

EXPLORING THE ROLE OF PUBLIC SECTOR DYNAMIC CAPABILITIES FOR DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

by

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DECLARATION

I, PATRICIA NONYELUM UGBOMA, confirm that the work presented in this thesis is my own and where information has been derived from other sources, I confirm that this has been indicated in the thesis. I confirm also that this research was carried out with approval from UCL research ethics.

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ABSTRACT

Theories on economic development differ, with some emphasising the role of institutions. This study posits that development cannot happen without public organisations investing in dynamic capabilities. While private sector dynamic capabilities have been assessed, those in the public sector have been underexplored, especially in Africa. The study seeks to address this gap with the main research question that explores how relevant public sector dynamic capabilities are built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria. It considers context as key whilst applying Western theories in African case studies.

The study's focus is on the role of the state in shaping markets, contrasting with the predominant economic orthodoxy of the state as fixing market failures. It uses Mazzucato's ROAR framework as an analytical tool to examine 'Routes' – the state's role in setting direction, 'Organisations' – public sector organisations' abilities to develop and solve societal problems, 'Assessment' – how public organisations are evaluated, and 'Risks and Rewards' – the process of sharing risks and rewards across social actors.

The study uncovers the dynamic capabilities of five successful Nigerian public agencies involved in challenge-led approaches to solving societal problems namely: Nigerian Communication Commission (NCC), National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA), Bank of Industry (BOI), Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS,) and Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning and Budget (LSMEPB). Sixty interviews with highly knowledgeable respondents reveal that these organisations act in entrepreneurial capacities by performing market-shaping roles, such as aiding investments, collaboratively solving societal problems and creating public value in their various ecosystems.

The study's key contribution is the operationalisation of the ROAR framework in the Nigerian context by linking public sector dynamic capabilities to public value created.

It also contributes to policy and practice with the extended taxonomy of dynamic capabilities in Nigeria and the nuanced argument on how investment in dynamic public sector capabilities should be made an integral component of both public and development policy for public value creation. These capabilities are especially necessary in today's highly volatile and fast-paced world. Additionally, the study identifies enablers and inhibitors to developing, deploying and sustaining these public sector capabilities.

IMPACT STATEMENT

The impact of the public sector is considered far reaching and important as it affects societal outcomes, socio-economic development, wealth creation, inequality, and the quality of living of citizens. This study looks at Nigeria as a case study to understand how relevant public sector dynamic capabilities are built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria. It uses a market shaping framework (Mazzucato, 2016) instead of the traditional market fixing one. In so doing, it applies the Mazzucato's (2018) ROAR framework to look at four key aspects of Nigerian public administration: R which is for 'Routes' assesses the role of the state in setting direction to solve societal challenges; O which is for 'Organisations' assesses public sector organisations' abilities to be internally agile, flexible, and be learning agencies; A which is for 'Assessment' covers how public organisations and policies are evaluated, and R which is for 'Risks and Rewards' covers the process of sharing risks and rewards across social actors. In-depth interviews are carried out on leaders of successful public sector agencies and their ecosystem participants. A myriad of key insights is then derived across each element of the ROAR framework. This is beneficial for both the public sector and academia as it goes beyond the traditional focus on failed public organisations in developing countries, outlining various dynamic capabilities, how they are deployed, and the resulting impact on their ecosystems.

The key impact is three-fold. Firstly, it means weaker or less accomplished public sector organisations can benchmark their activities and processes against those highlighted by the study. An example of this is the deliberate and consistent use of stakeholder meetings to ensure alignment on public service delivery and collaboration for public value creation. Secondly, for academia, it provides comparative analysis against similar case studies carried out in Western countries or more developed nations to reveal unique context, similarities, or variances. Future studies might put the taxonomy of capabilities developed here to test in different development contexts. Thirdly, the study contributes to the discourse around data-led policy formulation, organisational culture, resource allocation, prioritisation of public sector objectives, amongst others, providing a sound foundation for further research to be done on any of the dynamic capabilities the study revealed. It shows today's public sector processes as relevant information for the future as historical insights. These insights

will be highly valuable to public sector organisations in Nigeria and across other African countries with similar characteristics. The study can serve as a foundation for governments and social partners conducting research to identify gaps within the public sector and to build on its findings and recommendations. Potential applications include the building of digital solutions to address identified limitations, the making of long-term strategic plans, and the design of public sector conferences or capacity-building initiatives. Its relevance and potential use are in no way limited in form.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my late father, Michael Olisaemeka Ugboma, upon whose death I decided to embark on attaining my PhD in fulfilment of past promise. It is also dedicated to my sons, Nduka and Nnamdi Nduka-Eze as a reminder that they can do anything they set their minds to doing because only the bold prevail.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AAA	Agricultural Adjustment Act
ARPA-E	Advanced Research Projects Agency-Energy
BOI	Bank of Industry
BPSR	Bureau of Public Service Reform
BWI	Bretton Woods Institutions
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DARPA	Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA)
DFID	Department for International Development
EPB	Economic Planning Board
ERGP	Economic Recovery and Growth Plan
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FIRS	Federal Inland Revenue Service
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
KPI	Key Performance Indicators
HDI	Human Development Index
IMT	Inter-ministerial Team
LSMEPB	Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning and Budget
MFT	Market Failure Theory
MITI	Ministry of International Trade and Industry
MSME	Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises
MOIP	Mission-Oriented Innovation Policy
MOIO	Mission-Oriented Innovation Organisation
NCC	Nigerian Communications Commission
NDP	National Development Plan
NITDA	National Information Technology Development Agency
NPG	New Public Governance
NPM	New Public Management
NIRA	National Industrial Recovery Act
NSPR	National Strategy for Public Service Reform
NYSC	Nigeria Youth Service Corp
PA	Public Administration
PAM	Public Administration Management
PAHRM	Public Administration and Human Resource Management
PCT	Public Choice Theory
PEA	Political Economy Analysis
PoE	Pocket of Effectiveness
PPA	Power Politics Analysis
ROAR	Routes, Organisations, Assessment, Risks and Rewards
SAP	Structural Adjustment Program
SERVICOM	Service Compact with All Nigerians
SMM	Service Management and Marketing
SOE	State-owned enterprises

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 RESEARCH PURPOSE AND AIMS

1.1.1 Research Purpose

The public sector is considered important to the outcomes of nations as there is a correlation between the strength of the public administration system and the strength of a country (Peters and Pierre, 2014). This is because the public sector is considered to be the main driver of a country's laws and policies and the executor of public services and initiatives for the citizens (Peters and Pierre, 2014). Consequently, scholars have linked the capacity of the state, which refers to its use of its agencies to implement set-out goals and to provide public goods and services whilst maintaining social order (Skocpol and Finegold, 1982), to economic development (Evans and Rauch, 1999, 2000), industrialisation (Evans, 1995), and transformation and innovation (Weiss, 1998). However, the capabilities inside the public sector have been largely ignored in development literature with little empirical work on this topic in the African continent.

This study posits that there needs to be investments in capabilities and dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems, create public value, and improve the society for citizens (Mazzucato and Kattel, 2020, 2021; Mazzucato, Kattel and Qobo, 2021; Kattel, Drechsler and Karo, 2022). For the purpose of this study, capabilities refer to the core skills, operational routines, and learned processes that enable an organisation to carry out its function, achieve set objectives and deliver specific outcomes (Teece, Pisano and Shuen, 1997; Teece, 2017; Kattel, 2022). Dynamic capabilities, in the context of the public sector, are special routines that allow public organisations to achieve government goals and objectives, optimise resource use (Kattel, 2022; Kattel *et al.*, 2024), and contribute to the building of strong economies (Mazzucato and Kattel, 2020, 2021). The study uses Mazzucato's (2018a) ROAR framework as a conceptual tool to holistically identify dynamic capabilities, assess how they operate within public sector agencies and how these capabilities lead to public value creation. It does so by examining 'Routes' – the state's role in setting direction, 'Organisations' – public sector organisations' abilities to develop and solve societal

problems, 'Assessment' – how public organisations are evaluated, and 'Risks and Rewards' – the process of sharing risks and rewards across social actors.

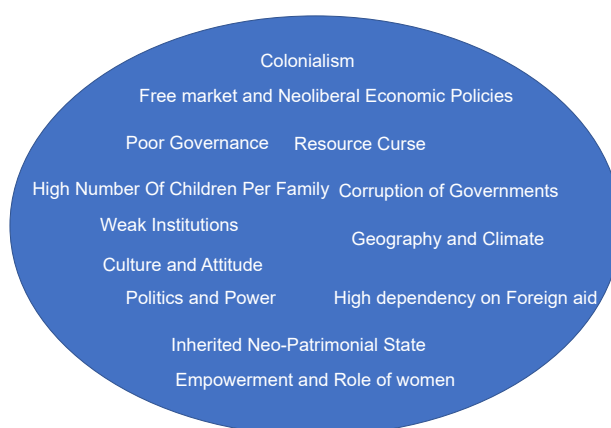
The role played by public sector dynamic capabilities is an emerging area of study (Piening, 2013). Public sector dynamic capabilities refer to the strategic capabilities within public organisations that are needed to facilitate societal transformation (Mazzucato and Kattel, 2018). This is an important focus for this research because scholars highlight the importance of dynamic capabilities represented by the strategic skills and routines within public agencies (Kattel, Drechsler and Karo, 2022). Accordingly, these dynamic capabilities are classified as being used for sense-making, connecting and shaping the activities of the public institutions' ecosystem (Kattel, 2022). Accordingly, these dynamic capabilities are classified as being used for sense-making, connecting and shaping the activities of the public institutions' ecosystem (Kattel, 2022). These three categories of dynamic capabilities are part of the analytical framework of this thesis. Sense-making capabilities includes the use of technical skills (financial, accounting, analytical, proactive, and critical thinking), adoption of technology and automated processes, and the application of research to enable analysis of outputs and outcomes and ecosystem needs. Connecting capabilities involve having open-door and inclusive stakeholder engagement, strategic leadership with shared vision, and strong stakeholder consultation process to enable collaboration when introducing new solutions. Shaping capabilities involve fostering innovation and continuous learning and setting visions for ecosystem innovation to enable design, implementation and embedding of new solutions for the long-term. The study also uncovers enablers – such as strong organisational values, supportive work environments, swift operational responses, positive people management – and inhibitors such as political interference, poor digital innovation, lack of in-house skills, weak monitoring and evaluation, and poor stakeholder management. It argues that these enablers sustain, while the inhibitors erode dynamic capabilities over time.

By ecosystem, this study refers to actors that interact directly with the public agencies. The dynamic capabilities are also built through capacity to adapt and learn, capacity to align public services and citizen needs, capacity to govern resilient production systems, capacity to govern data and digital platforms, and capacity to facilitate inter-

and intra-governmental learning and coordination at different levels of government and internationally (Mazzucato and Kattel, 2020, 2021).

Understanding how dynamic capabilities in the public sector relates to development is central to this study. The study explores the link between the roles of public sector dynamic capabilities and the creation of public value in Nigeria. When considering development, there has long been debate about the causes of underdevelopment of countries, leading to various theories and explanations. Inspired by Mazzucato's (2018a) mission-oriented approach to development, this study moves beyond the view of development as merely the expansion of individual freedoms (Sen, 1999), and instead adopts a perspective that sees development as a tangible societal outcome – one that emerges when governments actively pursue problem-solving and work to improve social conditions. Figure 1.1 below summarises some of the key phrases commonly used to explain persistent underdevelopment in countries such as Nigeria, especially in contrast to developmental progress observed in parts of Southeast Asia. The list is illustrative rather than exhaustive and is discussed in more details in Section 3.2.6.

Figure 1.1: Some Explanations for Development or Non-Development



Source: Compiled By Author

To start off with, there are scholars who contend that culture plays an important role in shaping development outcomes (D. C. North, 1991). Then, there are those who attribute non-development to geography and climate (Montesquieu, 1748; Diamond,

1999; Sachs, 2000), to resource curse (Collier, 2008; Frankel, 2010; Sigman *et al.*, 2022), to poor governance and weak institutions (D. C. North, 1991; Rodrik, Subramanian and Trebbi, 2004; Acemoglu and Robinson, 2013; Ohiorhenuan, 2015), to high dependency on foreign aid (Chang, 2008, 2010a; Moyo, 2010), to high number of children per family (Sachs, 2015), to low empowerment and roles of women in the society (Sachs, 2012), and to corruption of governments and institutions (Chêne, 2014; Ohiorhenuan, 2015).

Some other scholars argue that political conditions and power dynamics are the greatest obstacles to development (Sen, 1981), and that for some countries, development was never a priority (Ake, 1996). Others cite colonialism as an inhibitor of development (Taiwo, 1993; Ocheni and Nwankwo, 2012; Shola, 2015; Klein, 2018), although some scholars name the same colonialism as a panacea for development in former colonised countries (Burns, 1972; Gilley, 2018). Additionally, others blame the free market economic policies introduced by the Bretton Woods Institutions (BWIs) as part of the structural adjustment programme (SAP) implemented by poor countries since the 1980s for the under development of countries like Nigeria (Chang, 2002, 2010a; Danladi and Naankiel, 2016). Finally, some scholars go further to blame the inherited neo-patrimonial state from the British colonial masters that failed to build capabilities and productivity in technology and the economy (Kohli, 2004).

1.1.2 Research Aims

The research aim is to connect the observed agencies' dynamic capabilities with the resultant societal outcomes and public value created. This thesis argues that one would need to get to the core of the underlining structures and organisations that are in place in public sector agencies (Evans and Rauch, 1999, 2000) to explore the role played by dynamic capabilities for development in a developing country context. The research focuses on Nigeria, also known as the 'giant of Africa,' and is directed at the executive arm of government which covers the public organisations that execute policies and public services. It examines five purposefully selected public sector agencies in Nigeria by using a qualitative case study methodology and conducting in-depth interviews with knowledgeable individuals that operate within these organisations' ecosystems. The selected agencies are the Nigerian Communication

Commission (NCC), the National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA), the Bank of Industry (BOI), the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS,) and the Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning and Budget (LSMEPB).

The selection of the agencies is discussed in Sections 5.2.2 and 5.2.3. The selection is guided by two critical objectives of the NDP (2021-2025): diversified economy, and investment in critical infrastructure. The final selection of agencies involved consideration of factors such as organisational transformation between 1999 to 2023, and the appointment of notable professionals to head the agency. The collection of data includes 60 interview sessions with internal and external respondents. The respondents provided insights that aid the understanding of the link between the role of the dynamic capabilities found in the selected public agencies and the creation of public value in Nigeria to answer the research question that asks: *How are relevant public sector dynamic capabilities built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria?*

1.2 BACKGROUND: WHY NIGERIA REMAINS CLASSIFIED AS UNDERDEVELOPED

Nigeria possesses tremendous political influence in West Africa and the wider sub-Saharan African region. However, despite several development plans post-independence since 1960, Nigeria has still not transited into the ranks of a developed nation but is classified as a lower middle income or developing country (The World Bank, 2020). It has also been classified as a hesitant reformer because of its poor track record in implementing civil service reform recommendations over the years (Adamolekun, 1999, 2005). The recognition of the importance of reform of the civil service has led to different scholars embarking on studies to understand the reasons for the minimal impact of the reforms over the years.

From the perspective of its economy, despite being an oil-rich nation, Nigeria has not quite leveraged its gains like the Gulf states and it continues to face developmental challenges that make it vulnerable to economic disruptions such as the recent COVID-19 pandemic (The World Bank, 2020). Moving away from its early focus on agriculture

export, it was not able to establish a viable manufacturing industry because of its dependence on foreign finished goods (Aworawo, 2011). Today, its economy is not diversified, as oil accounts for eighty percent of its exports, one third of its banking credit, and half of its government's revenue, thereby making it prone to the volatility in oil prices (The World Bank, 2020). Nigeria's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is 472.62 billion U.S Dollars but its per capita GDP stands at \$2,162 for the year 2022 (The World Bank, 2022). It was ranked 163 out of 191 countries per the human development index (HDI) in 2022 (UNDP, 2023). This is a low human development classification. Nigeria also has approximately forty percent of its estimated population of 213 million people classified as living below the poverty line of less than \$1.90 per day and an extra twenty-five percent categorised as vulnerable (The World Bank, 2020). Essentially, Nigeria's economic performance does not equate to improvement of key societal factors like poverty, unemployment, and shelter (Ukwandu and Ijere, 2020). This means that despite its high GDP figure, it falls short when assessed by its ability to provide for the population and the appropriate societal conditions and materials for its citizens (Ukwandu and Ijere, 2020). Thus, the performance of the economy and the resultant negative impact on other societal factors, seem to be an underlining characteristic of Nigeria as a country.

Nevertheless, there is continued focus on development as a priority as evidenced by the latest National Development Plan (NDP) for 2021-2025. According to the government of the last administration that ended in May 2023, this plan emerged from the lessons learnt from the previous Vision 20:2020 and the Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (ERGP) that was in place from 2017 to 2020. The plan was put in place following the negative impact on the economy in 2020 from the pandemic, fall in global crude oil prices and social conflicts across the country. Thus, the government through this latest development plan seeks the socio-economic transformation of Nigeria as part of the country's Agenda 2050 (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2021). Chapter 2 contains a detail review of the evolution of the Nigerian State and its civil service.

1.3 RESEARCH GAP AND FOCUS

According to Acemoglu et al (2005), the effective functioning of the public sector is important because it affects the level of poverty, inequality, and socio-economic development. The Nigerian public sector, which began in the colonial period in 1914, follows a Weberian model and has had a number of challenges such as rigidity of duties, lack of flexibility and creativity to respond to the dynamics of the society (Morgan, Okon and Emu, 2019). These problems have led to poor policy formulations and implementation, sub-standard service delivery, lack of accountability and delays in decision making thereby impeding innovation and flexibility in the public sector (Morgan, Okon and Emu, 2019). Consequently, various government administrations have undertaken reforms in the civil service because they recognise its significance in the successful delivery and execution of the country's development agenda. These reforms have not yielded the transformative outcomes across the civil service resulting in Nigeria being classified as a hesitant reformer by studies undertaken by Adamolekun (1999, 2005). This classification is in contrast to countries such as Botswana and Namibia, known as advanced reformers or Ethiopia and Benin, referred to as committed reformers (Adamolekun, 1999, 2005). Table 2.6 in Chapter 2 contains the full classification of 29 African countries.

Thus, the problem of capabilities in the public sector in Nigeria represents a major trigger for this research as scholars acknowledge the urgent need to strengthen human capital in the public service (Olaopa, 2012b). The research seeks to tackle this problem by exploring the role played by public sector dynamic capabilities in some identified performing national and subnational public sector organisations in Nigeria. – examples of pockets of effectiveness (PoE) (Evans, 1989; Geddes, 1990; Hickey, 2019). This is because some scholars attest that there are public organisations whose capabilities can be studied and replicated to facilitate development in Nigeria (Olaopa, 2022). However, whilst the notion of public sector dynamic capabilities is an emerging area of scholarly work in Western countries, there is a gap regarding the nature and the role it plays in the development of countries in the developing world context (Kattel, 2022).

The research goes beyond studying the existence of dynamic capabilities in public organisations in Nigeria by exploring their link to societal outputs and outcomes, and public value creations by the selected agencies. These organisations are known to be successfully providing public goods and services to the society and creating public value despite operating in an environment where this is not typical such as Nigeria per its classification as a hesitant reformer by Adamolekun (1999, 2005). As the focus of this study is on the role played by public sector dynamic capabilities in creating public value in Nigeria, it is important to study capable organisations. Thus, by focusing on examples of PoE in Nigeria, the study provides a practical lens through which to view how the study's selected capable agencies navigate challenges within their context. This approach contributes to the development discourse by shifting focus from systemic failure to potential solutions within the public sector in the developing country context. It follows the direction taken by studies by Gullmark (2021) and Kattel (2022) that focused on studying successful government organisations to understand the different types of dynamic capabilities. It also aligns with the work of Compton and Hart (2019) which advocates the study of positive government stories instead on always focusing on failed government stories. Compton and Hart (2019) state that their work *Great Policy Success*, which is a compilation of success stories across different countries, is influenced by Hall's 1982 book, *Great Planning Disasters*, that focusses on failed public policy stories in some Western countries.

Furthermore, as discussed above, the latter part of the research question focuses on the creation of public value. The notion of public value is highly contested by scholars from market-fixing and market-shaping perspectives. The market-fixing perspective considers public value as the trade-off between the benefits and costs of public services to its beneficiaries. Whereas the emerging view on public value creation, from a market-shaping perspective, involves governments playing key roles to direct markets towards the attainment of positive societal outcomes and more inclusive societies (Mazzucato and Ryan-Collins, 2019). For the purpose of this study, the identified social value created by the ecosystem participants' activities due to the policies or interventions of the relevant public agency is equated to the co-created public value.

Scholars use the concept of social value to describe companies' long term goals to achieve a combination of financial value and positive impacts for the communities where they operate (Khalifa, 2020). Another perspective from the public services' perspective, the UK Social Value Act (2013) requires that public procurement considers wider valuable benefits of goods and services before they are procured (Toleikyte and Salway, 2015; Mazzucato and Wainwright, 2024). Conversely, public value refers to the creation of value from public sector's activities. Although public value as a concept didn't previously exist in neoliberal terms – as governments were considered unproductive – it has also become contested by scholars.

