	400

Source: Anambra State Bureau of Statistics 2014 and Researcher's Computation

3.6 Methods of Data Collection

Data for this study were collected from primary and secondary sources. The primary data was collected using structured questionnaire and unstructured interviews, and to ensure that the questionnaire was fully optimized and the sampling framework was not tampered with, the researcher personally administered and collected back the questionnaire. The secondary data were collected from journals, conference papers, websites (internet), text books and unpublished research works of other researchers in related fields of study.

3.6.1 Questionnaire

The primary data for this study was sourced using questionnaire method. A structured questionnaire of forty two (42) questions was administered on a total number of 400 respondents. These respondents cut across the stratified three groupings. The administration of instrument was limited to these three groupings which reflect the six most rural Local Government Areas of the State selected from each of the State's three geographical zones.

3.6.2 Interview

Oral interviews were conducted in a bid to obtain the views of many residents in the selected LGAs and because it was interactive, relaxed, at the convenience of the interviewees, it really enhanced understanding and interpretation of ideas.

3.6.3 Secondary Data

Secondary data were obtained from textbooks, journals, newspapers, magazines, official Government publications, seminars, conferences and internet-based materials.

3.7 Validity of Research Instrument

To ensure the content validity of the research instrument (questionnaire), the researcher compared the items raised in the questionnaire and the research questions of the study. Through this approach, it ensured that the research instrument covered the variables investigated in the study. The research instrument was also subjected to professional scrutiny of experts at the Faculty of Management Sciences, Nnamdi Azikiwe University Awka for the purpose of boosting its content validity. The suggestions of these experts were seriously considered before the final version of the instrument was produced.

3.8 Reliability of Research Instrument

Reliability test to check the consistency of the measuring instruments over time were conducted using Pearson Correlation Coefficient. The test re-test approach was adopted. The instrument was administered on 30 residents in Awka North LGA. After two weeks interval, the same instrument was administered again on the same respondents. The data from the first and second administrations were correlated and a Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient of 0.86 was obtained, indicating that the instrument was reliable.

3.9 Methods of Data Analysis

Data collected through the methods stated above were presented in tabular forms, descriptive statistic and brief discussion of findings. The research questions of the study which form the basis of study were analyzed through percentage analysis method.

3.10 Tools for Data Analysis

The data generated from the administered and returned 5 point-Likert type scale questionnaire were collated and presented using descriptive statistics such as mean scores and standard deviations. Also tables, frequency distribution, percentages were used to present and discuss data from field investigations.

Hypotheses one, two and three were tested through the use of Pearson Correlation Analysis. The Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficient (r) assesses the strength between infrastructure needs and level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision (hypothesis one); financial and other contributions by residents and level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision (hypothesis two); and socio-economic wellbeing of residents and level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision (hypothesis three).

Hypotheses four sought to measure the effects of bureaucracy and related variables on PPP involvement in infrastructure provision. This was addressed through multiple regression model of the Ordinary least square type. The model is implicitly specified as:

$$Y = f(X_{i1}, X_{i2}, X_{i3}, X_{i4} \dots X_{ik}) \quad (1)$$

Where, Y is an index of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision which is proxied by the grand mean of the responses on items depicting PPP involvement.

The Xs are the independent or explanatory variables, which included mean ratings of the respondents of the various ten indicators of bureaucratic and related challenges that hinder PPP.

Models (1) is further explicitly specified to yield models (2) and (4):

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \beta_3 X_{i3} + \beta_4 X_{i4} + \dots + \beta_k X_{ik} + \varepsilon_i \quad (3)$$

The α and the β s are the parameters to be estimated and the ε_i is the error terms designed to capture the effects of unspecified variables in the model. The R^2 , Adjusted R^2 and the t-tests were performed to test the significance of the aggregate of all and each of the explanatory variables respectively at the alpha levels of 5%. All calculations and tests were done through the application of version 22 of the SPSS.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

This section presents and analyses the data collected during the course of this study. Issues relating to demographic profiles of respondents, public private partnership and infrastructure provision in the rural area were presented. Hypotheses were also tested and conclusions drawn from the results.

4.1 DEMOGRAPHIC DATA OF RESPONDENTS

The demographic features of the respondents are presented according to their age, sex, educational qualification and occupation.

Table 4.I: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

ITEM	No.	%
Age		
Below 25 yrs	48	12.00
25 – 40 yrs	132	33.00
41 – 65 yrs	180	45.00
Above 65 yrs	40	10.00
N	400	100.00%
Sex		
Male	220	55
Female	180	45
N	400	100.00%
Educational Qualification		
FSLC	4	1.00
School Certificate(WASC)	160	40.00
OND/NCE	104	26.00
Degree BSc/BA	120	30.00
Masters MSc/MA	12	3.00
N	400	100.00%

Occupation		
Farmers	200	50.00
Workers	120	30.00
Traders	80	20.00
N	400	100.00%

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Table 4.1 reveals the following demographic details of the respondents:

- i. The age distribution Table shows that 45% of the respondents were aged between 41 and 65 years old; .while 33% of them was between 25 and 40 years. Twelve percent were less than 25 years of age; and only 10 % were aged above 65 years. The implication of this distribution is that most of the respondents were within the peak productive age and were matured enough to express their views.
- ii. The gender distribution Table shows that 55% of the respondents were males, while 45% of them were females. The implication of the representation is that both genders were fairly represented in the sample size. Thus, the data distribution is not chauvinistic but rather comprehensive, and gender balanced.
- iii. The education distribution shows that 1% of the respondents had First School Leaving Certificate; 40% of them had either SSCE or NECO certificates, while 26% of them had either NCE or OND. Furthermore, 30% of the respondents possessed either B.Sc or HND, while 3% of them had Masters Degree. The representation shows that majority of the respondents were educated enough to understand the import of PPP and its role in the provision of infrastructure. Thus, their views or responses can be relied upon for this study.
- iv. The occupational distribution of respondents shows that 50% of the respondents were farmers; 30% were workers and 20% were traders. The implication of the distribution is that majority of the respondents (50%), are farmers who represent a substantial proportion of residents in the rural sector of Anambra State. Therefore, their responses are important in the evaluation of how PPP has affected the provision of infrastructure in the rural areas.

4.2 Analysis of Core Areas of Research.

4.2.1 Dominant PPP Models Used in the State.

The responses of the residents on the dominant PPP models in use in Anambra State are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4. 2: Dominant PPP Models in Anambra State. (n=400).

S/N	Items	Mean	Std Dev.	Decision
1	Build-and-Transfer (BT)	3.5125	.99364	Agree
2	Build-Lease-and-Transfer (BCT)	3.3100	1.10769	Agree
3	Build-Own-Operate (BOO)	3.1100	1.17531	Agree
4	Build-Operate-and-Transfer (BOT)	3.5500	1.27929	Agree
5	Built-Transfer-and-Operate (BTO)	3.4300	1.12172	Agree
6	Rehabilitate-Operate-and-Transfer (ROT)	3.7700	1.32343	Agree
7	Contract-Add-and-Operate (CAO)	2.5975	1.52851	Disagree
8	Rehabilitate-Own-and-Operate (ROO)	3.7875	1.31020	Agree
9	Concession Agreement (CA)	2.6025	1.53309	Disagree
10	Management Contract (MC)	3.4100	1.07694	Agree
11	Service Contract (SC)	2.9625	1.21027	Disagree
	Grand Mean	3.2766	.56983	Agree

Source: Field Survey, 2015.