1.4 RESEARCH STRATEGY AND APPROACH

1.4.1 Research Strategy

The study considers different public agencies to explore the societal outcomes and public value that emerged from their dynamic capabilities in line with the work by Paukku et al (2010) on firms. This work argues that by combining dynamic capability per Teece et al (1997) and the capability theory approach per Sen (1999), the identification of capabilities within the ecosystems can be achieved. This is an ecosystem approach that moves beyond the level of the organisation to capture interdependences and social outcomes (Paukku, Koria and Kourula, 2010). It involves the interviewing of participants within the selected public agencies' ecosystems that comprised of internal and external stakeholders. The internal respondents comprised senior individuals that worked or had worked in the agencies between 1999 to 2023. 1999 is a significant year for this study because it represents the start of the Fourth Republic and the year of recommencement of democratic rule in Nigeria. This is an important factor to consider because scholars argue that the development of the public sector is linked to the drive by a strong political leadership (Tilley *et al.*, 2015). The external respondents were made up of ecosystem participants that worked directly with the agencies.

The study is conducted from a market-shaping and heterodox perspective which contrasts with the predominant market-fixing and neoliberal viewpoint that countries like Nigeria have followed since the introduction of the SAP in the 1980s. The

heterodox and market-shaping perspective to studying the role governments play attests that governments actively shape the evolution and structure of markets to achieve the country's economic and societal goals (Kattel *et al.*, 2018). An illustration of this perspective is the mission-oriented innovation policy (MOIP). This is a challenge-led role played by governments to set bold targets and missions and to collaborate with different societal actors and sectors for observable positive societal outcomes (Mazzucato, 2021). Mazzucato's (2018a) ROAR framework underpins the MOIP for development and provides the tool used in conducting this study.

The ROAR framework comprises of 'Routes' – the role of the state in setting direction, 'Organisations' – the abilities of public agencies to develop and solve societal problems, 'Assessment' – how public institutions are evaluated, and 'Risk and Rewards' – the process of sharing risks and rewards across social actors. The ROAR framework is useful for this study as it enables the formulation of the main research question, sub-questions, and the interview questions. It is used in conjunction with other theories that aid in the explanation of different phenomenon being studied under each component. However, whilst it offered some level of flexibility for the different stages of the research, it has its own limitation – it doesn't provide specific factors for consideration under each component. This means that there could be different interpretations by different scholars on how it should be used.

The market-fixing policy environment, in contrast, involve governments targeting specific failures in the market to allow the playing field to be levelled for private enterprise to thrive (Kattel *et al.*, 2018). This neoliberal mindset has been the dominant perspective in Nigeria since the introduction of policy directions – Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) – by the Bretton Woods Institutions (BWIs) in the 1980s. This mindset also affected public administration as the civil service adopted New Public Management (NPM) model to align with the private sector practices with the adoption of the Philips Commission (1988) recommendations (Adamolekun, 2005; Mbuba, 2016; Ukwandu and Ijere, 2020). Today, though there are contestations on the nature of the Nigerian economy regarding being a neoliberal, planned or mixed economy, its public sector still practice neoliberal policies such as NPM whilst playing market-shaping roles like setting directions for their industries.

1.4.2 Research Approach

The research approach and design are discussed in detail in Chapter 5. The research process is iterative – by deductively applying the ROAR framework, before abductively analysing emerging themes (Bryman, 2012). It is also constructive by moving beyond just finding problems or identifying public-sector dynamic capabilities to connecting them to the creation of public value for citizens by the public agencies (Creswell, 2014).

In terms of methodology, the study uses a qualitative case study approach to explore the role played by dynamic capabilities in selected public sector agencies for the evolution and transformation of the society. Leveraging case study as a methodology enables the uncovering of decisions made by the organisations being studied through interviews and document review. The decision to utilise a case study approach is supported by the recommendation made by Hickey (2019) for future analyses following his study, *The politics of state capacity and development in Africa: Reframing and researching 'pockets of effectiveness*. Hickey's (2019) study was conducted in four countries in Africa (Ghana, Rwanda, Uganda, and Zambia), by using surveys to identify economic technocracy as the key success factors in public institutions. The study is also guided by the work done by Gullmark (2021) and Kattel (2022) which use case study methodologies. Gullmark (2021) focused on the studying of dynamic public sector innovation capabilities in four Norwegian municipalities by interviewing 60 participants. Kattel (2022) studied three public institutions – the UK's Government Digital Service, the city of Barcelona and Sweden's Vinnova, to review the notion and components of dynamic capabilities. However, whilst there is precedence for using case study methodology for this research, it is difficult to replicate research designs because of differing contexts (Yin, 2009). This limitation is addressed by ensuring that there is an audit trail for the research which can be replicated by future researchers (Korstjens and Moser, 2018).

1.5 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

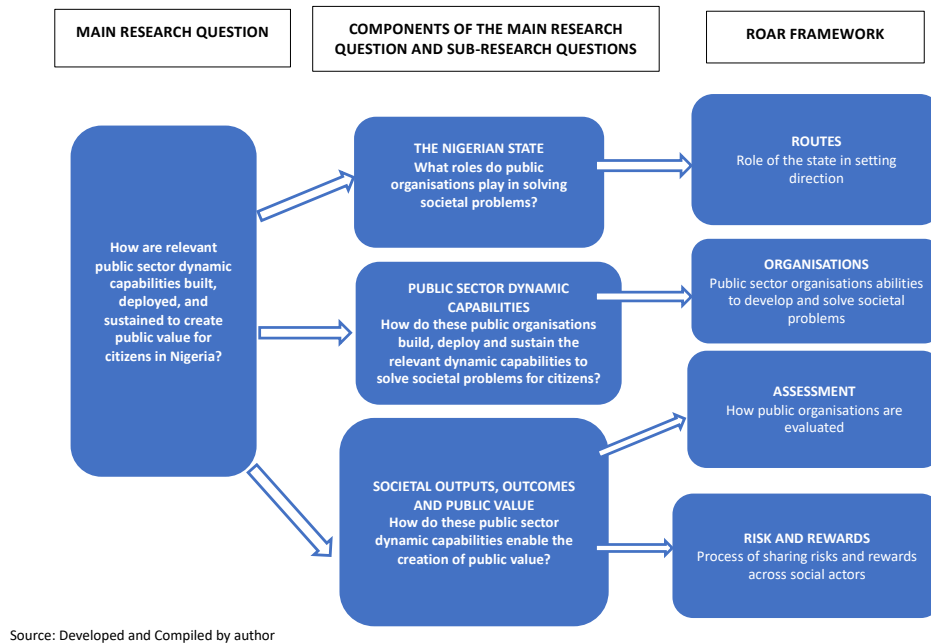
As mentioned above, the research is centred around the ROAR framework which shaped the formulation of the main research question. The initial research question

was set as *How are relevant public sector dynamic capabilities built, deployed, and sustained to improve the society for citizens in Nigeria?* However, since the research was designed to only include respondents that had direct dealings with the agencies – either as internal or external stakeholders – and not the general public, the scope of the research question had to be revised. Furthermore, as stated earlier, the notion of public sector dynamic capabilities is an emerging area of study, particularly from a developing country context. Thus, it was considered more appropriate to focus this preliminary project on the insights obtained from direct ecosystem participants.

In refining the ending phrase of the question, two options were considered – the creation of ‘social value’ or the creation of ‘public value.’ Building on these two endings, the definitions of social value and public value helps to frame the direction of the research. In this study, social value refers to the long-term benefits generated through the business activities of ecosystem participants (Khalifa, 2020), while public value is co-created through collaboration between government agencies and other actors to produce positive societal outcomes and foster more inclusive societies (Mazzucato and Ryan-Collins, 2019). Considering both definitions, it was concluded that the value described by external respondents – as arising from their organisations’ engagement with government agencies – more appropriately reflected the creation of public value. As a result, the research question was revised to: *How are relevant public sector dynamic capabilities built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria?*

The research question has three main parts – Nigeria, Public Sector Dynamic Capabilities, and Societal Outputs, Outcomes, and Public Value. These different parts of the main research question gave rise to the three sub-research questions as illustrated in the second column of Figure 1.2 below. Additionally, the three sub-research questions link to the four components of the ROAR framework as depicted with the arrows linking the second and the third columns of Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2: Linking the Research Question with the ROAR Framework



The first part corresponds with the first sub-research question that asks: *What roles do public organisations play in solving societal problems?* This question aligns with the ‘Routes’ component of ROAR and enables the high-level understanding of how the public sector agencies are structured to effectively solve societal problems. The second sub-question asks: *How do these public organisations build, deploy and sustain the relevant dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems for citizens?* This question enables the exploration of the different factors considered under ‘Organisation’ part of the ROAR framework to understand the public organisations’ characteristics and processes employed for deploying and institutionalising dynamic capabilities. The third sub-research question asks: *How do these public sector dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value?* This question enables the exploration of the ‘Assessment’ and ‘Risks and Rewards’ components of the ROAR framework by linking the capabilities and dynamic capabilities with the reported outputs, societal outcomes and public value created. The risks undertaken by the agencies are represented by the various roles they play in the ecosystem, whilst the rewards by the agencies are considered as the resultant improvements in society as highlighted by the ecosystem participants.

Finally, the sub-research questions are then used for the formulation of the interview questions that were put to the respondents – the details of which are in Section 5.3.2 in Chapter 5. Furthermore, the ROAR framework is also used for the presentation and analysis of the responses provided by the participants contained in Chapters 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 and discussions in Chapter 11.

1.6 RESEARCH SIGNIFICANCE

This study is important because it reviews the activities of public institutions in Nigeria following the previous governments' attempts to reform the civil service system. It is also significant by contributing to ongoing scholarly debates about the role played by the public sector in the development of countries. Additionally, it highlights the importance of focusing on successful Nigerian public sector case studies rather than the usual emphasis on failed or non-performing organisations. Finally, by exploring public sector dynamic capabilities and the creation of public value – both emerging areas of study – the research is positioned to have significance to public organisations, public policy, theory, and global trends.

Significance to Public Organisations

The result of the study is valuable for the Nigerian public sector as a whole because it is focused on the activities of successful public organisations in Nigeria. The insights from the study on the identified dynamic capabilities and public value created could be used by public administrators to transform and revitalise non-performing public organisations to solve their relevant challenges for the benefit of the country. The study could also be regarded as a reference for other sub-Saharan countries with non-performing public organisations as they can apply the findings in their public agencies.

Significance to Public Policy

This study is influenced by the ethos of the Institute for Innovation and Public Policy at UCL, which seeks to redefine the way public value is considered, created, and assessed in solving societal challenges. Consequently, it is positioned to encourage stronger collaboration between the public sector and other stakeholders. As societal challenges, both in Nigeria and globally, require new ways to how governments

develop solutions, the study provides evidence to support public agencies in adopting market-shaping roles rather than just implementing market-fixing policies when failures occur. Furthermore, the challenge led approach to policy making proposed in this study is expected to inspire governments to set bold, mission-oriented goals that encourage collaboration among different societal actors to collectively solve societal problems and co-create public value.

Significance to Theory

The notion of public sector dynamic capabilities is an emerging area in public administration literature. This study's findings are valuable contributions by contextualising these capabilities within the operations of successful Nigerian public agencies. The expands the taxonomy of dynamic capabilities found in the public sector in different locations. The use of the ROAR framework as a research tool for the framing of the research questions, setting of the interview questions and the analysis of the findings provides scholars with a theoretical framework for their studies. Additionally, the study adds to the definition of public value by tracing the social value created by ecosystem partners in response to challenges addressed by the agencies and equating this to public value created. Finally, by linking the public value created to the specific dynamic capabilities identified within the agencies, the study proposes a theoretical approach for assessing the impact of public sector dynamic capabilities.

Significance to Global Trends

Today's world is characterised by fast-paced evolution, including the growing trend of reduced foreign aid from Western countries, highlighting the urgent need for dynamic capabilities in developing countries. Thus, the public sector is faced with increasing expectations in their provision of quality public services with a burgeoning need for innovation (Bosse *et al.*, 2015). Global challenges including the COVID-19 pandemic, climate change challenges, advancement in artificial intelligence technologies, amongst others have tested the capability of governments to think fast and respond. For one, the lessons from countries' responses to the pandemic reveal the importance of investing in both long-term capacities as well as dynamic capabilities in the public sector, some of which include the ability to effectively interact with other value creators in society from the private sector and other citizen innovators (Mazzucato and Kattel,

2021). In the same vein, the climate crisis requires governments and the public sector to take the lead to achieve ambitious outcomes (Mazzucato, 2021).

Mazzucato (2021) explains that policymakers are in the position to determine the direction of growth based on the strategic investments they make and in how they coordinate actions across sectors towards nurturing new industrial landscapes upon which the private sector can further develop. As such, just as some countries were able to contain the virus better than others and certain nations, no doubt, are closer to attaining a carbon-free world than most, this thesis provides a useful framework to uncover the dynamic capabilities of star performers and early public sector innovators globally.

1.7 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

In addition to the key definitions of social value and public value in section 1.5, this section outlines and clarifies other key definitions that are valuable to the study.

Capabilities

This refers to the routines, practices, and processes employed to make the most of the available resources and effectively utilise available capacity. It reflects an organisation's ability to transform resources into outcomes, respond to changing environments, solve problems, and create public value (Kattel *et al.*, 2024). Dynamic capabilities are embedded within organisational routines (Kattel *et al.*, 2024).

Capacity

This refers to resources – funds, human capital, structures like procurement etc. – used to achieve government's goals (Kattel *et al.*, 2024). A government agency's capacity might include the creation of bureaucratic structures and legislation and its budget or established process to implement a nationwide programme. It is the basis upon which adaptive and innovative actions are built to enable the mobilisation of available resources to respond to societal needs (Kattel *et al.*, 2024). To differentiate between capacities and capabilities, capacity relates to the existence of resources and means to implement – for example having trained staff, budgets, and systems in place,

while capabilities are about using these means effectively – for example allocating resources, designing processes, or experimenting with new approaches when conditions change (Kattel et al., 2024).

Cultural realities

These are the identifiable experiences, beliefs, values, practices, and norms that shape or determine how individuals understand and interact with the world within a specific culture or society (Smith, 1999; Santos, 2016).

Dynamic Capabilities' Enablers

These are conditions or processes the study identifies such as strong organisational and professional values that facilitate the development, deployment, and sustainability of dynamic capabilities.

Dynamic Capabilities' Inhibitors

These are conditions or processes the study highlights such as political interference and poor stakeholder management that hinder or erode the development and sustainability of dynamic capabilities.

Internally Generated Revenue (IGR)

This refers to the income that is generated by sub-national governments from within their jurisdiction. It includes revenues from taxes, fees, levies, and service charges and excludes allocations from the federal government.

Market-shaping

This refers to governments achieving societal improvements by proactively focusing on tilting the playing field in the required direction and coordinating the solving of societal challenges across sectors (Mazzucato, 2016).

Mission-oriented innovation policy (MOIP)

This describes the challenge-led role played by governments to set bold targets and missions and to collaborate with different societal actors and sectors for observable positive societal outcomes (Mazzucato, 2016).

Objective

This refers to the extent to which public sector agencies are able to define clear and measurable targets towards the attainment of their broad purpose (Mintzberg, 1983).

Policy Design

This is the process of structuring public interventions, programmes, and regulations to address societal challenges. According to Kattel et al (2024), robust policy design emerges from the relationship between dynamic capabilities and state capacity.

Public Sector Dynamic capabilities

This refers to the strategic routines within public organisations that are needed to facilitate societal transformation (Mazzucato and Kattel, 2018). This is the ability of the public sector to purposefully adapt in response to evolving environments, challenges, and opportunities. For example, the study shows a public sector agency institutionalising stakeholder meetings to aid effective policy formulation.

Public Sector Ecosystem

These are complex networks that operate at different levels – citizen, organisational, local and regional, national, and international layers (Osborne, 2010; Ojasalo and Kauppinen, 2022). While the term comes from biology (where it means a community of living organisms interacting with each other and their physical environment), it has been widely adopted in business, governance, technology, and social sciences to describe complex, collaborative environments. Thus, the interconnected ecosystem actors interact and integrate resources in ways that shape each other's development and performance to co-produce and co-create public value (Osborne, 2010; Ojasalo and Kauppinen, 2022).

Purpose

This refers to the overarching reason for the existence of a public agency; it fundamentally addresses the existence of directionality within the public sector (Mintzberg, 1983).

ROAR Framework

An analytical tool proposed by Mazzucato (2018a) which provides a holistic approach to assessing public organisations' capabilities using four components – Routes, Organisations, Assessment, and Risks and Rewards – to enable an understanding of the connection between dynamic capabilities and the creation of public value.

Social Actors

Individuals, groups, or organisations with the capacity to influence or respond to societal and policy processes. In public sector ecosystems, they include government agencies, private firms, civil society organisations, and citizens. These actors interact across different levels of society to integrate resources and co-produce public value (Osborne, 2010; Ojasalo and Kauppinen, 2022).

Resource

Any tangible or intangible asset that is used to achieve an organisation's goals is a resource. Tangible assets could be financial resources, while intangible assets include information, infrastructure, or expertise. Per Kattel et al 2004, these resources are embedded within the state capacity.

Routine

A repeated, structured activity or process, such as monthly performance reviews or community consultations, that guides how an organisation operates. Accordingly, organisational capacity enable state capacity (Kattel et al., 2024).

1.8 SUMMARY, THESIS OUTLINE AND GUIDE

This chapter lays the foundation for the thesis by providing background information on Nigeria's classification as an underdeveloped country and presenting the justification for the research. It highlights the critical relationship between the public sector and development, and it examines the capability challenges facing Nigeria's public sector as a key motivation for the study. The chapter also identifies a gap in the literature concerning the nature and role of public sector dynamic capabilities in the development trajectories of countries in developing countries. It provides some

examples of the observed dynamic capabilities' routines in the public agencies under sense-making, connecting and shaping dynamic capabilities and highlights the existence of enablers that help sustain dynamic capabilities and inhibitors that erode them over time. It introduces the five selected public agencies – viewed as PoE – which are analysed through a case study methodology in a constructive manner. Finally, it traces the evolution of the main research question and sub-questions, which are anchored in the ROAR framework – the market-shaping lens that underpins this research. It finally concluded that the study is significant to public institutions, to policy and to theory.

The remaining chapters of this thesis are outlined below.

In chapter 2, a historical review and power and politics analysis of the evolution of the Nigerian state and its civil service is conducted to illustrate the evolution of the Nigerian state and the resultant development outcomes overtime. Thus, enabling the exploration of the interplay between the developmental policies of Nigeria, the status and role of the public administration function, and the social outcomes as a background for this study. Chapter two also provides a snapshot view of the different eras in Nigeria's development from early history to present day. It then reflects on the various reforms of the Nigerian civil service that resulted in its classification by Adamolekun's (1999, 2005) as a hesitant reformer and Evans and Rauch (1999, 2000) as having low Weberianness score. It concludes that despite these classifications, some scholars argue the existence of pockets of effectiveness within the Nigerian civil service which are the focus of the study.

Chapter 3 contains the literature review and concentrates on three main areas of scholarship. It starts off by explaining the use of different databases such as Google Scholar and Web of Science databases to conduct key word searches for books, journals, and e-books to retrieve literature that align with the three components for this research described here. Firstly, it starts with the exploration of literature on the role the state plays in solving societal problems by considering its capability and legitimacy. Secondly, it addresses the notion of public sector dynamic capabilities towards assessing how public organisations build, deploy and sustain dynamic capabilities to

solve societal problems. Thirdly, it addresses literature that allow the consideration of societal outputs, outcomes and public value. Furthermore, the gaps in the literature are identified as relating to the need to study and address the building, deploying, and sustaining of public sector dynamic capabilities in the developing world context to enable public value creation.

Chapter 4 highlights the use of the ROAR framework as a guide to link different theories and to enable the presentation and analysis of the study's findings. It explains that the research follows a qualitative approach in a constructive manner (Creswell, 2014) in its application of the ROAR framework. It then reviews and contextualises the four components of the ROAR framework in detail in line with the study. Thus, this chapter is instrumental for the subsequent chapters of the thesis.

Chapter 5 contains a detailed account of the research design, data collection and extraction. It outlines in detail the methodology and methods that used the ROAR framework that are central to this research. It provides justification for using case study as a methodology because the study is influenced by studies on public sector dynamic capabilities in Western countries by Gullmark (2021) and Kattel (2022) which use case study methodologies. It then explains the mode of selection of the five agencies using the NDP 2021-2025 and provides insights on the interview process taken and the way data was extracted from the responses obtained from the 60 interview sessions for presentation and analysis. Additionally, it addresses the research ethics issues, by highlighting the concerns, the mitigating factors, and the research quality to provide readers and scholars with assurances of the trustworthiness and reliability of the study (Merriam and Tisdell, 2015; Patton, 2015). The chapter ends by providing a reflexivity statement on the suitability of the researcher to conduct the study.

The findings from the 60 interview sessions are presented and analysed in chapters 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10. Chapter 6 summarises the background and demography of the participants of the 60 interview sessions – 31 internal stakeholders and 29 external stakeholders – that comprise of 12 respondents per agency. The chapter gives credence to the level of expertise and experience of the respondents to provide valuable information on their respective agencies.

The ROAR framework serves as a tool to present the findings and analyse the emerging themes in the following chapters in the following order – Chapter 7, ‘Routes,’ Chapter 8, ‘Organisation,’ Chapter 9, ‘Assessment’ and Chapter 10 ‘Risk and Rewards.’