Decision rule; Agree when mean variable is 3.0 .Disagree when < 3.0

Table 4.2 above shows the means responses and standard deviation scores of the respondents on the dominant PPP models in Anambra State. The respondents agreed to 8 out of the 11 items suggesting different PPP models. Item 8, Rehabilitate-Own-and Operate (ROO) received the highest mean response (m=3.7875) and was closely followed by Rehabilitate-Operate and Transfer (ROT) with 3.7700 and Build-Operate-and-Transfer (BOT) with 3.5500; thus suggesting that the three are the most popular PPP models in Anambra State. Three least popular models were Service Contract (SC) Concession Agreement (CA) and Contract-Add-and-Operate (CAO) which received mean responses of less than 3.0. However, the grand mean of the responses of 3.2766 suggests that there was a more than average endorsement of all the PPP models by the respondents.

4.2.2 Infrastructure Needs

Investigations into the investments needs of the rural areas in Anambra State yielded the data as presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Infrastructure Investment Needs

S/N	Items	Mean	Std Dev.	Decision
A	Health Infrastructure			
1.	Modern health institutions	3.3975	1.07115	Agree
2	Primary health care institutions	2.9375	1.21544	Disagree
3	Referral tertiary health institutions	3.4975	1.05962	Agree
B	Educational Infrastructure			
1	Modern primary and secondary schools	3.5125	.99364	Agree
2	More primary and secondary schools	3.3175	1.10442	Agree
3	Tertiary educational institutions	3.1100	1.17531	Agree
C	Transportation Infrastructure			
1	Upgrade of bridges and roads	3.5575	1.28094	Agree
2	New road and bridge construction	3.4350	1.12425	Agree
3	Cars and buses for road transportation	3.7875	1.31020	Agree
D	Water and Sanitation Infrastructure			
1	Upgrade of existing water supply facilities	2.6025	1.53309	Disagree
2	New water boreholes and shallow wells	3.4025	1.07162	Agree
3	Means of evacuation of solid and human wastes	2.9475	1.21591	Disagree
	Grand Mean	3.2921	.44886	Agree

Source: Field Survey, 2015.

Of the 12 items depicting infrastructural needs, 9 had mean scores that were greater than 3.0. Prominent among the needs were: in the health sector was referral tertiary health institutions ($\bar{x}=3.49$) and modern state of the art health institution ($\bar{x}=3.39$); educational infrastructural needs included modern primary and secondary schools ($\bar{x}=3.51$), more primary and secondary schools ($\bar{x}=3.32$) and tertiary educational institutions ($\bar{x}=3.11$); in transportation infrastructure needs, the respondents affirmed all three including cars and buses for road transportation ($\bar{x}=3.79$); upgrade of bridges and roads ($\bar{x}=3.56$), and new road and bridge construction ($\bar{x}=3.44$); and for water and sanitation infrastructure, the respondents indicated their need for new water boreholes and shallow wells ($\bar{x}=3.40$). Taken together and as the aggregated grand mean of 3.29 indicates, the above responses is a clear indication of infrastructural deficits in most rural communities of Anambra State.

4.2.3 PPP Involvement in Provision of Infrastructure

The involvement of PPP in the provision of infrastructure in the health, education, transportation, and water and sanitation sectors is presented in Table 4.4 .

Table 4.4: Sectoral engagements of PPP

S/N	Items	Mean	Std Dev.	Decision
A	Health Infrastructure			
1.	Maintenance of existing health institutions	3.4975	1.07138	Agree
2	Establishment of primary health care institutions	3.5075	.98863	Agree
3	Establishment of referral tertiary health institutions	3.3050	1.10228	Agree
B	Educational Infrastructure			
1	Maintenance of existing primary and secondary schools	3.1050	1.17363	Agree
2	Establishment of new primary and secondary schools	3.5475	1.27350	Agree
3	Establishment of tertiary institutions	3.4275	1.11932	Agree
C	Transportation Infrastructure			
1	Maintenance of existing bridges and roads	3.7725	1.30768	Agree
2	Construction of new roads and bridges	2.5775	1.51814	Disagree
3	Acquisition of cars and buses for road transportation	3.5400	1.30486	Agree
D	Water and Sanitation Infrastructure			
1	Maintenance of existing water supply facilities	3.5000	.91218	Agree
2	Sinking of new boreholes and shallow wells for water supply	3.8025	1.09155	Agree
3	Evacuation of solid and human wastes	4.0650	.96598	Agree
	Grand Mean	3.4706	.37098	Agree

Source: Field Survey, 2015.

In view of the infrastructure deficits as indicated by the respondents in Table 4.3, Table 4.4 presents the involvement of the private sector under the aegis of PPP to address the situation. There was apparent commonality of views by the respondents on the disposition of PPP in contributing to the provision of infrastructure in health, education, transportation, and water and sanitation sectors. Eleven out of the 12 variables and the grand mean, as presented in Table 4.4 had scores of at least 3.1. The only disagreement was on construction of new roads and bridges which had a mean score rating of 2.6. The greatest

involvement of PPP appears to be in the provision of water and sanitation infrastructure: evacuation of human and solid wastes ($\bar{x}=4.1$), sinking of new boreholes and shallow wells for water supply ($\bar{x}=3.8$) and maintenance of existing water supply facilities ($\bar{x}=3.5$). PPP involvement in the education sector is equally substantial especially in the establishment of primary and secondary schools ($\bar{x}=3.5$) and tertiary educational institutions ($\bar{x}=3.4$). PPP involvement was also indicated in the health sector especially in the maintenance of existing health institutions ($\bar{x}=3.5$) and establishing primary healthcare facilities ($\bar{x}=3.5$). The PPP was also involved in maintenance of bridges and roads ($\bar{x}=3.8$) and procurement of cars and buses for the road transport sector ($\bar{x}=3.4$)

4.2.4: Residents Contribution to PPP Projects.

The contributions of rural residents to PPP were also investigated and the responses of the people are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Contributions of Residents to PPP Projects.

S/N	Items	Mean	Std Dev.	Decision
1	Projects are initiated by resident	3.6150	1.22291	Agree
2	Residents make individual/family financial contributions	3.4025	1.38575	Agree
3	Different groups make financial contributions	3.7550	1.20358	Agree
4	Security of project sites are provided by residents	3.6075	1.00796	Agree
5	Residents provide skilled and unskilled labour for the projects	3.9225	1.15100	Agree
6	Residents provide /donate project land.	4.0125	1.17080	Agree
7	Residents monitor project performance	3.3525	1.01529	Agree
8	Residents are always willing to contribute to projects	3.4100	1.27513	Agree
9	Residents are not too poor to contribute towards projects realization	3.5625	1.00679	Agree
10	Promoters/donors involve residents in initiation and execution	3.5150	1.03801	Agree
	Grand mean	3.6155	.42622	Agree

Source: Field Survey, 2015.

All the ten variables depicting contributions of rural residents to PPP projects in Table 4.5 had scores that were greater than 3.0. The item “Residents provide /donate project land” had the highest mean score of 4.0; followed by residents provide skilled and unskilled labour for the projects ($\bar{x}=3.9$), different groups make financial contributions ($\bar{x}=3.8$);

projects are initiated by residents ($\bar{x}=3.6$); Security of project sites are provided by residents ($\bar{x}=3.6$); and residents are not too poor to contribute towards projects realization ($m=3.6$). Other responses included promoters of projects involve residents in initiation and execution ($m=3.5$); and residents monitor project performance ($\bar{x}=3.4$). With a grand mean of 3.6 it is obvious that rural residents are involved in initiation and execution of PPP projects in the various rural communities.

4.2.5: Effect of PPP on Income and Standard of Living of Residents.

Investigation into how PPP has impacted on the socio-economic wellbeing of the residents yielded the following data in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Effect of PPP on Income and standard of Living.

S/N	Items	Mean(x)	Std Dev.	Decision
1	Quantum of average rural income has improved.	3.9750	1.17167	Agree
2	Diversified Sources of rural income	3.3300	1.17667	Agree
3	Functional local market for evacuation of agricultural produce.	3.9825	.88269	Agree
4	Availability of job opportunities in the communities	3.7525	1.17460	Agree
5	Availability of clean water in the locality	3.9150	.99006	Agree
6	Privately established schools are visible in most rural communities	3.8925	1.14421	Agree
7	Substantial improvement in rural roads development	3.8500	1.07722	Agree
8	Death rate has decreased because private medical facilities are reachable	3.8900	1.31614	Agree
9	Communities have more access to quality education.	3.4800	1.08745	Agree
10	There is visible increase in household asset accumulation	3.3700	1.45891	Agree
Grand mean (x)		3.7438	.65159	Agree

Source: Field Survey, 2015.

The respondents, as could be seen in Table 4.6 agreed in all the ten items depicting improvement in rural infrastructure provision. All the items and the grand mean in the table had mean ratings that are greater than 3.0. Thus, they affirmed that quantum of average rural income has improved ($\bar{x}=4.0$); functional local market for evacuation of

agricultural produce ($\bar{x}=4.0$); availability of clean water in the locality ($\bar{x}=3.9$); death rate has decreased because private medical facilities are reachable ($\bar{x}=3.9$); Privately established schools are visible in most rural communities ($\bar{x}=3.9$); substantial improvement in rural roads development ($\bar{x}=3.9$); availability of job opportunities in the communities ($\bar{x}=3.8$); communities have more access to quality education ($\bar{x}=3.4$); there is visible increase in household asset accumulation ($\bar{x}=3.4$); and diversified Sources of rural income ($\bar{x}=3.3$).

4.2.6: Effect of bureaucracy and other challenges on PPP.

The effect of bureaucracy and other challenges were also investigated and presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Effects of bureaucracy and other challenges on PPP.

S/N	Items	Mean	Std Dev.	Decision
1	The bureaucracy delays the implementation of the signed PPP agreements.	3.3750	1.33184	Agree
2	Due process demands that final approval must come from the governor	3.4175	1.08911	Agree
3	Perfecting titles to project lands suffers unnecessary delay.	3.4325	1.22441	Agree
4	Government official in charge of PPP matters are either ignorant or are not interested	3.8650	.78633	Agree
5	Projects are often misused or mismanaged	3.8650	1.15330	Agree
6	There is little or no legal protection for would be partners	3.8675	1.11941	Agree
7	Locals often make monetary demand from donors before they support PPP projects.	3.8400	.85804	Agree
8	Kidnappings and armed robbery scare away donors and would be partners.	3.8900	1.31614	Agree
9	Delays by the government in the release of counterpart funds for implementing the agreements projects.	4.1850	.86756	Agree
10	PPP agreements are often discarded or ignored by the government	3.4250	1.17807	Agree
Grand mean		3.7163	.46086	Agree

Source: Survey data, 2015.

All the ten variables and the grand mean depicting the effects of bureaucracy and other challenges to PPP in Table 4.7 had mean scores that were greater than 3.0 thus, indicating unanimity of the respondents. The most singular item hindering PPP appears to be item 9, “delays by the government in the release of counterpart funds for implementing the agreements projects” with mean score of 4.1. Other items with high mean scores included, item 8: kidnappings and armed robbery scare away donors and would be partners ($\bar{x}=3.9$); item 4: government official in charge of PPP matters are either ignorant or are not interested ($\bar{x}=3.9$); item: projects are often misused or mismanaged ($\bar{x}=3.9$); item 6: there is little or no legal protection for would be partners ($\bar{x}=3.9$); locals make monetary demand from donors before they support PPP projects ($\bar{x}=3.8$). Also one of the least endorsed variables was item 1: bureaucracy delays the implementation of the signed PPP agreements ($\bar{x}=3.4$).

4.3 TEST OF HYPOTHESES

The four hypotheses formulated for the study were tested at 0.05 level of significance and the results are hereby presented

Hypothesis I:

H₀: Infrastructure needs are not significantly related to level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

H₁: Infrastructure needs are significantly related to level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

Table 4.8: Correlation analysis for hypothesis one

Correlations		
	GINF	GKSP
	1	0.292
Pearson Correlation		
GIFN Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
N	400	400
	0.292	1
Pearson Correlation		
GPPP Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
N	400	400

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

NB: GIFN=grand mean of responses on infrastructural needs; GPPP=grand mean of responses on PPP involvement in infrastructure provision

The Pearson Correlation Analysis used to test this hypothesis one in Table 4.8 above shows that the grand mean of responses on infrastructural needs (GINF) has a positive and significant relationship with the grand mean of responses on PPP involvement in infrastructure provision (GPPP) at 0.01 level.. Based on this, the null hypothesis one formulated to guide this study is rejected and the conclusion here is that there is a significant relationship between Infrastructure needs and level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision. This findings is confirmation of the belief

Hypothesis II:

- H₀: Financial and other contributions by rural residents are not significantly related to level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.
- H₁: Financial and other contributions by rural residents are significantly related to level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

Table 4.9: Correlation analysis for hypothesis two

		Correlations	
		GCONT	GKSP
GRRC	Pearson Correlation	1	0.191
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	400	400
GPPP	Pearson Correlation	0.191	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
	N	400	400

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

NB: GRRC=grand mean of responses on rural residents contributions to PPP; GPPP=grand mean of responses on PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

The Pearson correlation analysis result presented in table 4.9 showed that the grand mean of responses on rural residents contributions to PPP (GRRC) has a positive and significant relationship with the grand mean of responses on PPP involvement in infrastructure provision (GPPP) at 0.01 level. Based on this, the null hypothesis two is rejected, and we conclude that there is a significant positive relationship between rural residents' contributions to PPP and PPP involvement in infrastructure provision. The implication here is that increase in residents' financial and other contributions will lead to increase in and sustainability of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision in the rural sector.

Hypothesis Three:

H₀: Socio-economic wellbeing of rural residents is not significantly related to level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

H₁: Socio-economic wellbeing of rural residents is significantly related to level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

Table 4.10: Correlation analysis for hypothesis three

Correlations		
	GEFF	GKSP
Pearson Correlation	1	0.042
GEFF Sig. (2-tailed)		0.400
N	400	400
Pearson Correlation	0.042	1
GPPP Sig. (2-tailed)	0.400	
N	400	400

NB: GEFF=grand mean of responses on effects of PPP on socio-economic wellbeing of rural residents; GPPP=grand mean of responses on PPP involvement in infrastructure provision

The Pearson correlation analysis used to test this hypothesis in Table 4.10 shows that the grand mean of responses on effects of PPP on socio-economic wellbeing of rural residents (GEFF) had a positive and but not significant relationship with the grand mean of responses on PPP involvement in infrastructure provision (GPPP) at the conventional 0.05 level. Based on this, the null hypothesis three formulated to guide this study is accepted. We, therefore, conclude that though PPP has impacted positively on the socio-economic wellbeing of rural dwellers, the strength of its association to socioeconomic wellbeing of rural dwellers was minimal. Russell and Bvuma (2001), Oni (2010),

Hypothesis Four:

H₀: Bureaucracy and related challenges do not have significant effect on level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

H₁: Bureaucracy and related challenges have significant effect on level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

Table 4.11: Regression Estimates of challenges on PPP.