Chapter 7 on Routes provides a foundation for the nature of work carried out by the agencies; to present and analyse the findings from the interview sessions carried out to address the first sub-research question that aligns with ‘Routes’ of the ROAR framework: *What roles do public organisations play in solving societal problems?* It does this by assessing their purpose, objectives, and strategies using interview questions. Under purpose, it highlights the gaps identified by respondents and compares them to the agencies’ publicised mission and vision statements to assess the level of understanding of the respondents on the *raison d’être* of the agencies. The core objectives of the agencies as well as the specific strategies employed in problem solving are also identified based on responses from the lenses of both internal and external respondents. In relation to the first sub-research question, the chapter concludes that the agencies play both market-shaping and market-fixing roles in solving their relevant societal problems and that they work collaboratively with stakeholders to implement solutions in their ecosystems.

Chapter 8 presents a view of the inner workings of the agencies to answer the second sub-research question that aligns with ‘Organisations’ of the ROAR framework: *How do these public organisations build, deploy and sustain the relevant dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems for citizens?* It starts off by presenting responses to interview questions to understand the agencies’ structures and contexts and to assess factors such as human resource management, working relationship with ecosystem, working relationship with social partners, core functions, proactive vs reactive work, critical success factors, strengths, and weaknesses, and outsourced roles. The chapter concludes that, though the agencies have some strong characteristics that contribute to the building, deploying and sustaining of dynamic capabilities, the weakness around political interference and nepotism can derail these positive characteristics and potentially inhibit the thriving of dynamic capabilities.

Chapter 9 presents and analyses respondents' feedback on the outputs and achievements of the agencies over the years, focusing on the 'Assessment' component of the ROAR framework towards answering the third sub-research question: *How do these public sector dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value?* The respondents were asked to assess their agencies' performance with each agency highlighting its own distinct activities in pursuit of its stated objectives. The chapter presents a comparative analysis of responses by internal and external respondents to reveal areas of alignment and differences. It analyses the results based on frameworks such as that of Laaksonen and Peltoniemi (2018) which, while best suited for the private sector, serves as a guide on the evaluation of the agencies' outputs. Consequently, the chapter analysis revealed the range of physical, organisational, and administrative infrastructures implemented by the agencies. It ends by revealing that the findings from Chapter 10 was critical to completely answer the third sub-research question.

Chapter 10 set out to present and analyse respondents' feedback on the 'Risks and Rewards' component of the ROAR framework towards answering the third sub-research question: *How do these public sector dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value?* This was done by exploring the interview responses provided by respondents, using process tracing on the problems solved by the agencies, how they were solved, the effects the agencies' outputs on their ecosystems and the social values created by the different agencies. It defined the roles played by the agencies as the risks they undertook, while social value involves both the outcomes achieved by the agencies themselves and the benefits generated by ecosystem partners as a result of the agencies' activities. Consequently, it offered a nuanced understanding of how the agencies' efforts translated into both tangible and intangible benefits, highlighting the relationship between public sector risk-taking and the value created within their ecosystems. The chapter concludes by linking the societal challenges addressed by the agencies to the value created by their ecosystems which also refers to the public value they created.

Chapter 11 provides in-depth discussions on the analysed findings. It highlights the nuances of public sector dynamic capabilities and public value created in the Nigerian

context. It identifies three core categories of dynamic capabilities routines: sense-making, connecting and shaping with examples from different agencies. It also identifies and illustrates the presence of enablers and inhibitors that can potentially result in the sustainability or eroding of dynamic capabilities respectively in the long run. These are potential areas for future studies to explore their long-term effect on institutions dynamic capabilities. In other words, this thesis will argue that the use of dynamic capabilities routine categories in the public sector, supported by enabling conditions and protected from inhibiting factors, contribute to the creation of public value. It will demonstrate that while dynamic capabilities allow agencies to adapt, innovate, and sustain change, their long-term viability is contingent upon creating conducive environments and mitigating the structural and cultural barriers that undermine them. Finally, chapter 11 addresses the research limitations, proffers recommendations, and discusses the implications of the study to public institutions, public policy, and theory before ending with concluding remarks. One major conclusion is that in spite of these institutions operating in an environment that has had strong neoliberal influences, the agencies act as market-shapers by setting directions, aiding investments, and facilitating stakeholder and sectoral collaborations in solving societal problems.

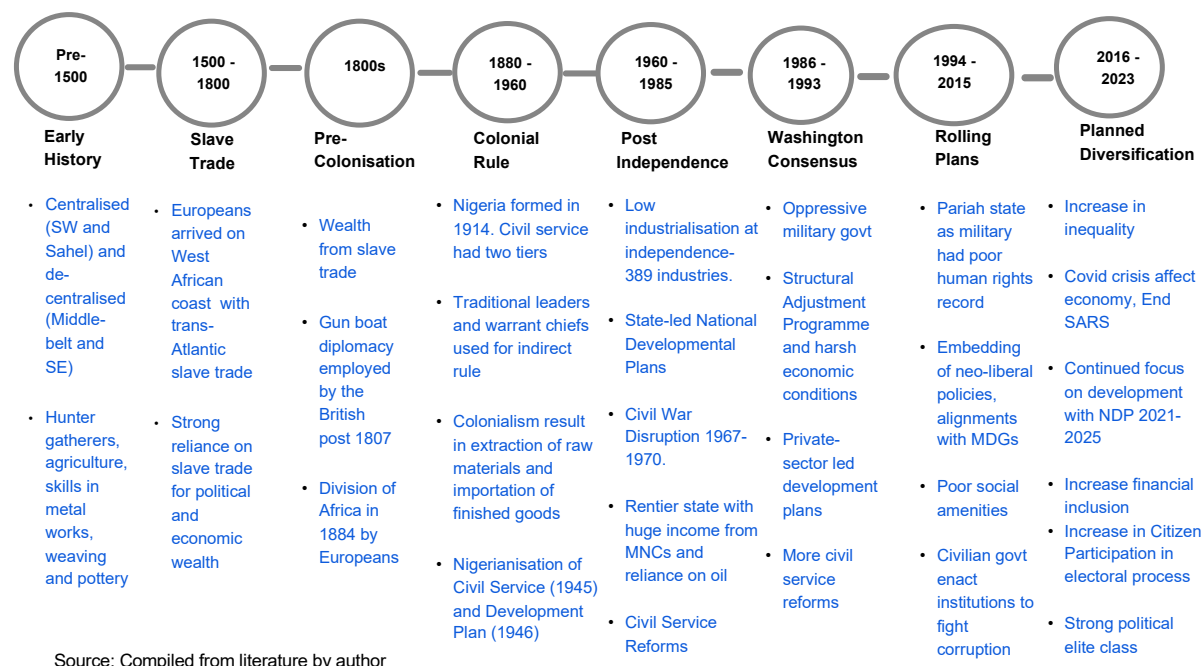
CHAPTER 2: A REVIEW OF THE EVOLUTION OF THE NIGERIAN STATE AND ITS CIVIL SERVICE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to conduct a historical review and assessment of the state and the civil service of Nigeria by providing a high-level contextual analysis of its evolution and the resultant development outcomes over different time periods. History is key as it sets context for pathways a country takes. Therefore, this chapter engages in discussions on the transformation of the Nigerian state from precolonial years to present day to provide background information and set the context for answering the main research question that seeks to explore how relevant public sector dynamic capabilities are built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria. While the Nigerian state comprises of three branches: the *legislative*, *executive*, and *judicial* (The Federal Government of Nigeria, 1999), this study focuses on the executive arm which contains the public organisations and the civil service departments that are responsible for executing government policies and providing public services. The chapter also reviews the historical interplay between the developmental policies of Nigeria, the status and the role of the public administration function, and the social outcomes to set the context for this study.

Figure 2.1 below provides a quick summary of Nigeria's developmental pathway. It is used to show the overarching high-level depiction of the outcomes of the interaction between the different societal actors and policies from early history and precolonial times to present day. It is referred to in sections 2.2 to 2.5 under the different historical timelines.

Figure 2.1: Nigeria Historical Developmental Pathway



The first three columns of Figure 2.1, covering pre-1500 to 1800s, capture the early history and pre-colonial activities in the Nigerian region. These events are discussed in detail in section 2.2 together with Table 2.1, which summarises the public governance structure in this era. The fourth column outlines some of the occurrences during the colonial rule between 1880 and 1960 that are discussed in section 2.3, outlining the emergent civil service and developmental outcomes depicted on Table 2.2. The fifth column shows a snapshot of the post-independence activities in Nigeria from 1960 to 1985 discussed in section 2.4. Section 2.4 also assesses the various post-independence development plans and civil service reforms during this era. The sixth, seventh and eight columns address events from 1986 to 2023 and are discussed in sections 2.5.1, 2.5.2 and 2.5.3 respectively. Additionally, Tables 2.4 and 2.5 showcase the developmental outcomes following implementation of different development plans and civil service reforms post Washington Consensus era.

Finally, section 2.6 contains a reflection on the impact of the various civil service reforms on Nigeria's development and concludes that the various Nigerian governments recognise the important role played by its public sector in enabling developmental outcomes of the country.

2.2 EARLY HISTORY AND PRE-COLONIAL NIGERIA- PRE 1800

Precolonial Nigeria had different types of states that were influenced by ecological factors to trade and ideologies (Obikili, 2018). Scholars argue that the state in Africa was organised around social units of patrilineal descent groups, ancestries and tribes (Kohli, 2004). The region known as Nigeria was not formed until 1914 and the area comprises of different ethnic groups and tribes, who migrated into the region over several centuries and evolved to great kingdoms, societies and complex systems of government that were independent of Europe and other continents (Crowder, 1978; Falola and Heaton, 2008). These societies were organised into loose decentralised state systems in the first millennium CE and the first large scale centralised states emerged in 1100 CE with great kingdoms like Kanem-Borno in the north, and Oyo, Ife and Benin kingdoms in the south (Kirk-Greene, 1966; Crowder, 1978; Falola and Heaton, 2008).

According to Kirk-Greene, British colonial officers found established, centralised governance structures in the North, particularly the Sokoto Caliphate with a clear administrative hierarchy, taxation systems, judicial structures (sharia law courts), and political authority centred on the Emir and subordinate chiefs. The established kingdoms gave rulers political and spiritual authority over their subjects and the kings were mostly located in the capital of the region, which represented the hub of political and trade activities.

The societies in the south-eastern part of the Nigerian region, comprising of Igbos, operated a decentralised gerontocratic system where political power and governance was based on kinship groups, councils of elders, and deliberative assemblies; decision-making was collective and fluid rather than by hierarchy. (Kirk-Greene, 1966; Falola and Heaton, 2008; Mayowa, 2014). The elders were responsible for the most important community decisions and the various societies organised themselves around the chiefs at the village level and in some cases, in markets, which were the designated locations for village meetings. Essentially, pre-nineteenth century Nigeria had both centralised, in the Sahel and southwest regions, and decentralised states that were participatory in nature through citizens' lineages, age-grades, and groupings or societies, in the southeast region (Falola and Heaton, 2008).

In terms of economic activities, as shown in the first row of Table 2.1 below, the region moved from hunting to agriculture followed by the trading of goods, slaves, and palm kernel (Falola and Heaton, 2008).

Table 2.1: Summary of Pre-Colonial Nigeria and Public Governance Structure – Early History to 1800s

Period	Main Focus/Policies/Ideologies	Governance Structure/Civil Service Reforms	Developmental Outcomes/Impact
Early History BCE-1500 CE	1. Iron smelting, hunting, intra- and inter- community trade, in goods and slaves (Falola and Heaton, 2008).	1. Central governance structure in Sahel and SW, decentralised structure in SE (Kohli, 2004; Obikili, 2018).	1. Transition from Hunter-gatherers (9000 to 1500 CE) into agriculture with communities built around farming. Inter-community, trans-Saharan, and trade by barter, (Falola and Heaton, 2008), and by commodity currencies (Lovejoy, 1974; Abubakar and Yandaki, 2022).
Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade-C1500-C1800	1. Warfare and violence; emergence of Islam in the North; start of trans-Atlantic trade (slave, food, textiles, and gold) (Falola and Heaton, 2008).	1. Community leaders in SE, Emirs and Kings in the Sahel and SW. Rise and fall of the Oyo-Empire in the SW (1600-	1. Middlemen used for commodities' trade. Sophisticated weapons for warfare facilitated by trans-Saharan and trans-Atlantic slave trade. 2. Strong reliance on slave trade by

Period	Main Focus/Policies/Ideologies	Governance Structure/Civil Service Reforms	Developmental Outcomes/Impact
		1836 AD), emergence of other kingdoms- e.g., Benin (Falola and Heaton, 2008).	community leaders for political and economic wealth but proceeds were used to import goods not to develop local economy. (Falola and Heaton, 2008).
Pre-Colonisation-1800s	1. Commercial trade in palm oil based on 'trust' system with the British. Abolishment of Slave Trade by the British in 1807. 2. Increased missionary activities.	1. Jihad led to transition from autocratic Hausa states to Fulani empire and Sokoto Caliphate in north. 2. British used missionaries then the military to overpower region.	1. Growth in Islam and Christianity. 2. Palm oil trade replaced slave trade. 3. British began bypassing middlemen in the 'trust' system to buy directly from community leaders. 4. British interference in local politics, annexed coasts and expanded political interest inland Nigeria region. (Falola and Heaton, 2008).

Source: Compiled by author

The developmental outcome at the end of 1500CE was intercommunity trade by barter and by commodity currencies such as slaves, cowrie shells, manillas, iron rods, silver gold, and cloth money (Lovejoy, 1974; Abubakar and Yandaki, 2022). The fourth column of the second row of Table 2.1 shows increased trans-Saharan and trans-Atlantic trade between C1500 and C1800. However, the abolition of slave trade policy

in 1807, mentioned on the third row, did not result in improved trade with Africa by the Europeans through middlemen, but led to their interference in local politics and the use of force to colonise and take control of the resources in the Nigerian region (Austin, 2010; Ocheni and Nwankwo, 2012; Klein, 2018).

2.3 COLONIAL NIGERIA, THE EMERGENCE OF THE CIVIL SERVICE AND THE ROAD TO INDEPENDENCE – 1800S TO 1960

During the 1800s the centralised states dominated the geopolitical and economic activities of the region. The Islamic jihad in the north led by Usman dan Fodio, resulted in the establishment of the Sokoto Caliphate, whilst in the south, the Oyo empire collapsed leading to several wars across the Yoruba south-west region (Falola and Heaton, 2008). There was also the British abolition of slave trade in 1807 which meant that trade had to be redirected to other commodities. These were what the British referred to as 'legitimate commerce,' with trade in items such as palm oil and palm kernels dominating (Burns, 1972; Falola and Heaton, 2008). Palm oil was extremely valuable to the British as it was used for making candles, soap, and lubricants for use in the industrial plants.

So, slowly, the British began to encroach the Nigerian region. Some argue that the massive growth in palm oil trade can be directly linked to the fall in slave trade. During the 1800s, the British moved from trading with African middlemen to full domination and control of all aspects of the economy (Ake, 1996) using 'gun-boat' diplomacy to supposedly stop slave traders, whilst intimidating the African states who had weak military power (Ocheni and Nwankwo, 2012). The timing of the colonisation of the African continent has been strongly linked by scholars to the period of industrial revolution in Europe, when the European factories were expanding at a fast rate and requiring huge supply of raw materials to satisfy demands (Ward, 1994). Gradually, over forty years, using traders, missionaries, and eventually force, the British colonised the Nigerian region. This resulted in the political joining of different communities, states, and cultures, who previously interacted with each other via trade, battles and social activities. Kirk-Greene's (1966) selected documents reveal colonial bias in interpreting pre-colonial systems as the British mostly equated the absence of

centralised authority, particularly in the south-east, with 'disorder' or 'primitivism' rather than recognising different types of governance systems that were in place. These assessments led to structural distortions when colonial administrations imposed hierarchical models onto societies that had historically been more egalitarian and consensus-driven (Crowder, 1978). Thus, the perception of pre-colonial governance structures informed the shape of native administration during the colonial period with the preservation and adaptation of existing governance structures in the north and the creation of 'warrant chief' systems and councils in the south to introduce hierarchical structures for indirect rule.

The civil service was established by the colonial government in 1914, following the amalgamation of Nigeria as a country. It operated a two tier system (Sekwat, 2002) and was reputed to have high social disparity between the senior European positions and the Nigerian staff, known as the junior service, in terms of decision-making authority and benefits (Mutahaba, Baguma and Halfani, 1993; Mbuba, 2016). Scholars contend that this two-tier system resulted in Europeans assessing Nigerians as being incapable of keeping the colonial standards while the Nigerians, in turn, felt resentful and excluded from decision-making in their own country (Mutahaba, Baguma and Halfani, 1993; Mbuba, 2016). This exploitative system also excluded the colonised from using European designated facilities such as hospitals (Faseke, 2006; Olaopa, 2014). Consequently, Olowu (2014) argues that Nigeria inherited a civil service that lacked trust between different groups resulting in a crisis of confidence post-independence. Olowu (2014) further argues that the civil service inherited structures that had been designed to exclude and control rather than empower and develop thereby resulting in unprepared and inadequately trained officers promoted to senior positions following the 'Nigerianisation' process. Furthermore, ethnic, regional, and political biases replaced the colonial racial hierarchy giving rise to new basis of distrust among officers as people suspect appointments were made based on patronage rather than merit, thereby weakening the public sector's cohesion and professionalism (Olowu, 2014).

At the onset, the Nigerian civil service consisted of skeletal organisations (Mutahaba, Baguma and Halfani, 1993) whose main function was the upkeep of law and order

(Sekwat, 2002; Olaopa, 2014) and the collection of tax using the traditional leaders (Mutahaba, Baguma and Halfani, 1993). The British government implemented indirect rule through traditional rulers in the southwest and north, and warrant chiefs in the southeast, as shown in the third column of the first row of Table 2.2 below, to give the colonial state legitimacy (Igbokwe-Ibeto, Nwobi and Nnaji, 2019).

Table 2.2: Summary of Colonial Nigeria and Public Governance Structure – 1800s to 1960

Period	Main Focus/Policies/Ideologies	Governance Structure/Civil Service Reforms	Developmental Outcomes
1800s to 1914	1. British used divide and rule strategy. Royal Niger Company (RNC) was used for trade and administration (Falola and Heaton, 2008).	1. Formation of the Nigerian Civil Service. Nigeria was run by British with no funding from Westminster (Kohl, 2004). 2. Nigerians excluded from administration as they held low-level bureaucratic positions. 3. Indirect rule implemented with traditional rulers in SW and North and native courts and warrant chiefs in SE at local government level. (Mbuba, 2016; Okorie and Onwe, 2016).	1. Nigeria integrated into the international market and the British Pounds introduced as currency. No investment in a well-functioning state and technology. Indirect rule alienated traditional authorities from their communities. 2. Extractive economy as economy dominated by European firms. 3. Nigeria specialised in export of cash crops and import of manufactured goods. Urbanisation of cities as people migrated in search of jobs (Falola and Heaton, 2008; Ocheni and Nwankwo, 2012; Aworawo, 2011)

Period	Main Focus/Policies/Ideologies	Governance Structure/Civil Service Reforms	Developmental Outcomes
Post-World War 1945 to 1960	1. In 1946, a new constitution was enacted for political devolution and administrative decentralisation. 2. First time a ten-year plan of Development and Welfare was introduced by colonial government (Ibietan and Ekhosuehi, 2013).	1. Several reforms were implemented for the Nigerianisation of the civil service: a. Tudor-Davies commission (1945) b. Harragin Commission (1947) c. Foot Commission (1948) d. Phillipson-Adebo Commission (1953) e. Gorsuch Commission (1955) Mbanefo Commission (1959) f. Newns Commission (1959) (Olaopa, 2012, 2014; Mbuba, 2016; Okorie and Onwe, 2016).	1. Establishment of the department of commerce, and commodity marketing boards to coordinate the development of industries and to control and coordinate the production and export of primary goods such as cocoa, groundnut and palm kernels. 2. At independence in 1960, the British left Nigeria with only 389 industrial establishments to produce basic goods such as soap, cement, tobacco, textile, and brewing (Aworawo, 2011).

Source: Compiled by author

The impact of the colonial era has been widely debated by scholars over the years. As shown in the third column of the first row in Table 2.2, one agreed-upon outcome is that colonialism facilitated the integration of Africa into the international market (Austin, 2010). It is also responsible for the introduction of currencies as trade was previously done with commodity currencies or by barter as discussed in section 2.2 above. Still, colonialism resulted in Africa being assigned with two roles – as a supplier of raw materials to the international market, and as a major consumer of manufactured

goods from Europe and other advanced economies (Aworawo, 2011). Evidently, during the colonial period, the British mostly ignored industry by not building technological capability in Nigeria. The third column of the second row in Table 2.2 illustrates the fact that one outcome was that at independence, in 1960, the British left Nigeria with only 389 industrial establishments to produce basic goods such as soap, cement, tobacco, textile, and brewing for a population of 50 million people (Aworawo, 2011). Consequently, Nigeria remains reliant on imports. Some scholars argue that the underdevelopment of Nigeria can be traced to the mode of colonisation by the British (Kohli, 2004).

The second row of Table 2.2 outlines the post- World War period from 1945 to independence in 1960. There was a combination of factors, both internal and external, that led to African countries like Nigeria obtaining their independence from their colonial masters such as local nationalist movements, regional dynamics and trends by neighbouring states, international pressures, and reversal of colonial policies. Understanding these factors is critical for situating Nigeria's post-independence development challenges within its historical context.

In considering the main policies and the governance structure, the second row in Table 2.2 below highlights the enactment of a new constitution in 1946 which resulted in the country moving from political and administrative centralisation to political devolution and administrative decentralisation (Crowder, 1978; Olaopa, 2012a). However, Nigeria's independence journey did not take place in isolation; it was part of a broader continental trend influenced by the success of neighbouring countries like Ghana that obtained its independence in 1957, under the leadership of Kwame Nkrumah (Meredith, 2013). The ideology of Pan-Africanism progressed through various Pan-African congresses and prominent thinkers and leaders such as Nnamdi Azikiwe, provided a unifying vision that connected the independence struggles of individual countries to a collective continental goal (Falola and Heaton, 2008).

The second factor influencing the independence of Nigeria is the role played by external actors, particularly the United States and the United Nations, and the Soviet Union that criticised colonialism from both ideological grounds and Cold War strategic

positions. American policymakers feared that continued European colonial domination would alienate African states and push them into being influenced by the Soviet Union (Westad, 2007). Consequently, the U.S. applied diplomatic and economic pressure on Britain and France to implement decolonisation (Kolko and Kolko, 1972). So, faced with mounting economic pressures after World War II, rising nationalist demands, and diplomatic isolation, British policymakers commenced administrative reforms and 'Nigerianisation' of the civil service (Sekwat, 2002; Faseke, 2006; Okorie and Onwe, 2016). The various reforms that occurred during the colonial period is outlined in the second row of Table 2.2 and these ended in the granting of full independence in 1960 (Crowder, 1978). Additionally, as shown in the first column of the second row of Table 2.2, in 1946, the colonial government released their first development plan – the ten-year plan of Development and Welfare (Ibietan and Ekhosuehi, 2013). This post World War II attempt by the British led to the establishment of the department of commerce, and commodity marketing boards to coordinate the development of industries and to control and coordinate the production and export of primary goods such as cocoa, groundnut and palm kernels (Kilby, 1969; Falola and Heaton, 2008).

2.4 POST- INDEPENDENCE NIGERIAN DEVELOPMENT PLANS AND CIVIL SERVICE REFORMS -1960 TO 1985

The nationalistic movement didn't translate into a unified country as was demonstrated by the military coup that led to the civil war between 1967 and 1970 (Falola and Heaton, 2008). Nevertheless, the priority of successive Nigerian governments following independence was national development as Nigeria attempted the developmental model like the southeast Asian countries with several development plans drawn up to address social, economic, and political factors concerning the country and the citizens (Ibietan and Ekhosuehi, 2013; Ikpe, 2014). The developmental state is discussed in detail in section 3.2.6.3 in Chapter 3.

A summary of the different NDPs between 1960 and 1985 is illustrated in Table 2.3 below with corresponding reforms in the civil service and the developmental outcomes.

Table 2.3: Summary of the Post-Independence Nigerian Development Plan and Civil Service Reforms- 1960 and 1985

Period/Development Plan	Main Focus/Objectives	Governance Structure/Civil Service Reforms	Developmental Outcomes
First National Development Plan (NDP)- 1962- 1968	1. Neo-patrimonial state. 2. Mobilising national economic resources for industrial development, energy projects, oil refinery, a development bank, and a mint and security company (Chete <i>et al.</i> , 2014).	1. Morgan Commission, 1963/Elwood Grading, 1966 focussed on review of salary. Move from regions to states as 12 states created by the military decree in 1967. 2. The plan was truncated by the civil war from 1967 to 1970.	1. Economy predominantly based on Agriculture. Dependency on foreign manufacturing and technology, little attention on local manufacturing. 2. Marginal role for the private sector, focused on low technology research, industrial production of gari (processed cassava) and pulp for papermaking. (Ibietan and Ekhosuehi, 2013).
Second NDP- 1970- 1974 (Oil-boom plan)	1. Military rule. 2. Agriculture, transport, mining, quarrying and oil production. Oil boom led to stronger focus on public-sector led industrialisation with expensive industrial projects in iron and steel, cement, salt,	1. Adebo commission 1971, focussed on review of salaries. 2. Udoji Commission, 1972- focused on the structure and operational efficiency but not	1. Nigeria became classified as a major petroleum producing country and the economy benefited from huge foreign exchange inflows (Aworawo, 2011; Chete <i>et al.</i> , 2014). 2. But low technological and human capital

Period/Development Plan	Main Focus/Objectives	Governance Structure/Civil Service Reforms	Developmental Outcomes
	sugar, fertilizer, pulp, and paper (Aworawo, 2011; Chete <i>et al.</i> , 2014).	implemented due to lack of political will.	capacity and capabilities prevented the economy from growing, resulting in the failure of most of these projects (Aworawo, 2011; Chete <i>et al.</i> , 2014).
Third NDP- 1975-1980 (Peak of oil boom)	1. Turn-key industries set up by government, whilst private sector – now with access to funds invested in low technology consumer industries (Chete <i>et al.</i> , 2014).	1. In 1976 total states – 19. Poor implementation of Udoji reform that called for integrated structure, and a meritocratic Weberian bureaucratic system led to low morale and productivity in the civil service and loss 12,000 public servants' jobs in 1975, (Okorie and Onwe, 2016; Olalekan, Olayinka and Omotayo, 2016).	1. Private sector activities were heavily dependent on imported machinery and raw materials. 2. High import and low technological development. Government interventions like Operation Feed the Nation (agriculture) and the Universal Basic Education across the country (Oke, Oluwasuji and Simon-Oke, 2011). Establishment of National Science and Technology Development Agency (NSTDA) in 1977 (Aworawo, 2011).

Period/Development Plan	Main Focus/Objectives	Governance Structure/Civil Service Reforms	Developmental Outcomes
Fourth NDP- 1980-1985 (Global recession)	1. Under the first presidential democracy after the civil war and it involved all tiers of government, amidst a global economic recession (Ibietan and Ekhosuehi, 2013).	1. Global crisis exposed the country's weak industrial structure and planning (Aworawo, 2011).	1. Low foreign exchange earnings, high unemployment, fall in oil revenue, high cost of imported manufacturing materials and goods in Nigeria. huge debt burden from numerous foreign loans (Aworawo, 2011).

Source: Compiled by author

The different development plans outlined in Table 2.3 did not solve the economic and societal problems in Nigeria and by the end of 1985, there was a global crisis which exposed the country's weak industrial structure and planning (Aworawo, 2011). Regarding the civil service reforms during this period, scholars argue that although the reforms were well-intended, they were unsuccessful in facilitating development (Kohli, 2004; Mbuba, 2016; Ukwandu and Ijere, 2020) as the public service still displays many of the pre-independence problems (Mutahaba, Baguma and Halfani, 1993). Several reform commissions were established during this period, including the Morgan Commission (1963), the Adebo Commission (1971), and the Udoji Commission (1972). Of these, Nigerian scholars consistently nominate the 1972 Udoji Commission as the most pivotal as shown in the third column of Table 2.3. They attest that the Udoji Commission's recommendations were the most comprehensive as they focused on reforming the structure and operational efficiency of the public service, to address the developmental challenges facing Nigeria in the post-independence period (Sekwat, 2002; Mbuba, 2016; Okorie and Onwe, 2016; Ukwandu and Ijere, 2020).

The Udoji commission aimed to integrate merit-based recruitment and promotion systems, closely aligned with Weberian principles of bureaucracy (Sekwat, 2002; Mbuba, 2016; Okorie and Onwe, 2016; Olalekan, Olayinka and Omotayo, 2016; Ukwandu and Ijere, 2020). This foresight placed Nigeria ahead of the curve in relation to the New Public Management (NPM) reforms that would later dominate global public administration discourse. It also recommended the implementation of investments in human capacity development, introducing performance measurement systems, training programs, and incentives for civil servants (Okorie and Onwe, 2016). The Weberian bureaucratic system, which is described as an ideal bureaucracy, operates based on rational-legal authority and characterised by hierarchy, formal rules, impersonality, specialisation, and meritocracy (Weber, 1919). According to some scholars, the Nigerian bureaucratic system incorporates elements of a Weberian structure but functions as a hybrid system, combining rational-legal principles with patrimonial and clientelist practices (Olaopa, 2017). According to Olaopa (2017), while formal rules exist, their implementation is often undermined by political interference and inefficiency. The Weberian bureaucratic system is discussed in more detail in Chapter 3 section 3.3.3.

The Udoji report introduced modern management techniques and encouraged innovation within the public service, seeking to align public sector performance with national developmental goals (Olalekan, Olayinka and Omotayo, 2016). The emphasis on a Weberian meritocratic bureaucratic structure aligns with the conclusions of Evans and Rauch (1999; 2000), whose studies conclude that a successful Weberian bureaucratic system is a prerequisite for development.

However, despite the progressive recommendations by the Udoji report, their implementation was disorganised and inconsistent (Sekwat, 2002; Okorie and Onwe, 2016). According to Sekwat (2002) and Okorie and Onwe (2016), the absence of political will and a lack of sustained commitment by the government led to poor implementation of the key recommendations. Also, the reform suggestions were met with obstacles such as deep-seated cultural norms and institutional behaviours that were resistant to change such as patronage, nepotism, and ethnic politics which

continued to dominate public sector recruitment and promotions, undermining meritocratic principles (Olalekan, Olayinka and Omotayo, 2016).

In summary, despite the various government's desire to transform the public sector by setting up civil service reform commissions between 1960 and 1985, all the recommendations were poorly implemented especially those related to salary adjustments and performance evaluation systems contributing to declining morale, unrealistic expectations and reduced productivity (Sekwat, 2002; Okorie and Onwe, 2016). These reforms also failed to break Nigeria's public administration system from colonial administrative legacies, instead they replicated the rigid structures without consideration being given to Nigeria's evolving political economy and context (Mutahaba, Baguma and Halfani, 1993; Kohli, 2004).

2.5 POST-WASHINGTON CONSENSUS DEVELOPMENT PLANS AND CIVIL SERVICE REFORMS – 1986 TO PRESENT DAY

Unlike successful developmental states like Singapore and South Korea, Nigeria failed in its attempt due to poor implementation of various development plans and civil service reforms; consequently, it was forced to adopt neo-liberal policy agenda (Kohli, 2004). Some of the reasons for Nigeria's failure are neopatrimonialism – political leaders used the country's resources for themselves, weak bureaucracy – appointments of civil servants were based on loyalty not merit, political instability – frequent military coups post-independence, oil dependency – oil discovery deepened Nigeria's propensity as a rentier state, and fragmented country – Nigeria lacked a unified national vision (Kohli, 2004). This section summarises key events relating to Nigeria's development plans and civil service reforms from 1986 to 2023.

2.5.1 Washington Consensus Rule: 1986 - 1993

In 1986, following the failure of the fourth development plan mentioned in Table 2.3 and amidst the ensuing global crisis, the government was directed by the Bretton Woods Institutions (BWIs) to implement the structural adjustment programme (SAP), which was expected to turn the economy around and stimulate industrialisation (Aworawo, 2011; Danladi and Naankiel, 2016). The SAP was introduced as a short-

term neoliberal policy tool from 1986 to 1988 to reorganise and diversify the productive base of the economy, reduce dependency on oil and improve efficiency through private sector-led development (The World Bank, 1995; Danladi and Naankiel, 2016). It was imposed as a set of strict conditions on loans during the Thatcher-Reagan neoliberal economic years (Mbembe, 2001; Amsden, 2009), to stimulate other areas of the economy – such as agriculture and mining – reduce public sector spending, and attract Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) into Nigeria (Mbembe, 2001; Danladi and Naankiel, 2016). However, the programme continued until 1993.

Scholars have long debated the impact of the SAP regarding whether or not it was beneficial to the Nigerian economy and development. One notable negative impact captured in the fourth column of the first row of Table 2.4 below is the loss of sovereign power by the state as it no longer had the financial means, administrative power and ability to implement public goods to resolve societal challenges leading to decline in living standards and social unrests (Ake, 1996; Mbembe, 2001; Aworawo, 2011; Danladi and Naankiel, 2016). It also influenced the public administration system. The third column of the first row of Table 2.4 shows that the implementation of the SAP resulted in the introduction of the New Public Management (NPM) model to the Nigerian civil service through the enactment of the Philips Commission (1988) (Adamolekun, 2005; Mbuba, 2016; Ukwandu and Ijere, 2020) which led to adoption of private sector practices in public organisations. NPM is discussed in detail in section 3.3.4 in Chapter 3. Consequently, implementation of SAP negatively affected the civil service through mass layoffs of staff, outsourcing of work to private sector leading to loss of organisational memory and monetisation policy that forced civil servants to seek income from other sources (Olowu, 2003)

Table 2.4: Summary of the Post-Washington Consensus Development Plan and Civil Service Reforms – 1986 to 2015

Period/Development Plan	Main Focus/Objectives	Governance Structure/Civil Service Reforms	Developmental Outcomes
1986 to 1993 Washington Consensus rule	1. Bretton Woods Institutions directed government to implement the structural adjustment programme (SAP). 2. SAP involved implementation of free trade and reduced government spending. Oppressive military government.	1. Total states – 21 (1987) and 30 (1991) plus Federal Capital Territory (FCT). 2. Philips Commission (1988) was enacted and introduced NPM practices into the Nigerian civil service which resulted in rationalisation of public service staff and erosion of capabilities of government.	1. SAP led to loss of sovereign power and erosion of state capacity as no financial means, administrative power, and available public goods to resolve societal challenges due to decrease government spending, reduced investment in critical infrastructure in health and education. policies, devaluation of Naira, poor regulation of oil companies. 2. Lack of trust for government led to social unrest due to high unemployment and inflation, low wages and fall in value of the Naira.
1994 to 2015 Rolling Plans	1. Military government (up to 1999). SAP suspended in 1993 and subsidies removed. 2. Ban of certain food import affected price of locally produced food, divestment of foreign holdings. 3. Civilian government from 1999 re-introduced neo-liberal policies for FDI; private sector became main driver of economic activities.	1.Total states in Nigeria – 36 plus FCT (1991). 2. Reforms: a. Ayida reform (1995) recommended that ministries be structured according to their objectives and functions, with delineation of duties between ministers as the heads and the permanent secretaries as the operational and administrative heads (Okorie and Onwe, 2016; Olalekan, Olayinka and Omotayo, 2016). b. SERVICOM charter (2004) was introduced for good quality public goods and service for citizens (Oyedele, 2015; Okorie and Onwe, 2016; Olaopa, 2019b). c. National Strategy for Public Service Reforms (NSPSR) (2007 to 2010) to improve the governance and institutional environment of the civil service (Olalekan, Olayinka and Omotayo, 2016). d. Orosanye Presidential Committee (2011) recommended the terminating and combination of certain departments in the ministries (Olalekan, Olayinka and Omotayo, 2016).	1. Nigeria considered a 'pariah' state under the military government as decline in economy and poor human rights record. 2. Civilian government slowed down economic decline. 3. Security issues in the Niger Delta and Northeast worsened 4. Telecommunications market success: rapidly grew from 450,000 phone users in 1990s by incumbent NITEL to 28 million by 2006 mobile users. 5. Economic policies and growth in GDP improved Nigeria's reputation abroad. 6. Huge capital projects for healthcare, education, agriculture, roads, water resources, power, and security in the 2004 and 2005 annual budgets. 7. Poor social amenities like power, housing, non-payment of civil servants, poor public services, poor health services, high infant mortality, increase in HIV rate, high religious tensions.

Source: Compiled by author

Nonetheless, proponents of the SAP from the World Bank posit that it was the best economic strategy that had ever been designed to enable Nigeria to leapfrog development and that it failed because of bad leadership, bribery, and corruption (The World Bank, 1995).

2.5.2 Rolling Plans: 1994 – 2015

This period saw Nigeria still under military rule until 1999. During the military period, Nigeria was considered a pariah state with poor human right records (Falola and Heaton, 2008).

The second row and third column of Table 2.4 above, shows that the Ayida reform recommended that the ministries be structured according to their objectives and functions with delineation of duties between the ministers as the heads and the permanent secretaries as the operational and administrative heads (Okorie and Onwe, 2016; Olalekan, Olayinka and Omotayo, 2016). The main outcome of this reform was the upward review of salaries (Okorie and Onwe, 2016; Olalekan, Olayinka and Omotayo, 2016).

The civil service reforms for the first two decades after independence were done mostly under military rule. In 1999, the civilian government of Olusegun Obasanjo set out to re-professionalise the public service through large-scale retraining exercises, expenditure management, and redefining and redesigning of processes to improve service delivery (Ukwandu and Ijere, 2020). The government introduced the SERVICOM charter, shown in the third column of the second row of Table 2.4, as a social contract for the provision of good quality public goods by the public sector to the citizens following the receipt of a technical aid from DFID (Oyedele, 2015; Okorie and Onwe, 2016; Olaopa, 2019b). Yet, despite the political will behind it, critics posit that it was poorly coordinated and lacked coherence (Oyedele, 2015). Furthermore, the governance column of Table 2.4 illustrates that during the government of Umaru Yar' Adua (2007 to 2010), the Bureau of Public Service Reform (BPSR) and the Inter-ministerial Team (IMT) of Public Officials developed the National Strategy for Public Service Reforms (NSPSR) that sought to improve the governance and institutional environment of the civil service (Olalekan, Olayinka and Omotayo, 2016). Afterwards,

the Orosanye Presidential Committee (2011), under president Goodluck Jonathan recommended the termination of 102 statutory agencies from the current 263, the ending of 38 agencies, the combining of 52, and the returning of 14 agencies to departments in the ministries (Olalekan, Olayinka and Omotayo, 2016). However, some authors argue that till date, the waste from the public sector persist (Olalekan, Olayinka and Omotayo, 2016).

2.5.3 Planned Diversification: 2016 – 2023

Table 2.5 below shows the development plans introduced by the government of President Mohammed Buhari that focussed on planned diversification with the Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (2017) and the National Development Plan (2021). This development plans main objectives, among others, are to create a strong base for a diversified economy anchored on robust micro, small and medium enterprises (MSME), a more resilient environment, and to invest in critical physical, financial, digital and innovation infrastructure (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2021).

Table 2.5: Summary of the Development Plan and Civil Service Reforms – 2015 to 2023

Period/Development Plan	Main Focus/Objectives	Governance Structure/Civil Service Reforms	Developmental Outcomes
2016 to Present	1. Planned Diversification. – Economic Recovery and Growth Plan (2017 and in 2021) 2. Nigeria's National Development Plan (NDP) 2021 – 2025. Plan objectives are: a. To establish a strong base for a diversified economy, with strong MSME growth and a resilient business environment. b. To invest in critical physical, technology, and financial infrastructure. c. To build robust framework; to enhance capacities for strong security and good governance. d. To facilitate poverty alleviation, health, and education. e. To promote development opportunities across states to reduce inequality.	1. The 2021-2025 plan aligns with attaining the Sustainable Development Goals through fostered partnerships 2. Section on administration to ensure the achievement efficient service delivery by the public agencies, improved rule of law and human rights protection.	1. Growth in FinTech facilitating and increased financial inclusion 2. Declining Naira value, high inflation, low human development index, high inequality high unemployment, and civil unrest (END SARS movement), high emigration of youth ('Japa' crisis). 2. Growing insecurity with increased terrorist activities. 3. Covid-19 exposed poor health and social systems.

Source: Compiled by author

The five main objectives of the NDP (2021-2025) are outlined in the second column of Table 2.5 above. The first two objectives: diversified economy, and investment in critical infrastructure were considered fundamental in the selection of the agencies used for this study. The selection process is discussed in detail in section 5.2.2 of chapter 5.

The plan also has a dedicated section on public administration which signals the recognition of the important role to be played by the public sector in the achievement of the goals of the plan. The plan states that its focus on public administration is to ensure the achievement of unbiased and efficient service delivery by the public organisations, improved rule of law and human rights protection, and enhanced quality in overall governance. Also, according to the plan, these outcomes will be attained by building a strong capable public sector that supports citizen protection, ensures accountability, and enables productivity for sustained growth (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2021). The plan goes further to identify four core strategies that will enable the transformation of the public service. The first strategy involves the drive to improve the public sector's efficiency by strengthening the degree of coordination between the different levels of government and by redesigning the competency framework for civil servants. The focus on the competency of the public sector aligns with the goals of this study that is focused on exploring the dynamic capabilities of public agencies in Nigeria. The plan has in place the provision of more robust training programs, clearly defined performance indices, improved digital capacity for quicker service delivery at all levels of government, and assessment of skill levels to ensure quality service delivery. The second strategy states that the government plans to implement citizen engagement policies that encourage broader citizen participation to provide transparency of government activities. The third strategy involves the enhancement of anti-corruption capacity across the different sectors – through technology adoption through the availability of public data on government initiatives to reduce corruption. The fourth strategy is meant to ensure the successful implementation of the NDP – through the implementation of a robust legal framework and the delivery of a viable justice system.

The quest to reform the civil service continues as the current administration under President Bola Ahmed Tinubu, announced in February 2024 that it plans to move forward with the recommendations first made in 2012 by the Oronsaye report to restructure and rationalise the civil service system. All in all, by seeking to implement the above strategies, the Nigerian government acknowledges the need to strengthen the public sector for improved competency and accountability towards supporting the successful implementation of the NDP. Therefore, this study aligns with the government's desire to enhance the capabilities of public sector and is expected to contribute to policy.

2.6 REFLECTION ON REFORMS OF THE NIGERIAN CIVIL SERVICE AND IMPLICATION FOR CAPABILITIES AND DYNAMIC CAPBILITIES

The reforms undertaken by the various Nigerian governments clearly indicate that the public sector is considered critical to the development outcomes of the country. Interestingly, the paradox of public administration in African countries like Nigeria is that although the bureaucratic system may seem dysfunctional, the civil servants are extremely powerful actors in the society (Moshonas, 2014; Peters, 2021). Nevertheless, despite decades of reforms to improve the implementation capacity, Nigeria has been classified as a hesitant reformer because of its poor track record in implementing reform recommendations. Please see Table 2.6 below for the classification of all the 29 countries in the studies undertaken by Adamolekun (1999, 2005).