Model	Coefficient Estimates	T-Value	Significance
(CONSTANT)	3.467	17.496	0.000
The bureaucracy delays the implementation of the signed PPP agreements (x_1).	-0.015	-0.855	0.393
Due process demands that final approval must come from the governor (x_2).	-0.012	-0.496	0.620
Perfecting titles to project lands suffers unnecessary delay (x_3).	-0.005	-0.211	0.833
Government official in charge of PPP matters are either ignorant or are not interested (x_4)	-0.001	-0.018	0.986
Projects are often misused or mismanaged (x_5)	-0.001	-0.027	0.978
There is little or no legal protection for would be partners (x_6)	0.006	0.266	0.791
Locals often make monetary demand from donors before they support PPP projects (x_7).	-0.032	-0.574	0.566
Kidnappings and armed robbery scare away donors and would be partners (x_8).	0.024	1.346	0.179
Delays by the government in the release of counterpart funds for implementing the agreements projects (x_9).	0.007	0.289	0.773
PPP agreements are often discarded or ignored by the government (x_{10}).	0.028	1.614	0.107
R^2	0.027		
Adj R^2	0.002		
F	1.074 (Sig. @ 0.381)		

Dependent Variable: GPPP (grand mean of responses on PPP involvement in infrastructure provision)

In testing hypothesis four, which states that Bureaucracy and related challenges do not have significant effect on level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision, the information in Table 4.11 above indicate that none of the variables were significant at the conventional 5% level. Also 6 out of the variables had inverse relationship with the dependent variable (GPPP). Furthermore, the R^2 estimate suggests that the independent variables taken together explain less than 3% of the variations in GPPP index and the F ratio of 1.07 was not significant at the conventional 5% level.

The implication of the above is that the challenges as indicated had not substantially affected the level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision. The null hypothesis is, therefore, accepted and we conclude that bureaucracy and other challenges as indicated had not influenced PPP involvement. This is rather surprising since Mbanasor and Nwachukwu (2011) and Adams et al. (2006) have all complained that Corruption; Conflict of interest; Absence of political will; Fiscal constraints; Complex Intellectual Property Rights (IPR) issues; and Lack of trust are all hindrances to seamless operation of PPP projects. A possible explanation to lack of effect of bureaucracy and other challenges on PPP could be because most of the donors and private operators are citizens of the various communities who are participating out of patriotic zeal to help their kinsmen to develop the rural communities. Therefore, adverse challenges as indicated were not enough to hinder them.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Summary of Findings

1. The age distribution Table shows that 45% of the respondents were aged between 41 and 65 years old; .while 33% were between 25 and 40 years. The gender distribution shows that 55% of the respondents were males, while 45% of them were females. On education, 40% secondary school certificate, 26% had either NCE or OND, while 30% of the respondents possessed either B.Sc or HND. The occupational distribution of respondents shows that 50% of the respondents were farmers; 30% were workers and 20% were traders.
2. Although the respondents agreed on the use of most indicated models of PPP in the State, Rehabilitate-Own-and Operate (ROO) and Rehabilitate-Operate and Transfer (ROT) were mostly preferred.
3. The infrastructural needs of the rural residents were substantial as was inferred from the responses, and they included need for referral tertiary health institutions, modern state of the art health institution, primary and secondary schools, cars and buses for road transportation, and upgrade and construction of bridges and roads. The test of hypothesis one revealed a significant between infrastructure needs and level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.
4. There was commonality of agreement by the respondents that PPP arrangements have contributed substantially to the provision of infrastructure in health, education, transportation, and water and sanitation sectors.
5. It was found that rural residents contributed significantly to PPP projects and services via financial contributions, land donation and provision of securities at project sites. The subsequent test of hypothesis two established that financial and other contributions by rural residents are significantly related to level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision

6. The study revealed that provision of infrastructure through PPP has substantially improved the state of rural infrastructure and socio-economic wellbeing of the people of Anambra State. Surprisingly, the test of hypothesis three showed that, socio-economic wellbeing of rural residents is not significantly related to level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.
7. In spite of the involvement of PPP in rural infrastructure provision and obvious benefits derived, it was still bedeviled by bureaucracy and other challenges, including delays by the government in the release of counterpart funds for implementing the agreements projects, kidnappings and armed robbery scare away donors and would be partners, among others. Nevertheless, the multiple regression result used to test hypothesis four suggests that bureaucracy and related challenges do not have significant effect on level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision.

5.2 Conclusion

Public private partnerships (PPPs) are conceptually collaborative efforts between the public and the private sector to deliver public goods and services. PPP has of recent been attracting interest as a credible and alternative panacea to poor infrastructural development at the rural level. Indeed, the role of the private sector in the pursuit of sustainable economic development in most economies has been on the increase and is being recognized. It is assumed that for efficiency and effectiveness of production and distribution of goods and services, the best bet is the joint efforts of PPPs.

In Anambra State, the present study has shown that most of the mainstream models of PPP are being adopted in the provision of infrastructure in the health, education, transport, and water and sanitation sectors. The involvement of PPP in provision of these infrastructure facilities is substantial. Findings also show that the citizens of the State are involved in the PPP arrangements in various forms, including financial contributions, donation of land, and provision of security, among others. Their enthusiasm in the support of PPP appears to have been borne out of the derived socio-economic benefits which they acknowledged was immense, in form of income enhancement, availability of modern and functional educational institutions, water and sanitation facilities, and markets for evacuation of farm produce. It is instructive to also note that in spite of existence of bureaucracy and other

challenges, PPP involvement in provision of infrastructure in Anambra State has not been significantly hindered.

5.3 Recommendations

Consequently, the following policy recommendations are offered based on the empirical findings.

1. Efforts should be made on the part of the government and other stakeholders to increase awareness and level of adoption of the PPP approach for the provision of public infrastructure services previously undertaken by the public sector. Generally, trust, openness and fairness are basic foundational underpinnings of successful PPP. When the rural dwellers and donors are convinced of the honesty and necessity of the PPP approach they will increase their support.
2. The rural residents have shown willingness to participate in PPP that aims at providing infrastructural facilities in the rural areas. Therefore, the government should do everything possible to promote and sustain this willingness. Indeed, the sustainability and establishment of future PPP projects and facilities will depend on the people's readiness to partner with the government to tackle the infrastructural needs of the rural areas.
3. Enact appropriate laws, especially laws that will streamline areas of needs and procedures for the involvement of private individuals and organizations who want to partner with the government in the area of rural development. Streamlining the laws and procedures for PPP involvement will not only encourage would-be donors, but will also ensure optimal realization of the objectives of PPP.
4. Efforts should be made by the government to root out and/or reduce bureaucracy and other identified challenges that hinder PPP arrangements. Establishment of a coordinating unit in the office of the Governor of the State is suggested. The need for this office is to fast track requests for PPP involvement by private persons and to investigate and handle all cases of misdemeanor that may hinder or threaten PPP.

5.4 Contribution to Knowledge

An important contribution of the study is that it has advanced theoretical and empirical understanding to the concept and practice of PPP. Indeed, the study is a welcome addition to the growing body of literature in the area of PPP as a complementary, and in some cases alternative means of rural infrastructure provision in Nigeria.

It also contributes to the literature on whether the use of PPP is capable of sensitizing and mobilizing the citizens to be willing and active participants in the drive to provide essential service infrastructures in the rural areas.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Study

In view of the limitations of this research, the following suggestions are recommended for further study:

- i. This study evaluated only the involvement of PPP in the provision of infrastructures in rural Anambra State, it was, however, found during the course of this study of PPP involvement of provision of infrastructure in the urban centers. We, therefore, suggest that future research should investigate the activities of PPP in the provision of infrastructure in the urban areas of Anambra State.
- ii. The present study was largely exploratory. Future studies should attempt to carry out a cost-benefit analysis of PPP in Anambra State. This should aim at discovering the cost implications of PPP to the State budget and wellbeing of citizens.

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APPENDIX I**LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL**

Department of Cooperative Economics and
Management,
Nnamdi Azikiwe University,
Awka.
15th August, 2015.