Table 2.6: Classification of Countries by Levels of Civil Service Rehabilitation Efforts

A. Advanced Reformers (virtuous cycle)	B. Committed Reformers	C. Hesitant Reformers	D. Beginners and Nonstarters (vicious cycle)
Botswana	Benin	Cote d'Ivoire	Democratic Republic of Congo
Mauritius	Burkina Faso	Gabon	Burundi
Namibia	Ethiopia	Guinea	Central Africa Republic
South Africa	Ghana	Nigeria	Liberia

A. Advanced Reformers (virtuous cycle)	B. Committed Reformers	C. Hesitant Reformers	D. Beginners and Nonstarters (vicious cycle)
	Kenya	Togo	Sierra Leone
	Mali	Zimbabwe	Somalia
	Mauritania		Sudan
	Rwanda		
	Senegal		
	Tanzania		
	Uganda		
	Zambia		

Source: Adamolekun (1999, 2005)

According to Adamolekun (1999, 2005), the advanced reformers have successfully incorporated into their civil service values of merit and accountability and cultures of professionalism and performance, whilst the committed reformers are working to improve their public service to enable development. However, despite introducing reforms, the hesitant reformers have not recorded success for their efforts, whilst the non-starter reformers have been involved in vicious cycles of unending conflicts and a declining public administration system. Similarly, the study by Evans and Rauch in 1999 that assesses the correlation between economic development and Weberianness of countries' public sector using data between 1970 and 1990, classifies Nigeria with a low Weberianness score as shown in Figure 3.4 and is discussed in section 3.3.3.1 in chapter 3.

Consequently, the Nigerian public sector, in general, has demonstrated inability to meet its obligations to the public (Sekwat, 2002; Olaopa, 2012b; Mbuba, 2016; Olalekan, Olayinka and Omotayo, 2016). Some of the main factors attributed to the poor performance of the public services are: focus on input process-oriented business model instead of focus on outcome-based model, gap in capability and skills, lack of execution accountability, poor performance monitoring and reporting, poor remuneration, corruption, and weak governance structure (Olaopa, 2012b, 2019a; Olalekan, Olayinka and Omotayo, 2016).

Yet, despite Nigeria's classification as a hesitant reformer of its civil service, some scholars contend that there are PoE within the Nigerian civil service that can be replicated to facilitate the country's development. These are public organisations that

are known to perform exceptionally well in an underperforming environment like the Nigerian public sector. Therefore, based on selection criteria discussed in section 5.2.2 which displays their track record of achieving transformational change and positive societal outcomes, the study selected: Nigerian Communication Commission (NCC), National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA), the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS), and the Bank of Industry (BOI) at the federal level and the Lagos State Ministry Economic Planning and Budget (LSMEPB) at the sub-national level. Furthermore, this research selects 1999 as the starting year of analysis as it marked the commencement of the Fourth Republic and the return to democracy in Nigeria.

2.7 SUMMARY

This chapter set out to briefly analyse the historical pathway of Nigeria's development to understand the link with the evolution of its public service as a backdrop for exploring the connection between the public sector capability and development. The influence of colonialism on African nations like Nigeria goes far beyond mere territorial dominance, as it deeply moulded the administrative structures and governance systems in these regions. The general impact of colonialism on the public administration system is discussed in detail in section 3.3.5 in Chapter 3.

It explored the role and nature of the Nigerian state and its civil service as critical elements for the exploration of how relevant public sector dynamic capabilities are built, deployed, and sustained for the creation of public value for its citizens. The analysis in this chapter has shown that various governments undertook reforms in the civil service in recognition of its vital role in the execution of the country's development plans.

Furthermore, the Chapter suggests that the overall low levels of competence and capabilities in the Nigerian civil service can be traced to the lack of interest by the colonial government to develop qualified personnel to run the public administrative responsibilities. The resultant effect is that the public service as a whole, may not have evolved the relevant skill sets to meet the citizens' needs as the societal requirements

changed over time. Nevertheless, guided by arguments by some scholars that state that there exist PoE within the Nigerian public service, this study focusses on five of such agencies to enable the answering of the research question. It is expected that the study of these five agencies will enable the emergence of nuances of public sector dynamic capabilities and public value created in the Nigerian context.

CHAPTER 3: A REVIEW OF LITERATURE RELATING TO THE STATE, PUBLIC SECTOR DYNAMIC CAPABILITIES AND PUBLIC VALUE CREATION

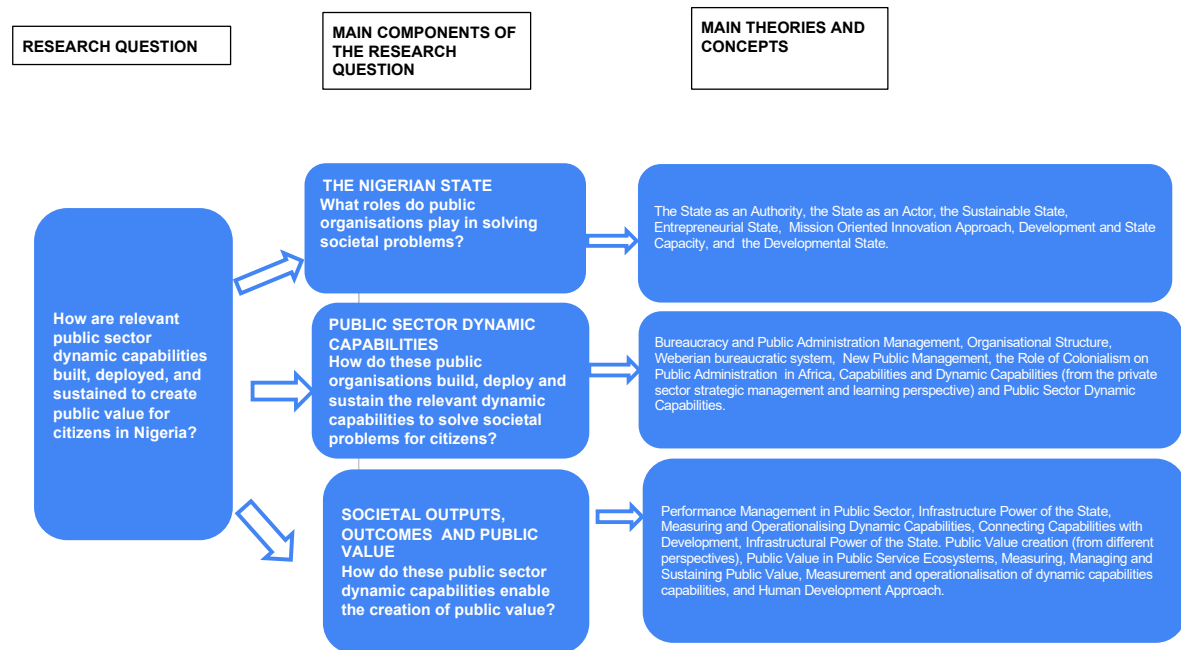
3.1 INTRODUCTION

Having analysed the historical pathway of Nigeria's development and its link with the evolution of its public service in Chapter 2 as a background to the study, this chapter reviews other relevant literature as theoretical basis for the research. This chapter allows the articulation of the relevance of the research which seeks to explore the role played by public sector dynamic capabilities to create public value for citizens in Nigeria, as well as the context of existing literature on the subject matter. The notion of dynamic capabilities within the public sector has been under-theorised. This research seeks to provide a different perspective on how to understand development from different approaches following several debates on how development occurs.

This literature review section is, therefore, of high importance. Guided by the research question, it brings together different literature that had not been previously brought together. It also enables the design, methodology and analysis of the research (Luft *et al.*, 2022); it identifies the gaps in literature and highlights the areas of contribution of the study to academia and practice (Greetham, 2021).

The main research question, which asks how relevant public sector dynamic capabilities are built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria, has three main components. The first part is the state of Nigeria. The second component is the public sector dynamic capabilities. The third part comprises of societal outputs, outcomes, and public value creation. Google Scholar and Web of Science databases were used to conduct key word searches for books and e-books, as well as peer-reviewed articles and reports from different journals and archives such as Sage, JISTOR and ResearchGate. The three main components of the research question are summarised visually in Figure 3.1 below where all relevant focal literature areas reviewed are presented.

Figure 3.1: Linking Research Questions with Literature



Source: Developed and Compiled by author

The literature review commences with the exploration of literature to explore the role the state plays in solving societal problems by considering its capability and legitimacy; see section 3.2. This involves the review of different concepts of the state: the state as an authority and the state as a key actor. It then examines two state models relevant to this study: the sustainable state and the entrepreneurial state, the latter being closely associated with the notion of mission-oriented innovation approach. Afterwards, it focuses on development and state capacity by exploring the relationship between the state and societal outcomes as well the notion of the developmental state.

The second part of the literature review, section 3.3, addresses the concept of public sector dynamic capabilities towards assessing how public organisations build, deploy and sustain dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems. It starts off by reviewing literature on bureaucracy and public administration – the Weberian bureaucratic system and its role in development, the role of colonialism on Africa, the emergence and impact of the new public management on public administration systems. The section then introduces the concept of dynamic capabilities in the private sector before discussing public sector dynamic capabilities.

The third part of the literature, section 3.4, assesses literature that will allow the consideration of societal outputs, outcomes and public value. It starts off by assessing how public organisations are evaluated – performance management system and the role played by new public management in the public sector, the infrastructure power of the state, measuring capabilities, and connecting capabilities and development. Finally, it discusses the different notions of public value – in public service ecosystems, measuring, managing, and sustaining public value, as well as the concept that is the Human Development Approach.

3.2 EXPLORING THE ROLE OF THE STATE

3.2.1 Overview

This section contains a review of the literature on the state with consideration given to the role, structure and models of the state to enable answering the first sub-research question that asks: *What roles do public organisations play in solving societal problems?* It is foundational to the main research question that seeks to explore how relevant public sector dynamic capabilities are built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria. This section presents arguments by key scholars on the capability and legitimacy of the state from different perspectives that are linked to the study which is focussed on the societal outcomes in Nigeria. The perspectives considered are the state as an authority, the state as a key actor, the sustainable state, and the entrepreneurial state – under which the mission-oriented innovation policy (MOIP) is discussed. Following which the development and state capacity are considered, while also assessing how they relate with the developmental state model.

3.2.2 The State As An Authority

The State as an authority refers its capability and legitimacy. The main argument here is that the state's primary capability comes from its ability to enforce its social contract and to protect its citizens, whilst its legitimacy arises from the consent it receives from its people for them to be ruled by their chosen government (Hobbes, 1651). This view of the state is as an authority that ensures the security and freedom of its citizens (Papaioannou, 2020) because it has the legalised power over the use of coercive force in a given geographical area (Weber, 1919). Weber (1919) argues that the state's legitimacy comes from various sources such as the existence of traditional authority,

the emergence of charismatic leadership, or the enactment of legal-rational structures. He notes that the state relies on legal-rational authority, whereby legitimacy is based on the compliance with legal norms and procedures. He further argues that the state's capability rests on its exclusive control over the means of violence within its given territory.

In the case of African states as authorities, some authors argue that this only happens based on the manipulation of resources and networks and not by the existence of legitimate offices and governance systems (Agbese and Kieh, 2007; Bayart, 2009). Agbese and Kieh (2007) further argue that the African state's authority is often weak and fragile due to corruption, internal conflict, and lack of legitimacy. In many instances, the state has been unable to establish effective control or law and order, which hinders its ability to serve as an effective authority (Agbese and Kieh, 2007). The challenge of establishing state legitimacy is further compounded by the ethnic diversity and lack of trust among various tribes found in many African countries like Nigeria, making it difficult for the governments to maintain authority over different regions (Olukoshi *et al.*, 1996).

Another perspective of the state as an authority, is from its being seen as a concentration of power with revered rulers (Machiavelli, 1532). An extreme form of this is when the state has despotic power and is governed by a powerful ruler (Mann, 1984). Here, the state is considered strong if the government possesses social control over the society by using different tools such as manipulation, force, and material inducements (Migdal, 1988). This aligns Mbembe's (2003) argument that African governments often exercise power through both physical and symbolic violence to control their citizens. The colonial rule in Nigeria of circa 1880s to 1960 and the various autocratic military rules between the 1970s and the 1990s are arguably illustrations of forceful coercive predatory states (Evans, 1989; Kohli, 2004; Naseemullah and Staniland, 2016). Overall, the external pressures from global powers and agencies such as the Bretton Woods Institution (BWI) since the introduction of the structural adjustment programme (SAP) and the imposition of different loan conditions continue to undermine the legitimacy and authority of the African states being compelled to implement policies that do not necessarily suit their contexts (Olukoshi *et al.*, 1996).

3.2.3 The State As A Key Actor

Another perspective of the state is from the view point of it being a key actor and participant in the society (Krasner *et al.*, 1984). This means that the state is considered as having institutional capabilities that influence the economic and social behaviour of other societal actors (Krasner *et al.*, 1984). According to Krasner *et al.* (1984), the role of the state as an actor can be viewed from three different perspectives: the territorial state, the autonomous state, and the liberal state. The territorial state refers to its role and ability to manage and control its borders from external attack while it maintains order internally (Krasner *et al.*, 1984). The autonomous state is about its role as a political and an independent actor responsible for making decisions on its country's domestic and international policies (Krasner *et al.*, 1984). The liberal state, according to Krasner *et al.* (1984), refers to its ability to protect its citizen's rights and promote their welfare for harmonious society. However, Jessop (2000) rejects the idea of the state as a singular, autonomous actor, and argues that the state's actions are strategically selective and relational. Here, the state's actions are shaped by the broader structural context and effects of different social forces such as histories and global economic conditions (Jessop, 2000).

Additionally, a country's historical events such as colonialism and nationalism play significant roles in shaping the functionality of the state and the emergence of its institutions (Krasner *et al.*, 1984; Peters, 2021). Chapter 2 provides context on the evolution of the Nigerian state and its civil service and illustrates the influence of colonialism on the inherited structures and systems. Agbese and Kieh (2007) emphasise the variety of state models in Africa, noting that the post-colonial state in many countries was imposed by colonial powers with little regard for local historical or cultural contexts. Consequently, the emergent African state operates in a transactional manner with both domestic and international actors, leveraging external resources or aid to maintain political power and stability (Agbese and Kieh, 2007; Bayart, 2009). Bayart (2009) further posits that the African state's role as an actor is often defined by its ability to channel resources and favours to the elites and organisations that support its survival, rather than engaging in policies aimed at development or citizens' welfare.

There are other scholars that consider the state as an actor from the neoliberal economics point of view, whereby the government steps in to fix the market when there is a failure through the implementation of policies and regulations (Friedman, 1970; Buchanan, Tollison and Tullock, 1980). Also, according to Jessop (2000), neoliberal globalisation has resulted in several states acting in ways that favour certain interests over others such as the promotion of capital mobility and market competitiveness at the expense of citizens' welfare. To this effect, states act like private companies by pursuing national competitiveness in the global economy through the implementation of innovation policies and investment incentives rather than prioritising redistributive or welfare goals that benefit the people of a country (Jessop, 2000). Furthermore, countries are classified based on their interaction and the hierarchies of their activities in the global markets and not by their ability to transform and create wealth for its citizens (Evans, 1995). This is the view of constructed comparative advantage which aligns with Ricardo's (1817) view on international trade that is based on comparative advantage of countries' specialisation. The notion of comparative advantage means that countries' specialisation enable them to diversify and develop manufacturing or service industries depending on their natural endowments (Ricardo, 1817).

Ultimately, the state cannot be seen merely as playing a passive role by fixing market failures but must also be understood as an active actor capable of shaping markets and setting ambitious societal missions. This market-shaping perspective highlights the entrepreneurial capacity of the state to lead innovation, direct investments, proactively set the direction of societal problems to tackle, and facilitate collaboration across stakeholders and sectors in the country (Mazzucato, 2013). The concept of the entrepreneurial state, which represents this proactive and directional role of the state, is further examined in Section 3.2.

3.2.4 The Sustainable State

A relatively recent viewpoint is the notion of the sustainable state. This is defined as the state's ability and will to always intercede and successfully manage the economy (Nair, 2018). Here, the state continuously identifies challenges and implements solutions to ensure that citizens have access to the basic rights of life and standards

of living, such as adequate food, shelter, water, healthy lives, good education, and ability to work (Nair, 2018). It requires active involvement and strategic policies by the state to support sustainable development (Lema *et al.*, 2018). This view of the state aligns with the human development approach that advocates sustainable and inclusive development (Nair, 2018). The measurement of the attainment of some of these factors is found in the human development index (HDI), which is a weighted aggregate metric used in the United Nations Development Programme reports to measure and rank countries' development level (Nussbaum, 2011).

The term *sustainability* became popular following the 1987 Brundtland Report, *Our Common Future*, which describes it as being able to meet today's needs with today's resources without jeopardising the future (Brundtland, 1987). Subsequently, decades later in 2015, the UN collaboratively developed the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (see Figure 3.2) and 169 targets, which are focussed on resolving the world's various economic, social, and environmental challenges for global sustainable development.

Figure 3.2: United Nations Sustainable Development Goals



However, critics of the SDGs contend that the implementation of these 17 SDGs are contextual and as such countries need to take into consideration their own local issues, areas of priorities and challenges as they seek to become sustainable states (Nair, 2018). According to Nair (2018), developing countries are battling between the quest for development, which mostly comes with over-consumption to allow the

improvement of the lives of the poor and the provision of basic living requirements for citizens, and the quest for sustainability, which can potentially lead poorer countries to perpetual poverty. He goes further to suggest that developing countries' governments can attain the status of sustainable states by following state-driven economic development policies as was embarked after World War II in the US by President Roosevelt under the New Deal. Thus, the sustainable state needs to have trusted and competent government agencies that are committed to building up their countries to be self-sufficient and to manage resources sustainably (Nair, 2018).

3.2.5 The Entrepreneurial State

Mazzucato's (2013) entrepreneurial state debunks the mainstream neoliberal view that the state just facilitates economic activities by fixing market failures. The market fixing view, which emerged from public choice theorists, posits that government failures occur when the state focuses on other things instead of fixing market failures as evidenced by rising crimes in the early 1980s (Buchanan, 2003). This view led to massive privatisation globally and governments being left to focus their attentions on fixing the market through regulations and other interventions as situations arose. Conversely, opponents of this view argue that the state plays a proactive market-shaping role in driving innovation, development and economic growth (Mazzucato, 2016). This is done through the state's strategic investments in research, development, and innovation to shape and create markets (Mazzucato, 2013). Mazzucato (2013) deepens her argument by highlighting historical examples, such as the role played by government funding to develop the internet and GPS technology, to show how public sector investments have enabled technological breakthroughs and economic development. Mazzucato (2013) challenges the neoliberal viewpoint that innovation is primarily driven by the private sector, by highlighting the important role played by public sector agencies, such as the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA) and Advanced Research Projects Agency-Energy (ARPA-E) in innovation in the United States in enabling development of technologies that have had extensive economic and societal implications today.

Accordingly, the entrepreneurial state is the lead risk taker in terms of investing in, shaping and driving innovations and technology development (Mazzucato, 2013).

Proponents of the entrepreneurial state argue that advanced economies like the USA actually attained their development status because their governments led the way in innovation and not by following free market ideologies (Block and Keller, 2011). This vision of the state challenges the prevailing neoliberal view that governments should have a limited role in the economy and argues for a more engaged, entrepreneurial role. Additionally, Mazzucato's (2013) viewpoint helps reframe the debate around public sector role in the economy as it posits that the state has a unique capacity to undertake long-term, patient investments that private actors may be unwilling or unable to make.

However, some opponents of the entrepreneurial state argue that while the state may play an important role in funding early-stage research, it tends to be risk-averse and lacks the market-driven incentives required for successfully commercialising products and services (Mokyr, 2003). Some critics, also argue that Mazzucato's analysis of the state-market relationship was too simplistic by omitting the analysis of the social condition of innovation and complementary roles played by other actors in the innovation ecosystem (Pradella, 2017). Pradella (2017) also argues that Mazzucato's argument on the entrepreneurial state overlooks the role played and risks taken by the private sector entrepreneurs in achieving innovation and economic growth. Others argue that governments' involvement in the innovation process may cause interference and lead to misallocation of resources, restriction of competition, and inefficiencies in addressing societal challenges (Cowan and Foray, 1997). In line with this view, African governments' wasteful economic management, through patronage and resource control (Bayart, 2009), and weak governance structures and policies (Samatar and Samatar, 2002; Agbese and Kieh, 2007) imply they might have difficulty in adopting an entrepreneurial state model if they don't implement foundational reforms to address these gaps.

Additionally, some scholars argue that the notion of the entrepreneurial state is contextually driven by the political nature of the state (Papaioannou, 2020). According to Papaioannou (2020), authoritarian and socialist states are better suited to achieving entrepreneurial status than neoliberal and democratic governments because they are focused on social outcomes and not on the market.

Despite the various critics of the notion of the entrepreneurial state, Mazzucato's work underscores the need for a nuanced view of the role played by the state, the private sector, and other stakeholders in formulating effective innovation policies and driving sustainable economic development. Consequently, for the entrepreneurial state to be successful, it needs to implement mission-oriented innovation policies (MOIP) (Mazzucato, 2016). MOIP is a departure from the mainstream neoliberal view that posits that the private sector is the main driver of economic development. Instead, the MOIP states that governments are responsible for setting bold targets and missions to enable the solving of societal challenges through collaborations with different sectors (Mazzucato and Dibb, 2019). Mazzucato (2016) introduces the implementation of the ROAR framework to explore the entrepreneurial role governments play in actively shaping and driving innovation rather than just playing the market-fixing or regulator roles (Mazzucato, 2016, 2018a).