Dear Respondent,

**PUBLIC PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP AND PROVISION OF INFRASTRUCTURES
IN ANAMBRA STATE, NIGERIA 2005-2013.**

I am a postgraduate student of the above institution, who is empowered to carry out a research on the above topic. The research is a requirement for the award of degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Cooperative Economics and Management. It will be highly appreciated if you assist me in completing the attached questionnaire. All the information provided will be strictly for academic purpose and shall be treated confidentially.

Thanks for your anticipated cooperation

Yours sincerely,

Orie, Ifeyinwa Helen
Post graduate Student

QUESTIONNAIRE

Part 1: PERSONAL DATA

Please fill in the relevant information and where possible tick or mark with an x

A. Demographic characteristics:

1. Age: Below 25yrs 25-40yrs 41-65yrs Above 65yrs

2. Gender: (a) Male Female

3 Educational Qualification: First School Leaving Certificate Secondary School Certificate
OND/NCE HND/BSc. MBA/MSc./MPhil.and above

4. Occupation: Farmers Workers Traders

Part 2: Dominant PPP models used in Anambra state

S/N	ITEMS	SA	A	U	D	SD
1.	Build-and-Transfer (BT). government build project and transfer to private to manage					
2.	Build-Lease-and-Transfer (BIT).private build project and transfer to government on a lease bases					
3.	Build-Own-Operate (BOO).private build, own and operate project, charge levies over a specified period of time to recover expenses					
4.	Build-Operate-and-Transfer (BOT).government build project, maintain for a period of time, charge levies and then transfer to private					
5.	Built-Transfer-and-Operate(BTO).government arrange for private to build project, operate it and collect levies					
6.	Rehabilitate-Operate-and-Transfer (ROT).private takes over existing facility, operate and maintain for a specific period and charge levies.					
7.	Contract-Add-and-Operate (CAO)private takes over existing facility leased from government, operate it and collect levies					
8	Rehabilitate-Own-and-Operate (ROO) private takes over existing facility, maintains it with no time limit and charge levies.					
9	Concession Agreement (CA).private operate and manage project for a specified period, government collect the levies.					
10	Management Contract (MC).government hand over operation and management of facility for an agreed period on payment of a consideration amount.					
11	Service Contract (SC). Private undertake to provide specific services of facility to government for a specific period.					

Part 3: Infrastructure investment needs of the rural area in the state

S/N	ITEMS	SA	A	U	DA	SD
1	Modern health institution					
2	Primary health care institution					
3	Referral tertiary health institution					
4	Modern primary and secondary schools					
5	More primary and secondary schools					
6	Tertiary educational institution					
7	Upgrade of bridges and roads					
8	New road and bridge construction					
9	Cars and buses for road transportation					
10	Upgrade of existing water supply facilities					
11	New water boreholes and shallow wells					
12	Means of evacuation of solid and human waste					

Part 4: PPP Involvement in provision of infrastructure

S/N	ITEMS	SA	A	U	DA	SD
1	Maintenance of existing health institutions.					
2	Establishment of primary health care institutions.					
3	Establishment of referral tertiary health institution.					
4	Maintenance of existing primary and secondary schools.					
5	Establishment of new primary and secondary schools.					
6	Establishment of tertiary institutions.					
7	Maintenance of existing bridges and roads.					
8	Construction of new roads and bridges.					
9	Acquisition of cars and buses for road transportation.					
10	Maintenance of existing water supply facilities					
11	Sinking of new boreholes and shallow wells for water supply					
12	Evacuation of solid and human wastes					

Part 5 Contributions of residents to PPP projects

S/N	ITEMS	SA	A	U	DA	SD
1	Projects are initiated by resident.					
2	Residents make individual/family financial contributions.					
3	Different groups make financial contribution.					
4	Security of project sites is provided by residents.					
5	Residents provide skilled and unskilled labour for the projects.					
6	Residents provide/donate project land.					
7	Residents monitor project performance.					
8	Residents are always willing to contribute to projects.					
9	Residents are not too poor to contribute towards projects realization.					
10	Promoters/donors involve residents in initiation and execution of project.					

Part 6: Effect of PPP on Income and Standard of Living of Residents.

S/N	ITEMS	SA	A	U	DA	SD
1	Quantum of average rural income has improved.					
2	Diversified Sources of rural income.					
3	Functional local market for evacuation of agricultural produce.					
4	Availability of job opportunities in the communities.					
5	Availability of clean water in the locality.					
6	Privately established schools are visible in most rural communities.					
7	Substantial improvement in rural roads development.					
8	Death rate has decrease because medical facilities are reachable.					
9	Communities have more access to quality education.					
10	There is visible increase in household asset accumulation					

Part 7: Effect of bureaucracy and other challenges on PPP

S/N	ITEMS	SA	A	U	DA	SD
1	The bureaucracy delays the implementation of the signed PPP agreement					
2	Due process demands that final approval must come from the governor.					
3	Perfecting titles to project lands suffers unnecessary delay.					
4	Government official in charge of PPP matters are either ignorant or are not interested					
5	Projects are often misused or mismanaged.					
6	There is little or no legal protection for would be partners.					
7	Locals often make monetary demand from donors before they support PPP project					
8	Kidnappings and armed robbery scare away donors and would be partners.					
9	Delays by the government in the release of counterpart fund for implementing the agreement projects.					
10	PPP agreements are often discarded or ignored by government					

APPENDIX 2

DESCRIPTIVES VARIABLES=INF1 INF2 INF3 INF4 INF5 INF6 INF7 INF8 INF9
INF10 INF11 INF12 GINF

/STATISTICS=MEAN STDDEV MIN MAX.

[DataSet3] C:\Users\Frank\Documents\SPSS DOC\Orie.sav

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
DM1	400	1.00	5.00	3.5125	.99364
DM2	400	1.00	5.00	3.3100	1.10769
DM3	400	1.00	5.00	3.1100	1.17531
DM4	400	1.00	5.00	3.5500	1.27929
DM5	400	1.00	6.00	3.4300	1.12172
DM6	400	1.00	6.00	3.7700	1.32343
DM7	400	1.00	5.00	2.5975	1.52851
DM8	400	1.00	6.00	3.7875	1.31020
DM9	400	1.00	5.00	2.6025	1.53309
DM10	400	1.00	5.00	3.4100	1.07694
DM11	400	1.00	5.00	2.9625	1.21027
GDM	400	1.18	4.64	3.2766	.56983
Valid N (listwise)	400				

DESCRIPTIVES VARIABLES=KSP1 KSP2 KSP3 KSP4 KSP5 KSP6 KSP7 KSP8 KSP9
KSP10 KSP11 KSP12 GKSP

/STATISTICS=MEAN STDDEV MIN MAX.

Descriptive

[DataSet3] C:\Users\Frank\Documents\SPSS DOC\Orie.sav

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
INF1	400	1.00	5.00	3.3975	1.07115
INF2	400	1.00	5.00	2.9375	1.21544
INF3	400	1.00	5.00	3.4975	1.05962
INF4	400	1.00	5.00	3.5125	.99364
INF5	400	1.00	5.00	3.3175	1.10442
INF6	400	1.00	5.00	3.1100	1.17531
INF7	400	1.00	5.00	3.5575	1.28094
INF8	400	1.00	6.00	3.4350	1.12425
INF9	400	1.00	6.00	3.7875	1.31020
INF10	400	1.00	5.00	2.6025	1.53309
INF11	400	1.00	5.00	3.4025	1.07162
INF12	400	1.00	5.00	2.9475	1.21591
GINF	400	1.92	4.33	3.2921	.44886
Valid N (listwise)	400				

DESCRIPTIVES VARIABLES=DM1 DM2 DM3 DM4 DM5 DM6 DM7 DM8 DM9
DM10 DM11 GDM

/STATISTICS=MEAN STDDEV MIN MAX.

[DataSet3] C:\Users\Frank\Documents\SPSS DOC\Orie.sav

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
KSP1	400	1.00	5.00	3.4975	1.07138
KSP2	400	1.00	5.00	3.5075	.98863
KSP3	400	1.00	5.00	3.3050	1.10228
KSP4	400	1.00	5.00	3.1050	1.17363
KSP5	400	1.00	5.00	3.5475	1.27350
KSP6	400	1.00	6.00	3.4275	1.11932
KSP7	400	1.00	6.00	3.7725	1.30768
KSP8	400	1.00	5.00	2.5775	1.51814
KSP9	400	1.00	5.00	3.5400	1.30486
KSP10	400	1.00	5.00	3.5000	.91218
KSP11	400	1.00	5.00	3.8025	1.09155
KSP12	400	1.00	5.00	4.0650	.96598
GKSP	400	2.17	4.58	3.4706	.37098
Valid N (listwise)	400				

DESCRIPTIVES VARIABLES=CONT1 CONT2 CONT3 CONT4 CONT5 CONT6
 CONT7 CONT8 CONT9 CONT10 GCONT
 /STATISTICS=MEAN STDDEV MIN MAX.

[DataSet3] C:\Users\Frank\Documents\SPSS DOC\Orie.sav

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
CONT1	400	1.00	5.00	3.6150	1.22291
CONT2	400	1.00	5.00	3.4025	1.38575
CONT3	400	1.00	5.00	3.7550	1.20358
CONT4	400	1.00	5.00	3.6075	1.00796
CONT5	400	1.00	5.00	3.9225	1.15100
CONT6	400	1.00	5.00	4.0125	1.17080
CONT7	400	1.00	5.00	3.3525	1.01529
CONT8	400	1.00	5.00	3.4100	1.27513
CONT9	400	1.00	5.00	3.5625	1.00679
CONT10	400	1.00	5.00	3.5150	1.03801
GCONT	400	2.40	4.50	3.6155	.42622
Valid N (listwise)	400				

```
DESCRIPTIVES VARIABLES=EFF1 EFF2 EFF3 EFF4 EFF5 EFF6 EFF7 EFF8 EFF9
EFF10 GEFF
/STATISTICS=MEAN STDDEV MIN MAX.
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[DataSet3] C:\Users\Frank\Documents\SPSS DOC\Orie.sav

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
EFF1	400	1.00	5.00	3.9750	1.17167
EFF2	400	1.00	5.00	3.3300	1.17667
EFF3	400	1.00	5.00	3.9825	.88269
EFF4	400	1.00	5.00	3.7525	1.17460
EFF5	400	1.00	5.00	3.9150	.99006
EFF6	400	1.00	5.00	3.8925	1.14421
EFF7	400	1.00	5.00	3.8500	1.07722
EFF8	400	1.00	5.00	3.8900	1.31614
EFF9	400	1.00	5.00	3.4800	1.08745
EFF10	400	1.00	5.00	3.3700	1.45891
GEFF	400	2.00	5.00	3.7438	.65159
Valid N (listwise)	400				

DESCRIPTIVES VARIABLES=CHL1 CHL2 CHL3 CHL4 CHL5 CHL6 CHL7 CHL8
CHL9 CHL10 GCHL
/STATISTICS=MEAN STDDEV MIN MAX.

Descriptives

[DataSet3] C:\Users\Frank\Documents\SPSS DOC\Orie.sav

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
CHL1	400	1.00	5.00	3.3750	1.33184
CHL2	400	1.00	5.00	3.4175	1.08911
CHL3	400	1.00	5.00	3.4325	1.22441
CHL4	400	2.00	5.00	3.8650	.78633
CHL5	400	1.00	5.00	3.8650	1.15330
CHL6	400	1.00	5.00	3.8675	1.11941
CHL7	400	2.00	5.00	3.8400	.85804
CHL8	400	1.00	5.00	3.8900	1.31614
CHL9	400	1.00	5.00	4.1850	.86756
CHL10	400	1.00	5.00	3.4250	1.17807
GCHL	400	2.20	4.50	3.7163	.46086
Valid N (listwise)	400				

APPENDIX 3
Test of hypotheses

GET

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DATASET NAME DataSet1 WINDOW=FRONT.

CORRELATIONS

/VARIABLES=GINF GKSP

/PRINT=TWOTAIL NOSIG

/MISSING=PAIRWISE.

Correlations (1)

[DataSet1] C:\Users\Frank\Documents\SPSS DOC\Orie.sav

Correlations

		GINF	GKSP
GINF	Pearson Correlation	1	.292**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	400	400
GKSP	Pearson Correlation	.292**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	400	400

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

CORRELATIONS

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/PRINT=TWOTAIL NOSIG

/MISSING=PAIRWISE.

Correlations (2)

[DataSet1] C:\Users\Frank\Documents\SPSS DOC\Orie.sav

Correlations

		GCONT	GKSP
GCON T	Pearson Correlation	1	.191**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	400	400
GKSP	Pearson Correlation	.191**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	400	400

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

CORRELATIONS

```

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/MISSING=PAIRWISE.

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Correlations (3)

[DataSet1] C:\Users\Frank\Documents\SPSS DOC\Orie.sav

Correlations

		GEFF	GKSP
GEFF	Pearson Correlation	1	.042
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.400
	N	400	400
GKSP	Pearson Correlation	.042	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.400	
	N	400	400

REGRESSION

```

/MISSING LISTWISE
/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA
/CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
/NOORIGIN
/DEPENDENT GKSP
/METHOD=ENTER CHL1 CHL2 CHL3 CHL4 CHL5 CHL6 CHL7 CHL8 CHL9
CHL10.

```

Regression (4)

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Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	CHL10, CHL5, CHL7, CHL3, CHL1, CHL9, CHL8, CHL6, CHL2, CHL4 ^b		. Enter

a. Dependent Variable: GKSP

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.164 ^a	.027	.002	.37063

a. Predictors: (Constant), CHL10, CHL5, CHL7, CHL3, CHL1, CHL9, CHL8, CHL6, CHL2, CHL4

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.475	10	.148	1.074	.381 ^b
	Residual	53.436	389	.137		
	Total	54.912	399			

a. Dependent Variable: GKSP

b. Predictors: (Constant), CHL10, CHL5, CHL7, CHL3, CHL1, CHL9, CHL8, CHL6, CHL2, CHL4

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	3.467	.198		17.496	.000	
1	CHL1	-.015	.017	-.052	-.855	.393
	CHL2	-.012	.025	-.037	-.496	.620
	CHL3	-.005	.022	-.016	-.211	.833
	CHL4	-.001	.063	-.002	-.018	.986
	CHL5	-.001	.022	-.002	-.027	.978
	CHL6	.006	.021	.017	.266	.791
	CHL7	-.032	.056	-.074	-.574	.566
	CHL8	.024	.018	.085	1.346	.179
	CHL9	.007	.025	.017	.289	.773
	CHL10	.028	.017	.088	1.614	.107

a. Dependent Variable: GKSP

GET

FILE='C:\Users\Frank\Documents\SPSS DOC\Nwaiwu.sav'.

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GET

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DATASET NAME DataSet2 WINDOW=FRONT.

DATASET ACTIVATE DataSet2.

SAVE OUTFILE='C:\Users\Frank\Documents\Okolie.sav'

/COMPRESSED.

APPENDIX 4

Department of Cooperative Economics and
Management,
Nnamdi Azikiwe University,
Awka.
27th September, 2015.

Dear Respondent,

**INVITATION FOR AN INTERVIEW ON ISSUE OF PUBLIC PRIVATE
PARTNERSHIP AND PROVISION OF INFRASTRUCTURES IN ANAMBRA
STATE, NIGERIA 2005-2013.**

I am a postgraduate student of the above institution, who is empowered to carry out a research on the above topic. The research is a requirement for the award of degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Cooperative Economics and Management.