3.2.5.1 Mission-Oriented Innovation Policy (MOIP)

Moving beyond viewing development as the process of increasing the freedoms people enjoy (Sen, 1999), this study considers it as the observable positive societal outcomes, the enhanced social opportunities, and the removal of social obstacles over time as a result of government's focus on solving societal challenges (Mazzucato, 2018a). The focus on the role played by governments in solving societal challenges necessitates the review of the literature on the mission-oriented innovation approach (MOIP) to development. The MOIP is a heterodox perspective to studying the role governments play in development that requires governments making decisions on the different types of resources needed across sectors to achieve the societal change required for development to take place (Mazzucato, 2018a; Mazzucato and Dibb, 2019). Mazzucato and Dibb (2019), argue that MOIPs are the proactive, purpose-driven allocation of resources to solve societal challenges such as climate change, healthcare, or sustainable development. The core argument of MOIP is that the state plays an entrepreneurial role in shaping markets and driving innovation to meet societal goals (Mazzucato, 2018a; Mazzucato and Dibb, 2019). Accordingly, MOIP inspires innovation, economic growth, and societal improvement by focusing on solving societal challenges. Also, MOIPs enable systemic change and collaboration across sectors to facilitate innovation throughout the economy. MOIP is not sector

specific but societal problem specific thereby requiring co-creation across sectors. This view of the role of government agencies moves the focus from the neoliberal economic view of marginal improvements that arise from 'value for money' to the notion of public value creation (Mazzucato and Dibb, 2019). Hence, MOIP strategies convert societal grand challenges to distinct problems to enable the coordination of actions across actors and sectors (Mazzucato and Nguyen, 2024).

Critics of the MOIP assert that it is vague thereby making it difficult to measure governments' achievements and successes in the market from its implementation (Brown, 2021). Others argue that MOIP lacks a framework to help design and implement missions that governments should pursue (Hekkert et al., 2020; Wittmann et al., 2021). However, Mazzucato (2018b) argues that a well-designed MOIP should be broad enough to engage and attract a cross-section of actors and investments in the society to harness the strengths of both the public and private sectors. She goes further to state that a successful MOIP requires mission-oriented innovation organisations (MOIO) that are entrepreneurial. Examples of successful MOIOs, mentioned in section 3.4.3.1, are DARPA and ARPA-E. These organisations illustrate the positive outcomes that arise from targeted government intervention to enable innovation and address important societal challenges. According to Mazzucato and Nguyen's 2024 working paper, *How to make the Entrepreneurial State ROAR*, the technological missions engaged by these agencies do not require the government to specify the 'how' the missions ought to be carried out, instead the public organisations set the direction to enable the emergence of different possible solutions that will solve the identified societal challenges.

Mazzucato (2018a) posits that successful MOIOs need to implement the ROAR framework. ROAR stands for *Routes, Organisations, Assessment, and Risks and Rewards*. 'Routes' refers to governments setting bold innovation agendas by defining the missions and goals that will guide different sectors of the economy (Mazzucato, 2018a). 'Organisations' refers to the need to the structuring of the public sector agencies for impactful solutions for societal problems. 'Assessment,' refers to the measuring tools used by governments for evaluation (Mazzucato, 2018a). Finally,

'Risks and Rewards,' relates to the sharing of risks and rewards across different sectors and actors in the economy (Mazzucato, 2018a).

Accordingly, ROAR is the main conceptual lens for this research. It is explored in Chapter 4, applied to the Nigerian context in Chapters 7 through 10, and its overall relevance and implications are discussed in Chapter 11.

3.2.6 Development and State Capacity

This section commences with a review of literature on different theories on development. It then proceeds to discuss the notions of state capacity and developmental state.

3.2.6.1 Different Reasons for Non-Development

Just like there are different notions of the state, the debate on development has long prevailed with scholars offering a wide range of explanations for lack of development in sub-Saharan Africa, rooted in geography, culture, institutions, historical legacies, and global economic systems. Figure 1.1 in Chapter 1 summarises some of the different explanations and they are briefly discussed in this section to provide the reader with an overview of the divergent views before embarking on the main thesis that considers the role played by public sector dynamic capabilities in the creation of public value for citizens.

Development and Culture

According to some authors, culture plays an important role in shaping development outcomes of a country and could be a barrier to development as it affects how societies organise themselves and make economic decisions (North, 1991; Landes, 1998). Landes (1998) posits that cultural attributes such as attitudes toward time, work, education, and innovation affect economic levels of different countries. He further explains that the Europeans' Protestant ethic, discipline and rationality provided the enabling characteristics that gave them an advantage in capitalist development. North (1991) further argues that there is an interplay between culture, institutions, and development and that attitudes towards risk-taking, entrepreneurship, trust, and cooperation impact the effectiveness of institutions. However, some authors refute this school of thought to be too simplistic by arguing that agency and context are more

important and that while culture influences choice, values change with different opportunities and situations (Sen, 2004).

Geography and Climate

There are authors who argue that geography and climate significantly limit the way countries develop (Montesquieu *et al.*, 1989; Diamond, 1999; Sachs, 2000, 2005). According to Montesquieu (1748), environmental factors such as climate, terrain, and natural resources determine the behaviour, customs, and political systems of countries. Montesquieu's ideas laid the foundation for understanding how geographical factors can impact the development of societies. Similarly, Diamond (1999) argues that geographic factors such as access to fertile land and domesticated plants and animals, play a vital role in determining which countries become civilised or develop agriculture and technology in the long run. Sachs (2000) posits that climate, disease prevalence, natural resource endowments, and geographical isolation influence the economic and social progress of nations. Sachs further suggests the need for targeted interventions and investments in poor nations to address geographic constraints and promote sustainable development. However, some authors disagree with this notion as they claim that geography alone cannot explain different developmental outcomes because having robust institutions nullifies the argument of geography (Rodrik, Subramanian and Trebbi, 2004).

Resource Abundance and the Resource Curse

There are scholars who argue that, paradoxically, countries with abundant natural resources are prone to non-development – hence the term resource curse (Auty, 2001). The argument presented here is that the abundance of natural resources results in negative societal outcomes such as, rent-seeking behaviour and corruption but that improved institutional governance and policies can enable development (Karl, 1997; Collier, 2008; Frankel, 2010). Karl (1999) argues that oil and mineral wealth tend to create rentier states, weaken institutions, fuel authoritarianism and resource dependency, and ultimately lead to volatility, corruption, and the neglect of productive sectors such as manufacturing and agriculture. Some other scholars further posit that availability of revenue from natural resources cause politicians to become less responsive to the needs of their citizens as they use the public funds for their own

benefit thereby worsening the resource curse (Sigman *et al.*, 2022). Still, some authors counter this argument by claiming that with strong institutions, countries like Norway and Botswana with abundant resources have developed (Mehlum, Moene and Torvik, 2002).

Weak Institutions and Poor Governance

The role played by robust institutions is a major area of development theory. Here, institutions refer to the 'rules of the game in a society' – informal institutions like traditions, customs and codes of conducts – and formal institutions such as written laws, constitutions and regulations and contracts (North, 1991). Accordingly, there are scholars who blame weak institutions and poor governance on the non-development of countries such as Nigeria (North, 1991; Rodrik, Subramanian and Trebbi, 2004; Acemoglu and Robinson, 2013). North (1991) introduced the notion that both formal and informal institutions shape economic performance, while Acemoglu and Robinson (2013) argue that countries with 'extractive institutions' – non-inclusive institutions that extract wealth and resources of a nation – limit opportunities for the masses, resulting in non-development.

These authors highlight the importance of institutional reforms, accountable governance structures, and inclusive political and economic institutions in promoting sustainable development and prosperity. The institutionalists advocate reforms of institutions to ensure robust and inclusive sustainable development in poorer countries. Other scholars argue that inclusive institutions allow development to take place by providing citizens with equal access to resources and opportunities (Banerjee and Duflo, 2003). However, some authors contend that whilst institutions are vital for the building of developed countries, it is important to take into consideration context and developmental pathways when recommending their design for non-Western countries, particularly in Africa (Mazrui and Wiafe-Amoako, 2016; Shilliam, 2021). Others posit that institutions are not easily replicated in different contexts; institutional reforms need to consider local contexts and histories to succeed (Andrews, 2013). While the institutional and governance approach is important in guiding governments to create effective institutions and governance structures, it often fails to account for the fact that countries are shaped by their distinct cultural, social, and environmental factors –

therefore, no single model of good governance can be universally implemented (Escobar, 2011, 2020; Roelofs, 2023).

Dependency on Aid

Some scholars have highlighted the negative impact on development of countries that are heavily dependent on foreign aid (Chang, 2008, 2010a; Moyo, 2010). Both Chang and Moyo (2010) argue that reliance on aid undermines local initiatives, weakens accountability, and inhibits the achievement of sustainable development, and they call for ways to focus on domestic resource mobilisation, and empowerment of local communities instead for development to take place. Moyo (2010) claims that aid has led to the continuing of poverty and authoritarianism in African countries and that they need investment and trade, not handouts. Yet, some other scholars advocate the importance of aid in assisting countries resolve poverty issues (Sachs, 2005) and that it is actually effective in nations with sound policy environments (Burnside and Dollar, 2000).

High Fertility and Low Female Empowerment

Sachs (2015) and Sen (1999) argue that both high fertility rate and low economic empowerment of women in poor countries negatively affect development because they put pressure on resources and on education and health systems. Accordingly, high fertility rates can strain resources, increase poverty levels and prevent economic growth in developing countries (Sachs, 2015). Sachs also argues the need for women to be educated, economically empowered and given access to healthcare and family planning to reduce poverty (Sachs, 2012). Accordingly, improving women's access to education, reproductive health, and employment opportunities has a multiplier effect on household welfare and economic growth, and countries with low employment rate of women often experience slower development due to poor use of human capital (Duflo, 2012). However, some authors suggest the opposite – that fertility patterns are influenced by economic and social factors and not that development is determined by high fertility rate and low empowerment of women (Bongaarts and Watkins, 1996).

Corruption and Rent-Seeking Behaviour

Some authors highlight the need for institutional reforms to fight corruption for development to take place in poor countries as they contend that systemic corruption weakens institutions and public trust because resources are not properly allocated thereby causing underdevelopment in public goods (Mauro, 1995; Rose-Ackerman, 1999). However, some scholars argue that an overemphasis on corruption is diversionary, as it obscures deeper structural and historical factors – such as colonial legacies, unequal global trade, and weak state formation – that affect the incentives for corruption to thrive (Khan, 2006). Other scholars like Roelof (2023) debunk the labelling of Nigeria as being corrupt by arguing that this description stems from the Weber-centric academic framework that assigns neo-patrimonialism and corruption as terms to describe African countries' non-alignment with the Western 'good governance agenda.' Also, without consideration of the different mode of knowledge production and cultural context, African political systems are described as dysfunctional; they are considered to be too embedded in social and material relations. However, the fact remains that various Western institutions and systems were adopted by post-colonial African leaders without consideration being given to the cultural realities of the countries (Mazrui and Wiafe-Amoako, 2016)

Political Conditions and Inequality

There are scholars who note that political conditions, inequality and power imbalance negatively affect development (Sen, 1981). Accordingly, Sen (1981) advocates social justice, improvement of political participation, and fair distribution of resources for there to be reduction of poverty and for development to take place in poor countries. Also, some argue that conflict and civil wars cause non-development of low-income countries by displacing citizens and destroying infrastructure (Collier and Hoeffler, 2004). However, there are those who argue that development failures cause conflicts as a symptom and not a cause of non-development (Cramer, 2006).

Colonialism and Historical Legacies

According to some scholars, colonialism is to blame for lack of development in poor countries in the Global South countries because it destroyed indigenous political economy systems, imposed extractive institutions and policies, and established

dependency on the colonial countries (Rodney and Davis, 1972). Additionally, others argue that colonial governance system influenced ethnic divisions and authoritarian governments after these countries obtained their independence from their colonial masters (Anderson, 1983; Mamdani, 1996). Furthermore, some have attributed the emergence of fragmented cultural identities that arose from combining African traditions and mode of knowledge productions with the imposed Western norms (Mazrui and Wiafe-Amoako, 2016). Mazrui and Wiafe-Amoako (2016) further argue that the resultant cultural dualism has sub-Saharan African countries with conflicting values regarding authority, accountability and development priorities. Despite the disruption of colonialism on countries like Nigeria, post-independence leaders have often adopted and entrenched authoritarian modes of power for their personal gains (Bayart, 2009). The impact of colonialism on the public administration system is discussed further in section 3.3.5. There is also the school of thought that contends that the issue is not that development did not happen, but that it was never a priority of the colonial masters and that political conditions are the greatest obstacle to development (Ake, 1996).

Neoliberal Reforms and Structural Adjustment Programme

Finally, there are the heterodox economists who refer to the implementation of neoliberal policies since the 1980s as the main reasons for non-development and deindustrialisation of countries like Nigeria (Mkandawire and Soludo, 1998; Chang, 2002). Furthermore, these World Bank and IMF imposed policies prioritised macroeconomic stability over human development resulting in creation of social hardship for citizens, and erosion of state capacity for governments (Serra and Stiglitz, 2008; Stiglitz, 2016).

Despite the various contestations on the underdevelopment of countries in the Global South, there is no single explanation that stands out; instead, one would argue that underdevelopment is a product of the convergence of different historical, political, institutional, and social forces. Nevertheless, this thesis seeks to explore the role played by public sector dynamic capabilities in development in Nigeria.

The remaining sections under the first part of the research question will discuss state capacity in section 3.2.6.2 – as it is also critical to this research on the role played by the public sector in Nigeria’s societal outcomes. Afterwards, section 3.2.6.3 explores state capacity from a developing world context, by discussing the notion of the developmental state model.

3.2.6.2 State Capacity

Before discussing state capacity, it is important to highlight the fact that there is an overlap between definitions of capacity and capability with both terms used interchangeably in different literature. However, for the purpose of this thesis, capacity refers to resources (funds, human capital, structures like procurement etc) for achieving government’s goals, whilst capability is about the routine employed to make the most of the available resources – i.e., how organisations are able to transform a condition using the resources available (Kattel *et al.*, 2024). It is also about the government’s ability to perform its mandate in designing and implementing solutions and policies to address different societal issues (Mugwagwa *et al.*, 2022). According to Kattel *et al* (2024), state capacity relies on organisational routines that are needed in performing policy tasks and activating sets of resources such as financial and skills expertise. Furthermore, within the organisational routines are dynamic capabilities that enable institutions to utilise their resources, processes, and skills to address societal challenges.

Mazzucato and Kattel (2020), argue that governments need to have in place the capacity to adapt and learn, the capacity to align public services and citizen needs, the capacity to govern resilient production systems, and the capacity to govern data and digital platforms if their societies are to be transformed. Similarly, Evans (1995) argues, in the context of the developmental state, that the state needs to actively get involved with the market by facilitating capital accumulation, production capacities and entrepreneurship activities for development to take place through the notion of embedded autonomy of the state. Essentially, it is about the government’s ability to direct societal actors to do what it wants them to do through planning, policies and actions, towards achieving the targeted change and the desired outcomes for the country (Migdal, 1988). Thus, the presence of strong state capacity results in public

institution's delivery of better quality service for citizens and the entire society (Wu, Howlett and Ramesh, 2017), especially in times of crisis like the COVID-19 pandemic (Mazzucato and Kattel, 2020). Mazzucato and Kattel (2020) argue that a government's capacity to manage a pandemic is contingent on the cumulative investments the country has made on its ability to govern, act, and manage, and as such countries with strong state capacity were better equipped to respond successfully during the period of the COVID-19 pandemic.

State capacity is not uniform as different nations have capacity in different areas (Weiss, 1998). According to Tilly et al (1975), modern states emerge following the consolidation of powers after wars have been fought. This view aligns with those of Mann (1984) which posits that states evolve through different stages of power centralisation and territorial control (Mann, 1984). Moreover, scholars have linked state capacity to various developmental outcomes (Cingolani, 2013) such as economic development (Evans and Rauch, 1999, 2000), industrialisation (Evans, 1995) and transformation and innovation (Weiss, 1998). It is the state's ability to use its agencies to implement set-out policy goals, to provide public goods and services, and to maintain social order within its territorial boundaries (Skocpol and Finegold, 1982). This means that state capacity is a critical determinant of a state's ability to provide for its citizens and promote economic development (Fukuyama, 2004). It is also understood as emerging from the existence of bureaucratic public institutions' organisational routines performed by expert and independent civil servants that implement policies and raise revenue for government (Kattel *et al.*, 2024).

The interest in state capacity was sparked in the second half of the 20th century with the emergence of two constructs – neo-Marxist perspective and the US led movement of the state (Jessop, 2001). The neo-Marxist perspective in the 1960s posits that the state is determined by the functions it performs in the society (Jessop, 2001). Whilst the US led movement of state capacity contends that the state plays a strong central administrative role with the support of a professional civil service that is anchored on the Weberian bureaucracy (Jessop, 2001). This means that the public sector, where the state bureaucracy resides, requires the sets of skills and competences that are analytical, operational, and political to conduct roles such as the design and delivery

of public policies and services (Wu, Howlett and Ramesh, 2017). Wu et al (2017) further contend that public administration systems also require resources that are individual, organisational, and systemic to enable state capacity.

Skocpol and Finegold (1982) in their study that assesses two legislations passed under President Roosevelt in 1933 under the 'New Deal,' the National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA) and the Agricultural Adjustment Act, (AAA) used an explanatory approach to illustrate state capacity. Following the longitudinal study, Skocpol and Finegold (1982) contend that the positive outcomes from the AAA were as a result of the long process of building agricultural institutions that commenced from the period of the American Civil War. Skocpol and Finegold (1982) further argue that these institutions were well-established and that they created an administrative will for the government to intervene in agriculture. This view aligns with Mazzucato and Kattel's (2020) that state that governments' capacities, particularly in periods of pandemic, are based on the accumulated investments by the government on its ability to govern, do, and manage different areas of the economy.

Skocpol and Finegold (1982) also argue that, in contrast to the NIRA, the success of the AAA was because of the collaboration and learnings that took place with policy innovators and implementors outside government such as education institutions. This meant that the government leveraged on its administrative will, its resources, and skills to ensure continuity in policies and coordination of activities by government institutions for the success of the AAA. The notion of administrative will is further buttressed by the findings from the analysis done by Tilley et al (2015) on 34 case studies from Africa, Asia and Europe on the role played by donor agencies' interventions in the building of capacity for capabilities to emerge in public institutions. The study concludes on the importance of a strong drive by political and civil service leaderships for there to be sustained capacity development in the public sector for the implementation of successful government interventions (Tilley *et al.*, 2015). Additionally, stakeholders are increasingly aware that policy rationales need to be informed by local contexts whilst leveraging access to external global knowledge resources (Mugwagwa *et al.*, 2022).

In the case of Nigeria, its dependency on oil revenue and on exploitative multi-national companies and international organisations is said to have weakened the state's capacity to act in the national interest when it comes to spending the income generated to build infrastructure (Oyetunde, 2022). However, the country has become subservient to foreign interests by compromising its regulatory functions and decision-making capability for rent-seekers (Kohli, 2004). According to Kohli (2004), the Nigerian political elite's rent-seeking attitude that is driven by their desire to maintain power and divert public resources for personal gain, undermines the state's autonomy and capacity in the long run.

Nevertheless, Hickey's (2019) work, *The Politics of State Capacity and Development in Africa: Reframing and Researching 'Pockets of Effectiveness'*, provides a nuanced exploration of how some public sector organisations in sub-Saharan African countries achieve high performance despite operating within broader contexts of weak governance. According to Hickey (2019), studying PoEs enables researchers and policy makers to better understand the notion of state capacity and development in African countries like Nigeria.

3.2.6.3 The Developmental State

When exploring state capacity from a developing world context, the notion of the '*capitalist development state*', which was first coined by Johnson (1982), is considered important for this study. The capitalist development state describes the institutional arrangements by high economic growth countries such as Japan and the East Asian countries and is different from the American (capitalist) and Soviet (communist) economies' modes of development (Johnson, 1999). Previously, the neoclassical narrative of the development of the East Asian economies contends that these countries developed because they had in place strong market incentives and private sectors that focused on profit maximisation. However, the counter critical view to this neoclassical narrative is that these states developed rapidly because the governments were strong and autonomous whilst playing deliberate strategic roles of providing clear directions to the market players to enable industrialisation of their countries (Johnson, 1982, 1999; Amsden, 1989; Onis, 1991). Scholars trace the origins of the developmental state to the U.S. and German protectionism in the 18th century and

19th century respectively when these countries were at the early stages of their development (Chang, 2010b).

The developmental state model is in contrast with the neoliberal Washington Consensus model which advocates for market liberalisation, privatisation, and minimal state interventions in economic issues (Chang, 2010). Chang (2010) further contends that, unlike the neoliberal policies, the developmental state model considers the role of the state as pivotal in promoting economic development of countries. Thus, proponents of the developmental state assert that the successes of Japan, Korea and Taiwan in the late 20th century are due to the focus of their governments on policies that promote import substitution strategies, industrialisation and economic development and not on the private sector's drive for profitability in their businesses (Onis, 1991; Leftwich, 1995). They further argue that the driving force behind these Asian countries' quick industrialisation is the existence of strong and autonomous states that set the tone and provide direction for market activities that led to their economic development (Amsden, 1989; Onis, 1991; Wade, 1992; Evans, 1995). Also, in some instances, these countries made use of key coordinating or nodal agencies to engage directly or indirectly on their development journeys (Leftwich, 1995; Chibber, 2002; Wade, 2010). Hence, the Southeast (SE) Asian government's industrial policies played two distinct roles when interacting with the private sector to facilitate the developmental state model. The first role involves their leading the market – by making investment decisions that private actors were not interested in, such as the huge investment in a steel plant by the Korean government contrary to the World Bank's advice for the country not to invest (Wade, 2010). The second role involves the governments following the market – by providing incentives, such as tax holidays, and support to encourage private firms to make investments in selected sectors of the economy (Wade, 2010).