It will be highly appreciated if you honour the above interview scheduled for 17th October 2015 at the Government House Awka.General Conference Hall.(opposite the Ministry of Local Government Building).The interview will commence at 11am prompt.

Also, attached is the interview schedule and the relevant areas/issues the interviewer will ask questions for your responses

All the information provided will be strictly for academic purpose and shall be treated confidentially.

Thanks for your anticipated cooperation

Yours sincerely,

Orie, Ifeyinwa Helen
Postgraduate Student

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE ON THE PUBLIC PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP AND PROVISION OF INFRASTRUCTURES IN ANAMBRA STATE,NIGERIA (2005-2013)

Please you are expected to give responses to the following questions as shown against your name which will guide the research study:

Question 1:

Infrastructure provisions have been critical to successful development of any state economy. What are the infrastructure investment needs of the rural areas in Anambra State (Chief Emma Okoli).

Question 2

Do you understand the concept of public private partnership? and can you specifically indicate the infrastructures which PPP are adopted to provide in order to assuage the sufferings of the rural dwellers?(Hon Ifeanyi Ezeani).

QUESTION 3

To what extent have the rural residents contributed to PPP projects (HRH Igwe P,C Ozoemena).

QUESTION 4

Has the adoption of PPP model of infrastructural provision impacted positively on the lives of rural people? and to what extent.(Dr Christopher Ozegbe).

QUESTION 5

It is a fact that no business endeavour succeeds without some risks. What are the major effect of bureaucracy on the effective implementation of PPP and infrastructure provision?.(Engr Alfred Udemezue).

QUESTION 6

Are there any other major challenges that encumber on the implementation of this strategic development programme?how do you mitigate against these challenges?(Mrs Ifeoma Nwankwo).

Your contributions in this regard will hopefully fill the critical gaps in the Public -Private partnership and provision of infrastructures in Anambra State.

APPENDIX 5

ORAL INTERVIEW RESPONSES FROM THE VARIOUS INTERVIEWEES ON 17TH OCTOBER 2015.

First Interviewee

Interviewee Name and Status: I am Chief Emma Okoli, the President General of Ezira town in Orumba North Local Government

Question 1: Infrastructure provisions have been critical to successful development of any state economy. What are the infrastructure investment needs of the rural areas in Anambra State.

Interviewee's Responses. Well, some of the infrastructure investment needs of the rural areas in Anambra State since these years include the demand for modern health institutions, primary health care centres, referral tertiary health centres, modern primary and secondary schools, construction of new roads and bridges, upgrade of good transportation system among others.

Second Interviewee

Interviewee Name and Status: I am Hon Ifeanyi Ezeani, a State House of Assembly Member representing Anaocha constituency and Chairman of Public Accounts Committee.

Question 2: Do you understand the concept of public private partnership? and can you specifically indicate the infrastructures which PPP are adopted to provide in order to assuage the sufferings of the rural dwellers?

Interviewee's Responses: Yes! I do. PPP as it's normally called is the relationship or the synergy that exist between the Public, that is the Government and the Private sector. It is a situation whereby Government agrees with the private people to help them provide public infrastructure which ordinarily is meant to be provided by the Government sorely. Some of these infrastructures include provision and maintenance of health institutions both primary and referral, provision and maintenance of schools both primary and secondary, even higher institution, yes, private universities and polytechnics are now on the increase and you find out that these private ones are being managed well. Other infrastructures are provision of portable water, rehabilitation and even construction of certain kilometers of road, Refuse management and recycling.

Third Interviewee

Interviewee's Name and Status: HRH Igwe P ,C, Ozoemena, the isu 1 of isuaniocha community in Awka North Local Government of Anambra State.

Question: 3 To what extent have the rural residents contributed to PPP projects

Interviewee's Responses: Really the rural residents have fairly contributed to PPP in terms of initiation of Projects, meaningful financial contributions and donation of lands were made by my subjects for example in my town various individuals ,families that is umunna, age grade association, women and umuada groups have contributed a lot of money towards rehabilitation of our roads, provision of some drugs and security men in our health centres, some of my philanthropic men and women donated books and chairs to our primary schools while some sunk boreholes to various villages in the town. The people are highly cooperative especially in making sure that security is maintained at project sites.

Fourth Interviewee

Interviewee's Name and Status: My names are Dr sir Christopher ,Obi, Ozegbe . The Medical Director, Chisom Specialist Hospital Atani and the founder of Good Care Foundation

Question 4: Has the adoption of PPP model of infrastructural provision impacted positively on the lives of rural people? and to what extent

Interviewee's Responses: Yes, it has impacted positively, the average rural income and standard of living have improved for example our foundation partner with the State Government in delivering health services to our people, just last month we engaged a lot of Medical Personnel from home and Diaspora to deliver free medical services to our people, a lot of operations were carried out, we actually found out that most of our people patronized Quacks because of ignorance and lack of awareness, some people that have been tagged blind now see clearly after undergoing our free eye operation. These people can now utilize there good health to be useful to themselves and improve their income, moreover ,you hardly see any pupil or ward selling goods during the school hours because private schools are now many competing to give quality education. These schools provide employment opportunities to many residents. Private individuals sunk borehole to the extent that you hardly hear people complain about water scarcity or see people fetching dirty stream water, the combine effort of the State Government and private individuals in rehabilitating most of our roads has improved our local market for evacuation of Agricultural produce as Ogbaru is among the food basket of this State.

Fifth Interviewee

Interviewee's Name and Status: I am Engr Alfred Udemezue,a youth leader from Umueje in Ayamelum Local Government

QUESTION 5: It is a fact that no business endeavour succeeds without some risks. What are the major effect of bureaucracy on the effective implementation of PPP and infrastructure provision?

Interviewee's Responses: Ok! Bureaucratic bottlenecks abound in public sector especially with their boring and complex rules and regulations. A lot of delays are normally encountered by official in moving files from one office to another. Even the processes of perfecting titles to project/land usually delay the take off of the project. Bribery and corruption abound in the process of granting approvals, these notwithstanding people still move on to pursue there cost.

Sixth Interviewee

Interviewee's Name and Status: I am Mrs. Ifeoma Nwankwo,a woman leader from Oraifite Town in Ekwusigo Local Government.

QUESTION 6: Are there any other major challenges that encumber on the implementation of this strategic development programme? how do you mitigate against these challenges?.

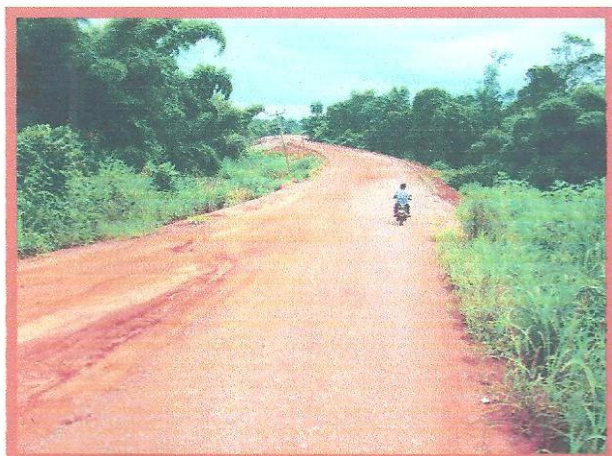
Interviewee's Responses: I think that other major challenges that mitigate against the effective implementation of this strategic development programme are the delay by government in releasing its counterpart fund to agreed project development.PPP agreement are often discarded by government , kidnapping and armed robbery which are prevalent in the state scare away potential investors. Our people are business morgues but this issue of kidnapping scare most of them away from coming to invest at home but I can assure you that once these unhealthy development needs are properly addressed by ensuring adequate security of lives and property, creation of investment friendly environments, people will come home to invest massively.

Finally, both parties must ensure that the counterpart funds are release on time and strictly applied for the purpose they are X

APPENDIX 6

INFRASTRUCTURAL PROVISION TO RURAL COMMUNITIES THROUGH PPP

SOME OF THE ROADS REHABILITATED THROUGH PPP

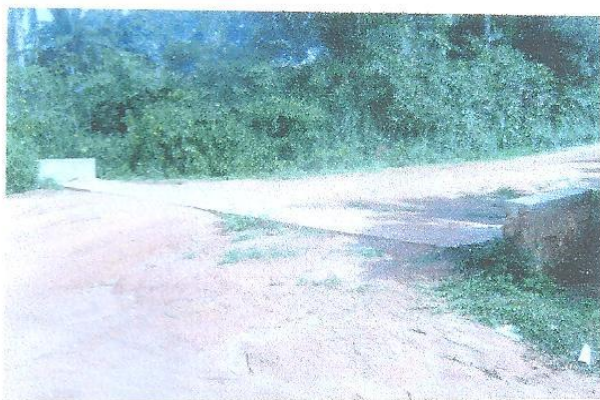


Road rehabilitated by a Philanthropic in Oraifite
Orumba North L.G.A Anambra State



Road rehabilitated by Age Grade in Ufuma

Ekwusigo L.G.A Anambra State



Bridge constructed by Umuada group in Isuaniocha
Awka North L.G.A Anmabra State



Road Rehabilitated by a Philanthropic at
Umueje Ayamelum L.G.A Anambra State

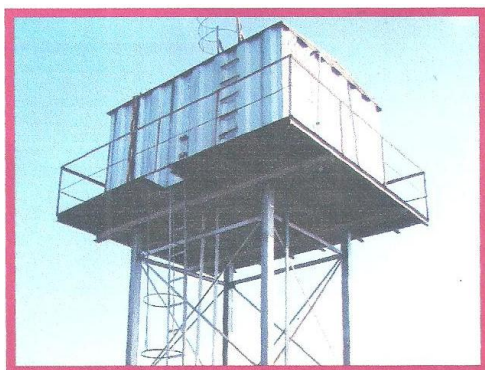
RURAL WATER SUPPLY TO COMMUNITIES THROUGH PPP



Water borehole sunk by age grade in Awgbu Community, Orumba North L.G.A Anambra State



Water borehole sunk by a Philanthropic to Odekpe Community, Ogbaru L.G.A. Anambra State



Water horehole provided by an individual to Atani Community Ogbaru L.G.A Anambra State

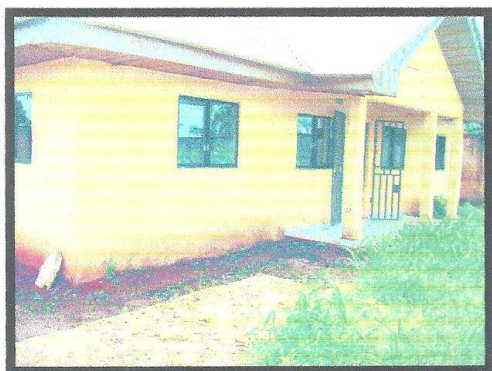


Water horehole provided by an individual in Omasi Health Centre Ayamelum L.g.A Anambra State

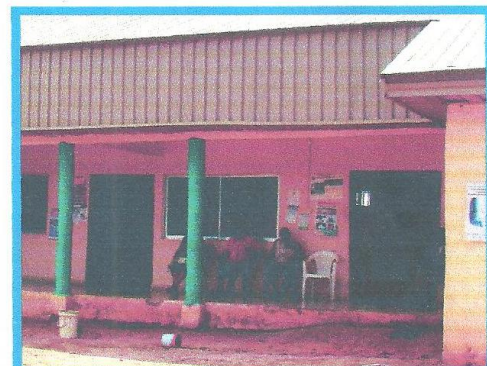


Solar water horehole provided by an individual to Urum Community, Awka North L.G.A Anambra State

HEALTH FACILITIES TO COMMUNITIES THROUGH PPP



Health Centre renovated by Welfare Union in Ozubulu Ekwusigo L.G.A Anambra State



Health Centre constructed by a Philanthropic and donated to the Community at Omasi, Ayamelum L.G.A Anambra State



Health Centre constructed and donated to the Community at Akwaeze, Anaocha L.G.A Anambra State



Nurses quarters constructed by a philanthropic and donated to Aguluezeigbo Community, Anaocha L.G.A Anambra State

EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES TO COMMUNITIES THROUGH PPP



Classroom block constructed at Agulu,
Anaocha L.G.A Anambra State



Renovated Classroom block at Okpoko,
Ogbaru L.G.A Anambra State



Classroom block constructed at Ichi,
Ekwusigo L.G.A Anambra State



Renovated Classroom block at
Ndiokpalaeze, Orumba North L.G.A



Books donated to Community
Secondary School Isuaniocha, Awka
North L.G.A Anambra State



Classroom tables donated by a
Philantropic to Community Secondary
School Ebenebe, Awka North L.G.A



Classroom block constructed at
Community Primary School Omor,
Avamelum L.G.A Anambra State



Classroom block constructed at
Community Primary School Okpeze,
Orumba North L.G.A Anambra State

SYNOPSIS

1. Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

It is the desire of every nation to meet the increasing infrastructure demand of its citizens to ensure a strong economy capable of attaining a sustainable economic growth and development. Many countries now recognize that the public and private sectors can work together under Public Private Partnership (PPP) agreement in innovative ways to provide public services. Provision of these services in the rural areas will not only enhance infrastructure development but will also add value to rural life. Unfortunately PPP arrangements in infrastructure provision have not been adequately documented in Anambra State of Nigeria

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study was to evaluate the contributions of Public Private Partnership in providing infrastructural projects in the rural areas of Anambra State Nigeria. The study specifically sought to assess the relationship between rural infrastructure needs and level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision; determine the contribution of residents towards establishment of PPP projects; assess the level of achievement of PPP projects in addressing needs; determine the effect of PPP on the income and standard of living of rural dwellers; assess level of bureaucracy and other related challenges constraining provision of infrastructure through PPPs.

2. Methodology

The study adopted the survey research design. The Bowley's formula for sample size determination was used to obtain a manageable sample size of 400. The sample selection procedures were multistage. The first stage involved the selection of two rural local governments from each of the three geographical zones of the state. The second stage involved the selection of respondents from the selected local government areas, through a random sampling process. The proportional stratified statistics such as mean scores, standard deviation, tables, frequency distribution, and simple percentage were used to present and discuss data from field investigation; four hypotheses formulated were tested through the use of Pearson product moment correlation coefficient analysis and multiple regression model of the ordinary least square type. The various tests were at conventional 5% level of significance.

3. Result

The findings revealed that significant infrastructural needs in health, education, road, transportation, water and sanitation have been met through PPP arrangement (Pearson Correlation=0.292; Significant@ 0.01). It was also found that rural residents contributed significantly to PPP project via financial contribution, land donation and provision of securities at project sites (Pearson Correlation=0.191; Significant@ 0.01)., Available evidence also showed that provision of infrastructure through PPP has brought about a significant improvement to the state of rural infrastructure and economic well being of rural dwellers. It was equally found that though bureaucracy and other related problems bedeviled PPP, they do not have significant effect on the level of PPP involvement in infrastructure provision (F ratio=1.074; Significant@ 0.381).

4. Conclusion

The findings of the study have given credence to the belief that involvement of the private sector in the provision of public services and projects are a necessity for sustainable rural development. PPP has been found to have brought about improvement in state of rural infrastructure, thereby contributing substantially to the well being of rural dwellers