The developmental state is in contrast to the incoherent absolutist domination of predatory states such as Zaire, that emerged from a combination of weak internal organisation of its bureaucratic system and the pursuits of individual interests over the transformation of the country (Evans, 1989). Consequently, most developing countries fall somewhere between the extractive Zairian under President Mobutu and the

developmental state models of the East Asian countries (Evans, 1989). Given that states are not homogeneous and operate within varying contexts, different countries have adopted versions of the developmental state model that reflect their specific characteristics and circumstances (Chang, 2010b). Korea's model between the 1950s and 1980s is said to have been more bullish than Japan's classic developmental state (Chang, 2010b). For instance, whilst Korea used a powerful nodal agency – the Economic Planning Board (EPB) – to coordinate their industrial policies with the state owned and controlled banking sector, Japan's equivalent agency, the Ministry of International Trade and Industry's (MITI) activities is considered to be restrained by the more powerful finance ministry (Chang, 2010b).

The phenomenon of the developmental state arises under diverse political settings and the use of a combination of different tools. For instance, the developmental state emerged in most of the Scandinavian countries by their governments focusing on welfare-labour policies, whilst it emerged in the SE Asian countries through the implemented sector-specific industrial policies (Chang, 2010b). When considering the successful implementation of the developmental state model in Asian countries compared to the poor attempts in the sub-Saharan Africa countries, it is important to note that the Asian countries possess unique contextual factors that aid their successful implementation. One major factor that is important to consider is the existence of strong state capacity and leadership that push back against international agencies and foreign governments' dictates to implement neoliberal policies (Beeson, 2019).

However, since the 1980s, sub-Saharan countries such as Nigeria continue to be compelled to implement free market and neoliberal policies that prevent the emergence of their developmental states (Ezema and Ogujiuba, 2011; Beeson, 2019). These policies, such as foreign exchange liberalisation, banking reforms, and privatisation, have not effectively stimulated investment in the manufacturing, mining and agriculture sector thereby resulting in de-industrialisation post implementation of the SAP in Nigeria (Ezema and Ogujiuba, 2011). Ezema and Ogujiuba (2011) contend that Nigeria needs to become a proactive state with the capacity to allocate capital to

productive sectors and to invest in infrastructure – particularly in the energy sector, to enable successful industrialisation of the country.

Still, Chang (2010) argues that sub-Saharan African countries can build their models of the developmental state by using their home-grown state institutions. He contends that there is a need for these countries to focus on recruiting high calibre talented people in the public sector that will be instrumental in the building of a developmental state status irrespective of the political leanings of the country (Chang, 2010b).

However, establishing a developmental state in Nigeria is a complex endeavour that requires the country to overcome numerous challenges (Olaopa, 2017). Olaopa (2017) argues that political expediencies often hinder administrative reforms, and that the state must redefine its role to actively contribute to development and governance. He further states that well-defined policy framework, social policies, and a functional civil service are essential components of a successful developmental state in Nigeria. Additionally, he contends that Nigeria needs to have in place a competent and coherent civil service system for the emergence of a developmental state.

3.2.7 Conclusion of literature review on the roles public organisations play in solving societal problems

This section reviewed various literature on the role, structure and models of the state that align with the first sub-research question: *What roles do public organisations play in solving societal problems?* The study revealed that public organisations play multifaceted roles in addressing societal problems from efforts to ensure the protection of its citizens to innovative investments, implementing these solutions in tandem with other societal actors such as non-profits and youth organisations. This is ably backed by MOIP which emphasises the role public organisations play in setting bold targets and collaborating with different sectors.

However, it shows that public sector reform in developing countries often centres on areas like anti-corruption, cost-cutting, or the adoption of governance structures from the West. As such, there is limited attention to the deeper organisational capabilities

required to deliver long-term public value. This gap means that reforms embarked upon by governments are not as effective in transforming developing countries. Therefore, addressing this gap presents an important opportunity for research and practice: to focus on developing frameworks that embed dynamic capability-building into public sector reform. It also allows the exploring of the roles public organisations must play in solving societal problems, not only through policy or programme delivery.

3.3. EXPLORING PUBLIC ORGANISATIONS AND PUBLIC SECTOR DYNAMIC CAPABILITIES

3.3.1 Overview

This section reviews literature that enables the consideration of the second research question that asks: How do these public organisations build, deploy and sustain the relevant dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems for citizens? It starts off by reviewing core literature on bureaucracy and public administration management. It then discusses the Weberian bureaucratic system in development as the foundation of how the capabilities within public sector institutions are birthed, covering the creation of organisational structures and the emergence of new public management model in the public sector. Also, as the thesis is focused on Nigeria, literature on the influence of colonialism on public administration in Africa is reviewed. Finally, the section focuses on the notion of dynamic capabilities starting from the perspective of the private sector, where this concept was primarily developed before discussing the evolution of public sector dynamic capabilities to explore how dynamic capabilities and organisational routines contribute to the effectiveness of public organisations in attaining their objectives and solving societal challenges.

3.3.2 Importance of Public Administration

The review of literature on the role of public administration is important because the public sector is the vehicle used by the state for implementing laws and policies, and for delivering public services and programmes to citizens (Peters and Pierre, 2014). This thesis explores public administration (PA), which focuses on the formulation, implementation, and evaluation of public policy and programmes (Rosenbloom *et al.*, 2009). According to Rosenbloom *et al.* (2015), PA involves different activities such as policy design, budgeting, planning, and organisational management in the public

sector that are carried out by both the appointed political leaders and the career bureaucrats or civil servants across all levels of government – federal, state, and local.

However, in exploring the dynamic capabilities within the selected public agencies, the study also engages with their bureaucratic structures, which form a core component of the civil service. The civil service refers to the body of career government officials employed to implement policies and deliver public services on a politically neutral basis (Ostrom, 1973). It does not typically include elected officials or political appointees, but is essential for ensuring continuity, stability, and institutional memory. Although public administrators and civil servants perform distinct roles in governance – with civil servants operating within clearly defined roles and frameworks to promote impartiality, accountability, and continuity (Peters and Pierre, 2014) – the terms are sometimes used interchangeably. For the purpose of this thesis, however, the terms public administration and public administrator will be used to encompass the civil service and civil servants respectively.

Public administrators are critical to the functioning of government and are central to how societies are governed, regardless of the form of governance in place. Therefore, the strength of a country's public administration often reflects the overall strength of the state (Lynn, Jr, 2014). Effective public administration is closely linked to the quality of bureaucracies (Drechsler and Kattel, 2020) and the prevailing administrative traditions within a country (Peters, 2021). Accordingly, public organisations must develop effective and contextually relevant systems to address the complex challenges facing society, citizens, and government (Mugwagwa *et al.*, 2022).

While national administrative systems are shaped by unique historical and cultural contexts, they often share similar structures and values – particularly regarding the administration of public policy, the role of public service, and the relationship between government agencies and the political executive (Peters, 2021). Thus, irrespective of the bureaucratic system in place, the public administration system enables interactions between the state and the citizens. Peters (2021) further argues that long-established patterns of administration and policy tend to persist even as new forms of government emerge. For example, the Weberian model of bureaucracy – which

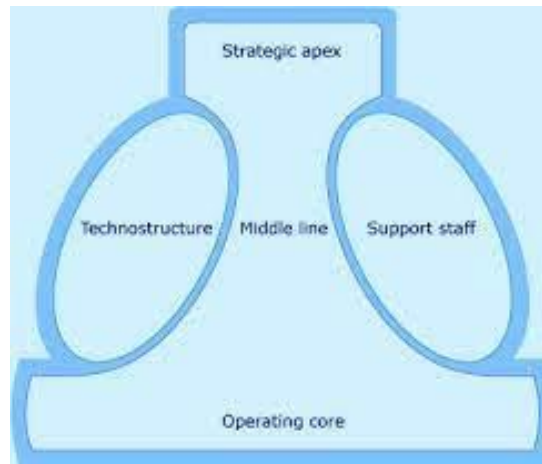
became the dominant organisational structure in Western economies – was inherited by many formerly colonised African states, including Nigeria. Given the importance of context in shaping systems of public administration, the next section explores the influence of colonialism on the development of administrative structures in African countries.

3.3.3 Weberian Bureaucratic System

The Weberian bureaucracy comprises of several factors: formal hierarchical structure, functional specialty, management by rules, meritocratic recruitment, impersonality of relation, and fixed duties. These factors are discussed briefly here. To start off with, there is a formal hierarchical structure that gives each level authority over the level underneath and is controlled by the level above it (Weber, 1919). This means that organisational communication and decisions need to go through a chain of command to facilitate accountability within organisations. The second factor refers to the division of organisations by functional specialty to enable tasks to be executed by experts and staff within relevant units or departments (Weber, 1919). The third characteristics is that organisations implement management by rules which enables decisions to be made at the highest organisational levels in a standardised manner (Weber, 1919). The fourth point is that recruitment is meritocratically done based on technical and academic qualifications, and required skills to create professionalism in the organisations (Weber, 1919). The fifth component relates to the existing impersonality of relation in the civil service as activities are carried out officially by staff in the system. The final factor is that staff are assigned with fixed duties for clarity of roles and responsibilities (Weber, 1919).

The structure of organisations is an important element of this study. Figure 3.3 below captures the five basic elements of organisational structure which comprise of the strategic apex, the middle management, the operating core, the technostructure, and the support staff (Mintzberg, 1983). The strategic apex is responsible for ensuring that the organisation effectively achieves its set mission as instituted by its owners or board of directors and it comprises of a chief executive officer, and other directors and senior executives.

Figure 3.3: The Five Basic Parts of an Organisation



Source: Mintzberg, 1983

Next is the middle line, which is made up of senior managers, managers and supervisors in different departments of the organisation that connect the strategic apex level to the operating core of the organisation. (Mintzberg, 1983). The middle management is needed by an organisation to oversee and coordinate the core staff that are involved in the operations of the firm (Mintzberg, 1983). Below the middle level is the operating core of the organisation. This level of staff report to the middle management and are involved in the core work related to the services and outputs of the firm (Mintzberg, 1983). The technostructure of the firm represents those that are employed to ensure that the work of the organisation is effective and standardised across board such as the IT, training and strategic planning functions (Mintzberg, 1983). Finally, the support staff provide the organisation assistance in areas outside its core operations such as public relations and legal functions (Mintzberg, 1983).

Mintzberg (1983) introduces five basic structures namely: the *simple structure* – flat hierarchy with the strategic apex as the key part; the *machine bureaucracy* – has a clear hierarchy and standardised tasks, with the technostructure as the main component; the *professional bureaucracy* – based on standardised skills with the operating core as the key part, the *divisional structure* – defined by standardised outputs, with the middle line playing a central part; and the *adhocracy* – a flexible,

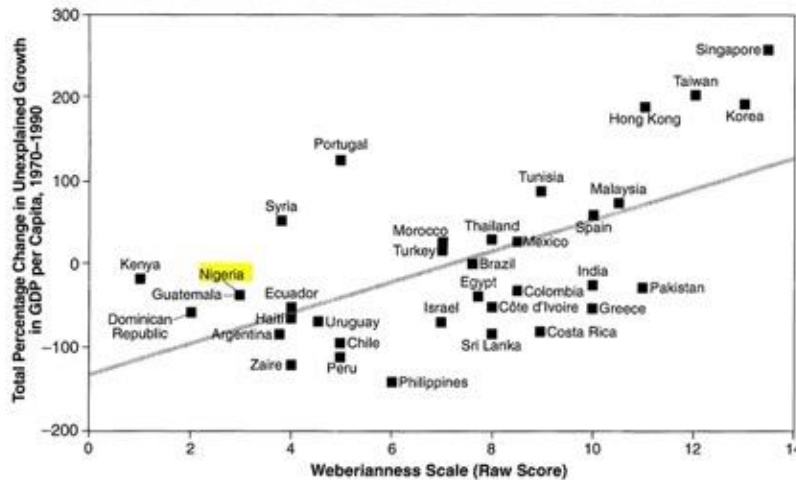
dynamic structure where the support staff is key. Accordingly, it is important to consider the contexts of the structures adopted by public organisations, ensuring that they enable the achievement of set objectives and support transparent and effective stakeholder engagement (Mintzberg, 1983).

3.3.3.1 The Role of Weberian Bureaucracy in Development

Unlike patrimonialism, which administers rules and regulations based on personal privilege, the principle of Weberian bureaucracy is underpinned by institutional rules and laws (Hodgson, 2006). According to Besley & Persson (2011), the Weberian system has positive characteristics that include efficient resource allocation, effective service delivery, the establishment of the rule of law, and institutional stability. However, the model has some limitations, which include the risk of bureaucratic rigidity that result in people not taking initiatives to be innovative when solving problems (Morgan, Okon and Emu, 2019). Also, some scholars argue that the model's standardised nature doesn't consider context and regional differences (Morgan, Okon and Emu, 2019). In the case of countries like Nigeria, some authors argue that there is no objectivity when it comes to recruitment and assessment of employees because of nepotism in some public organisations (Morgan, Okon and Emu, 2019; Ibietan and Joshua, 2020). This is because they have in place a patronage-based system of administration, whereby promotions were mostly implemented based on loyalty or relationships and not based on merit (Olowu, 2014).

Studies by Evans and Rauch in 1999 and 2000 assess the data from 35 developing countries between 1970 and 1990 to argue that the meritocratic recruitment and predictable career ladders in bureaucratic systems enable public organisations to pursue long-term goals effectively (Evans and Rauch, 1999). Specifically, Evans and Rauch (1999) assert that their findings illustrate the fact that the contribution of competent and cohesive bureaucratic systems relate to the high economic growth experienced by the East Asian countries; whilst the poor governance structure of the African countries correlate with their low economic growth rates as shown in Figure 3.4 below.

Figure 3.4: Scattergram Showing Relationship between Weberianness Scale Score and Unexplained Growth in GDP per Capita, 1970 to 1990



Source: Evans and Rauch (1999)

According to Evans and Rauch's study, the degree of Weberianness correlates to the level of economic development of countries as is evidenced by the positioning of the southeast Asian countries compared to sub-Saharan countries such as Nigeria, Zaire, Kenya, and Cote D'Ivoire in Figure 3.4.

Evans and Rauch (2000) go further to postulate that several structural features, such as competitive salaries, internal promotions, career stability, and meritocratic recruitment help to predict ratings of bureaucratic performance and enable the implementation and maintenance of a policy environment that facilitates economic growth. Accordingly, state bureaucracy, particularly an institutionalised meritocratic recruitment system, is needed to create a policy environment that is favourable to economic growth (Evans and Rauch, 2000). However, as economic growth alone does not adequately measure development (Nussbaum, 2011), it is critical to consider social factors such as improvement of citizens' quality of life when assessing the role of public organisations (Ukwandu and Ijere, 2020).

3.3.4 Emergence and Impact of New Public Management

During the Thatcher-Reagan led governments of the 1980s, the growth in popularity of neoliberal policies globally led to a call for less government interventions, more private sector led economic activities and more privatisation of state-owned

enterprises (O'Flynn, 2007; Pollitt, 2007; Hood and Dixon, 2013). This period also saw the adoption of business practices based on neoliberal economic principles known as New Public Management (NPM) by the public sector in countries across the world (including developing countries). The purpose of exploring NPM in this study, relates to organisations' performances and performance management systems which is discussed in section 3.4.2.1. The NPM is based on the notion that people are motivated by their self-interest and that all their actions can be quantified and measured by their organisations (Drechsler, 2006). It sought to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of public services by drawing inspiration from private sector management practices (O'Flynn, 2007; Pollitt, 2007; Hood and Dixon, 2013). Some of these practices include decentralisation, market-based mechanisms, performance measurement, managerial autonomy, and a customer-centric focus by public organisations (Hood and Dixon, 2013). These features are now discussed below.

The first component, decentralisation, involves dividing departments in the public sector to be more efficient and shifting decision-making authority from the central government to lower levels of administration so that they are more responsive to local needs (Hood and Dixon, 2013). However, this practice leads to the emergence of more powerful bureaucrats that are less responsible and accountable to the people (Drechsler, 2006). The second characteristic is market-based mechanisms, which require public sector organisations to act like private businesses by focusing on competitive tender processes, efficiency and cost effectiveness in project assessments, and performance-related pay structure for public sector staff (Hood and Dixon, 2013). However, critics of NPM argue that its focus on efficiency without considering institutional and societal contexts is detrimental to the delivery of public services (Drechsler, 2006; O'Flynn, 2007; Hood and Dixon, 2013). The third factor is performance measurement, whereby work performance in the public sector is assessed in terms of outputs and outcomes instead of on just inputs, procedures and processes (Hood and Dixon, 2013). This approach leads to the use of key performance indicators (KPIs) and other tools to assess the performance of public organisations so that resource allocation and rewards are linked to the agencies' performance (Hood and Dixon, 2013). However, the sole focus on results' attainment fails to allow the consideration of the creation of public value in the society (Moore,

1995). The public value paradigm requires that public servants go beyond focusing on the outcomes of their initiative by coordinating the interests of different stakeholders to achieve collective public value for the society (Moore, 1995).

The fourth component of NPM is the autonomy given to bureaucrats in making decisions thereby removing politicians from the actions of public servants (Drechsler, 2006). Opponents of NPM argue that this allows politicians to hide away from bad choices made by bureaucrats when things go wrong but that it reduces the trust citizens have in the government's ability to deliver viable solutions that solve the society's problems (Drechsler, 2006). The fifth characteristics of NPM is that it is customer-centric which means that it considers citizens as customers when public agencies implement and deliver services (Drechsler, 2006). Here, critics argue that its describing of citizens as customers removes them from participating in the process of coming up with solutions to solve the different societal problems (Drechsler, 2006). The sixth component of NPM is that it advocates the outsourcing of public sector services to the private sector and NGOs (Drechsler, 2006). Drechsler (2006) argues that this has resulted in higher costs of delivery and reduced competences of people who work in the public sector. However, in response to this point, proponents of NPM argue that it delivers better value because initiatives are implemented by experts in the society (Hood and Dixon, 2013). Also, its supporters maintain that it has been successful because it promotes accountability, but did not succeed in certain context such as the non-availability of a robust Weberian bureaucracy in the public sector (Pollitt, 2007; Lapuente and Van de Walle, 2020).

Nevertheless, NPM is said to thrive if certain pre-existing conditions exist such as implementation of a strong Weberian bureaucracy, as described in section 3.3.1 above in the public sector of a country (Pollitt, 2007) and existence of other Western models such as democracy and good governance (Baker, 2004). Moreover, the advent of NPM has meant that public administration management has been transformed into a strategic framework for dynamic workforces in the civil service (Olaopa, 2017).

3.3.5 The Role of Colonialism on Public Administration in Africa

Though an in-depth historical review and assessment of the Nigerian state and the civil service of Nigeria was conducted in Chapter 2 to provide context for this study, this section considers the lasting mark of colonialism on the administrative traditions of nations across Africa (Peters, 2021).

European powers, particularly the British and the French, imposed their forms of governance and administration during the era of colonisation (Peters, 2021). The British employed a strategy of indirect rule, characterised by collaboration with local leaders and the utilisation of pre-existing governance structures. Traditional leaders played significant roles in administration, mirroring the British's commitment to maintaining local hierarchies, and this influence continues in post-colonial public administration (Peters, 2021). Conversely, French colonialism adopted a more centralised and direct approach to governance by actively applying French legal systems and values to the colonies with the objective of assimilating local populations into French culture and practices (Peters, 2021).

Peters (2021) argues that the British colonialism promoted values of collaboration, public service motivation, and indigenous ownership of administration, which facilitated the integration of the citizens into the administrative process. However, other authors argue that the colonialists operated an exclusion model that prevented the assimilation of the public administration system by Africans and the transformation of their countries (Taiwo, 1993). Moreover, the review of governance systems in post-colonial countries showed that the systems were not transformed as the colonial systems did not necessarily replace the traditional governance structures and customary practices that continue to influence administrative operations in African countries (Hyden, 2013).

Authors also argue that the colonial legacies of patrimonialism, administrative dysfunctions and bureaucratic entitlement are to blame for certain challenges in the public administration systems in African countries (Kohli, 2004; Peters, 2021). Consequently, the patron-client relationships established during colonialism persist, contributing to corrupt practices and indifference to the needs of citizens (Evans, 1989).

Also, the colonial legacy has resulted in dysfunctional elements within African public administration, including hierarchical decision-making and limited technical capacity, which negatively affect governance (Olivier De Sardan, 2011). Furthermore, according to De Sardan (2011), state bureaucracy in some African countries serves the interests of the ruling elite rather than the public as there is prevalence of informal practices, clientelism, and rent-seeking within these bureaucracies, which hinder effective governance and service delivery.

Despite the gloomy portrayal of the African public administration system by different authors, there are pockets of efficiencies and effectiveness (Evans, 1989; Geddes, 1990; Roll, 2014; Hickey, 2019) within these systems. Nevertheless, Evans (1989) argues that these pockets of efficiency created may not, in the long run, be sustainable as they tend to rely on the protection and the driving force of the leader at the time.

3.3.6 The Notion of Public Sector Dynamic Capabilities

According to Mazzucato and Kattel (2020), for economies to be future ready, governments need to build dynamic capabilities. Public sector dynamic capabilities are built through capacity to adapt and learn, capacity to align public services and citizen needs, capacity to govern resilient production systems, capacity to govern data and digital platforms and capacity to facilitate inter- and intra-governmental learning and coordination at different levels of government as well as internationally (Mazzucato and Kattel, 2020, 2021). Essentially, public sector dynamic capabilities are changes in routines and learning in public agencies not caused by market pressures, but by political and policy practices (Kattel, 2022). Therefore, unlike the private sector, where this concept emerged, the dynamic capabilities in the public sector involve the necessary capacities within public organisations that are required to facilitate societal transformation (Mazzucato and Kattel, 2018).

In the case of private sector, the capability theory provides clear insights regarding how firms allocate their resources, why some companies innovate better, and why some companies are more profitable (Teece, Pisano and Shuen, 1997; Teece, 2019). This is the resource-based view, which links the resources and capabilities of a firm to its competitive advantage and profitability (Penrose, 1959). Accordingly, capabilities

are the main component influencing firms' performance. They are outcomes of learning, combining resources, and exploiting complementary assets that become embedded in routines. These routines are either ordinary – operational, or dynamic – strategic (Teece, 2019). The operational capabilities are described as the critical aspect of an organisation that explain the emergence of its competitive advantage (Wu, Melnyk and Flynn, 2010). Whereas, dynamic capabilities are a firm's ability to combine, build, and reorganise its internal and external resources and competences to meet the requirements of rapidly changing business conditions (Teece, Pisano and Shuen, 1997). According to Teece (2017, 2019), there are three main activities that senior managers engage in across different firms to ensure dynamism in the business environment. The first is sensing, which involves the identification and assessment of threats, opportunities, and customers' needs. The second is seizing, which involves the mobilising of resources for new opportunities to create value. The third is transforming, which relates to the continuous regeneration of the organisation.

Furthermore, the capability theory assumes that firms know what they are doing. Organisational knowledge is based on its ability to perform actions that create tangible products or services (Dosi, Faillo and Marengo, 2008). According to Dosi et al. (2008), organisational knowledge is a resultant effect of the connection of a certain collective pool of knowledge, skills, and opportunities with directions and effectiveness of the firm. Consequently, the outcomes of this learning process at the individual and firm levels are distinctive competencies and capabilities that shape the firm as organisational learning emerges from the coordination of individual learning processes (Marengo, 1992). In considering the relationship between organisational learning and capabilities, individual skills within the firm are arguably among the building blocks of organisational routines and as such there is a convergence between organisational learning and capabilities (Dosi, Faillo and Marengo, 2008). The outcome is that the necessary know-how is fixed in the organisation's activities, and that these building blocks shape organisational processes, structures, and routines through the use of strategic management (Dosi, Faillo and Marengo, 2008).

However, as Piening (2013) notes, unlike private firms, public organisations face specific challenges such as bureaucratic constraints, restricted and regulated financial

resources, and accountability to diverse stakeholder groups. These factors significantly limit their ability to develop dynamic capabilities. Building on this, Mazzucato and Kattel (2018) posit that dynamic capabilities in the public sector refers to organisations' abilities to set goals and plan, to enact necessary policies, and to coordinate, engage and collaborate with different societal actors are critical to drive societal change. In this regard, governments must develop in-house capabilities and skills focused on adaptability and continuous learning (Mazzucato and Kattel, 2020). Furthermore, Mazzucato et al (2021), emphasise that dynamic capabilities enable organisations to develop the necessary resources such as knowledge and distinguish them from operational capabilities, which are more static. Thus, dynamic capabilities constitute core competences that are needed to transform short-term competitive positions to lead to longer-term competitive advantage. For a country to be transformed from a weak state into a dynamic and capable innovative state, there needs to be capacities, resources, and capabilities within different organisations – public, private, and civil society. (Mazzucato, Kattel and Qobo, 2021).

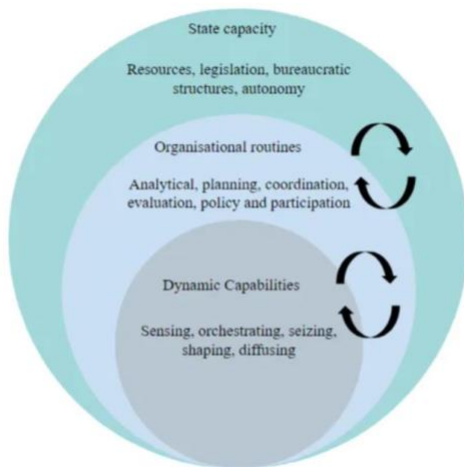
The number and classifications of dynamic capabilities are contested (Kattel *et al.*, 2024). According to Gullmark's 2021 study of four Norwegian public institutions, there are two categories of dynamic innovation capabilities in the public sector – the low-routinised and high-routinised innovation capabilities. Gullmark (2021) argues that low-routinised capability environments are characterised by managerial leaderships to set the direction and to empower employees to initiate radical innovation. While high-routine environments give rise to incremental innovations through routines and processes.

Kattel (2022) studies three public sector organisations: UK's Government Digital Service, the City of Barcelona, and Sweden's Vinnova, to explore the components and possible assessment of dynamic capabilities. He argues that as dynamic capabilities are about renewing existing organisational routines, identifying them is based on specific context. It is important to understand critical issues concerning the state and policy capacities of the organisations before studying their dynamic capabilities (Kattel, 2022). The three routine elements are sense-making, connecting, and shaping. Sense-making involves analytical, assessment, information-gathering and processing

routines that facilitate learning and evaluation of performance and value created by a public organisation. It involves the strategic scanning and appraisal of the opportunities and threats in a public institution's ecosystem (Kattel *et al.*, 2024). Connecting refers to the stakeholders working collaboratively to solve problems. It relates to the ability of a public organisation to coordinate the functions within its institution and across its ecosystem (Kattel *et al.*, 2024). Shaping involves the designing of solutions and the long-term entrenchment of routines for future initiatives. It entails the public organisation's ability to transform its internal processes and skills set in response to changes in its environment (Kattel *et al.*, 2024).

Kattel *et al.* (2024) go further to introduce two additional types of public sector dynamic capabilities – seizing and learning. Seizing, which aligns with Teece's (2017, 2019) categorisation, involves the ability of a public institution to capitalise on evolving opportunities in its ecosystem (Spanó *et al.*, 2024). Similarly, learning comprises of how the routines relating to organisational learnings are assessed, coordinated, monitored, and institutionalised from individual learning processes (Marengo, 1992; Kattel *et al.*, 2024). Accordingly, organisations with dynamic capabilities tend to focus on long-term capacity renewal by building robust professional workforce and developing dynamic routines for agility to solve challenges (Kattel, 2022; Kattel, Drechsler and Karo, 2022). Furthermore, some scholars argue that these public sector dynamic capabilities are embedded in organisational routines that are required to enable state capacity as discussed in 3.2.6a (Kattel *et al.*, 2024). The relationship between state capacity, organisational routines and dynamic capabilities is illustrated in Figure 3.5 below.

Figure 3.5: State capacities, Organisational routines, and Public Sector Dynamic capabilities



Source: Kattel *et al*, 2024

Dynamic capabilities in the public sector are the abilities beyond usual state capacities such as the creation of bureaucratic structures and legislation, to making analytical decisions and opportunity sensing, seizing, and transforming in line with Teece (2017, 2019), which are primarily used in the private sector. Figure 3.5 above shows the interconnected relationship between state capacity, organisational routines, and dynamic capabilities. At the top level is state capacities, which provide the foundation for government's bureaucratic structures, legislations and legal frameworks (Kattel *et al.*, 2024). The next layer captures organisational routines such as planning, coordination and evaluation to enable and strengthen government's abilities to identify and utilise required resources to achieve set goals for a country (Migdal, 1988; Kattel *et al.*, 2024). Organisational routines enable the application of state resources into everyday policy and service delivery processes. Finally, nested within this layer, are dynamic capabilities which represent the government's ability to sense opportunities and threats, connect with stakeholders, shape systems, and adapt and experiment with new approaches and processes (Kattel *et al.*, 2024). Hence, public sector dynamic capabilities facilitate the linkage between the desired goals set by the state and how they are achieved. Consequently, Kattel *et al* (2024) argue that this relationship between dynamic capabilities and state capacity is expected to generate more robust policy design, enhance policy implementation and outcomes that significantly improve citizens' wellbeing.

3.3.7 Conclusion of literature review on how public organisations build and sustain dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems

This section reviewed literature for the consideration of the second sub-research question that asks: *How do these public organisations build, deploy and sustain the relevant dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems for citizens?* One major take away is that starting from classical bureaucratic theory and the Weberian model, through to the legacies of colonial administration in Africa and the global adoption of NPM, public sector reforms have often prioritised structure, control, and performance metrics over deeper questions of capability. However, today's public organisations need to respond to societal problems not only based on their structures but based on their dynamic capabilities – their capacity to sense-make, connect, and shape resources. While the notion of dynamic capabilities stems from the private sector strategic management school, its application to the public sector is underdeveloped. This presents an opportunity for this study's contribution – by assessing the dynamic capabilities within Nigerian public sector organisations – to address the question of how these capabilities are built, deployed and sustained to solve societal problems for citizens.

3.4. SOCIETAL OUTPUTS, OUTCOMES AND PUBLIC VALUE

3.4.1 Overview

This section contains a review of literature from different perspectives on the evaluation of public organisations and the creation of public value. In reviewing how public institutions are evaluated, this section presents arguments by key scholars on performance management within the public sector – by exploring performance management from both the perspective of the quality of action taken and the quality of the achievements, and by considering the administrative culture on which the organisations are performing with notions of new public management (NPM) and new public governance (NPG) as illustrations. In assessing the measurement of impact of the activities of the public organisations, it explores how dynamic capabilities are identified and the connection between capabilities and development before discussing the notion of the infrastructural power of the state and the human development approach. In reviewing the process of creation of public value, the section reviews

literature from different viewpoints. It finally considers public service ecosystems and how public organisations measure, manage, and sustain public value.

3.4.2 Measuring the Performance and Outputs of Public Organisations

This section considers different ways of measuring the performance of public organisations by considering their actions, outputs, and outcomes.

3.4.2.1 Performance Management Systems

According to Van Dooren et al, performance is about purposeful and deliberate conduct by an individual or organisation. The concept of performance in the public sector can be viewed from the perspective of the quality of action taken or from the perspective of the quality of the achievements derived from actions taken by organisations (Van Dooren, Bouckaert and Halligan, 2015). In treating performance as a concept, Van Dooren et al (2015) suggest four lenses for viewing and understanding performance as shown in Table 3.1 and discussions below.

Table 3.1: Four Perspectives on How Performance is Understood

		Does the perspective imply quality of achievements?	
Does the perspective imply quality of actions?	No	No Performance as production (P1)	Yes Performance as good results (P3)
	Yes	Performance as competence/ capacity (P2)	Performance as sustainable results (P4)

Source: Van Dooren et al (2015)

The first perspective, P1, focusses on the tasks being undertaken by public servants without considering if those actions are successful. The second perspective, P2, focusses on the quality of actions without considering the quality of the achievements. In this case, performance is all about the competence of the public institution and not on the outcomes or impacts on society. The third perspective, P3, focusses on the achievements or results without considering the actions or methods undertaken by the public agency. The fourth perspective, P4, focuses on both the quality of the actions and the results, whereby the efforts and the outcomes are considered important by

the public institution. According to Van Dooren et al (2015), P4 essentially leads to a more robust and sustainable public institution.

In addition to being viewed as a concept, performance is also perceived as an agenda. This is the case under NPM that advocates for the use of performance management systems in the public sector. Some authors argue that the success of a performance management system is tied to the administrative culture that is centred on delivering on public interest (Lee *et al.*, 2012). Lee et al (2012) go further to argue that the attitudes of the civil service in all of the seven countries they studied were important factors that contributed to the successful application of performance management systems in the public organisations. However, performance measurement requires the organisations to be clear on what they need to measure, how they should be measured, the interpretation of the data, and the communication of the performance results (Fryer, Antony and Ogden, 2009).

When it comes to setting indicators to identify what should be measured, Fryer et al (2009) refer to Stevens et al's (2006) illustration of four types of indicators namely: output (quantity of item being produced), welfare (the value to the users), performance (process of producing services), and the combination of the other three indicators. To tackle this issue of indicators, several authors have proposed different frameworks such as the performance prism or the balanced scorecard. Though no one framework suits all organisations, the balanced scorecard is more popular. This is because it is seen as being more holistic as it incorporates the views of stakeholders and the measurement of outcomes instead of just relying on outputs from performed tasks. Yet, the success of the balanced scorecard system is contested by different authors with critics calling for the need for a performance management system that is more predictive instead of it being used to only give feedback. There is also the need for organisations to have a greater understanding of the use of performance indicators for the achievement of strategic objectives across all the levels of an organisation (Fryer, Antony and Ogden, 2009).

Fryer et al (2009) also highlight the potential conflicts that can arise between different interest groups such as between politicians and civil servants, different divisions within

agencies, and pressures from private sector and other agencies wanting control and autonomy over grey areas that may come up. One recommendation on how to resolve the concerns from the performance management system is the move from NPM to new public governance (NPG) that emphasises the important role played by multiple inter-dependent actors that are involved in delivering of public services (Osborne, 2006). Osborne et al (2022) further argue that societal value is an interactive process and interplay between different elements such as societal context and values. Therefore, when it comes to assessing performance in the public sector, the focus should be on the relationships and effectiveness of the interactions between the selected public organisations and their ecosystem members to produce positive societal outcomes (Osborne, 2006).

3.4.2.2 Dynamic Capabilities Measurement and Connection to Development

When it comes to identifying and measuring dynamic capabilities, four categories are suggested namely: managers' evaluations on performance of firm, financial data and performance, company's experience, actions and performance over the years of analysis, and managers' or employees' experience, actions, and performance (Laaksonen and Peltoniemi, 2018). Laaksonen and Peltoniemi (2018) argue that the results of these four lines of enquiries reveal the existence of ordinary and dynamic capabilities within a firm that causes positive performance and outcomes. Earlier work by Pauku et al (2010) on firms recommend the combining of Teece's work on dynamic capabilities with Sen's capability theory approach (discussed in 3.4.2.4) to enable the identification of capabilities within ecosystems and to capture interdependences and social outcomes. This ecosystem approach is a multilevel analysis that moves beyond the level of the organisation to capture capabilities within the ecosystem affecting different actors (Pauku, Koria and Kourula, 2010).

In developing countries, governments' capabilities are assessed based on their ability to design and implement policies and solutions to address market failures occurring in their countries (Cirera and Maloney, 2017). Cirera and Maloney (2017) identify four areas that are key to enabling governments play their market fixing roles. Firstly, they argue that in designing policies, governments need to pay attention to their context in setting their missions instead of importing irrelevant solutions from advanced countries.

Secondly, the public sector's ability to execute policies and solutions as and when needed is an indication of their efficiency. Thirdly, governments need to ensure that they are able to coordinate policies across ministries for alignment with the country's development goals. Fourthly, governments need to be consistent with the policies they set to ensure continuity in policies overtime. Broadly speaking, countries require both technological and social capabilities for economic growth to take place (Fagerberg and Srholec, 2008). Technological capabilities are linked to knowledge, while social capabilities are related to the ability to convert the benefits from knowledge into favourable outcomes (Fagerberg and Srholec, 2008). Accordingly, countries that lack technological capabilities and other complementary factors continue to fall behind. Nevertheless, the type of capabilities required for each country to develop is unique (Weiss, 1998).

In the case of the Asian Tigers, their successes are attributed to the development of their dynamic capabilities in the private sector (Lall, 1992; Teece, 2019). This means that private firms in these countries made investments or strategic decisions to deliberately develop their relevant capabilities to build their industries and to ensure they didn't lag behind (Chandler, 1990). Furthermore, the development of certain dynamic capabilities within private firms in developing countries will enable the success of their countries' future paths because their focus shifts beyond the accumulation of technology and capital (Teece, 2017). Also, governance and leadership capabilities are key to the development of Asian countries (Mills *et al.*, 2020). Whilst good organisations are important, developing countries do not need to adopt Western-like organisations but they need to have their home-grown capable organisations to develop, as context is unique for every country (Fagerberg and Srholec, 2008; Chang, 2010b; Mugwagwa *et al.*, 2022). Lall (1992) argues that simpler capabilities can be learnt on the job by doing, whereas harder skill sets for advance technology require more efforts. This is because as technologies progress in complexities, the development of capabilities encounters challenges regarding appropriability and requirements of very specialised skills (Lall, 1992).

However, whilst the concept of dynamic capabilities is important, it is important to note that its relevance in private sector relates to their drive to achieve competitive

advantage. Consequently, the direct transposition of dynamic capabilities from private sector to the public sector can be misleading without careful adaptation (Kattel *et al.*, 2018). In the private sector, dynamic capabilities are primarily concerned with enabling firms to sense, seize, and transform in order to outperform competitors and maximise profits (Teece, 2017). By contrast, public sector dynamic capabilities are focused on public value creation, shaping markets, coordinating actors, and addressing societal challenges (Kattel *et al.*, 2018).

3.4.2.3 Assessing the Infrastructural Power of the State

The state's power does not only emerge from its coercive or ideological capacities but is deeply rooted in its ability to develop and maintain the necessary infrastructure to sustain its authority (Mann, 1984; Soifer and vom Hau, 2008). Mann (1984) argues that the dialectic relationship between the state and the civil society results in different development outcomes. Mann's theory of infrastructural power provides a useful basis for understanding the state's capacity to govern as it emphasises the importance of the state's physical and organisational infrastructure being central to its authority and influence in society. In today's terms, the infrastructural power of the state is measured by its autonomy and its officials' ability to translate policies into actions (Mann, 1984; Cairney, 2012). In this case, physical infrastructure refers to the tangible assets controlled by the state, such as the transportation networks, communication systems, and administrative facilities. Mann (1984) argues that the state's ability to construct and maintain different physical assets is vital for establishing and maintaining its authority over its territory. For example, when the state constructs roads and bridges, it not only facilitates trade and movement of people and goods, but it also allows the state to control its remote areas.

The organisational infrastructure according to Mann, refers to the state's capacity to create and manage public organisations and administrative systems. Mann (1984) contends that organisational infrastructure, for different areas such as law enforcement and tax collection, is important for state governance. He posits that a strong organisational infrastructure enables the state to implement and enforce policies, provide essential public goods and services, maintain law and order, and collect revenues to earn the trust and support of its citizens. Thus, the state's capacity

to penetrate society and provide essential public goods is based on the quality and reach of its infrastructure (Soifer and vom Hau, 2008). In the African context, the level of infrastructure power in Africa correlates closely with the degree of national progress and development.

3.4.2.4 Measuring Human Development

Mazzucato (2018a) argues that the traditional means of measuring success, like cost-benefit analysis and gross domestic product (GDP) are not adequate for evaluating the impact of innovation on an economy. The use of GDP as a measurement of development is the mainstream economics approach from the era of Smith (1776) that considers development largely from the perspective of capital accumulation and economic growth. Proponents of this view of development believe it to be a prerequisite for improving living standards and providing capital for the implementation of public services and infrastructure (Barro, 1996). Consequently, mainstream economists often assess progress in development based on growth and upward trend in GDP as they are considered to reflect the overall prosperity of a nation. However, GDP focusses on economic growth with little consideration given to citizens' living standards, inequality among people and environmental sustainability (Nussbaum, 2011; Nair, 2018).

The early counter-theory to the market-efficiency model of assessing development is the human development approach (HDA) (Nussbaum, 2011). This perspective defines a developed nation as that which is able to sustainably provide basic needs of security, clean water, shelter, sanitation, health care, education and more recently, communication and internet connectivity for its citizens (Nussbaum, 2011; Nair, 2018). The human development approach also uses a single metric, the human development index (HDI), in the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) reports to measure development by combining income, education, and health indicators (Nussbaum, 2011; UNDP, 2021). It comprises of a weighted aggregate of data relating to life expectancy, educational achievements and, GDP per capita to rank countries' development. However, some authors argue that HDI focuses on quantifiable indicators that may not capture cultural, social, or environmental aspects of development (Chowdhury, 1991; Klugman, Rodríguez and Choi, 2011). In its defence,

Nussbaum (2011) contends that the main objective of the report can be found in the qualitative explanations given in its appendix, which makes it clear that the focus of the HDI is not on a single number (Nussbaum, 2011). Nussbaum further ascribes development with the attainment of threshold of ten central capabilities which are a lot broader than the components of the HDI. The ten central capabilities are briefly described here as: life, which relates to the ability to live to the end of one's life; bodily health, which refers to one's ability to have good health, nourishment and reproductive health; bodily integrity which considers one's ability to move freely without enduring physical assault; senses, imagination, and thought, which is about the ability to use one's mind to reason and express oneself; emotions, which has to do with the ability to develop attachment to things/people without fear; practical reason, which refers to the ability to form conception of good to plan one's life; affiliation, which relates to the ability to live and associate with others without fear; other species, which refers to the ability to live and interact with other beings and environments; play, which is about the ability to laugh, play and enjoy recreational activities; and control over one's environment is the ability to govern one's life, participate in political processes and hold property.

However, both the mainstream and human development approaches assess development as achievements of certain goals or thresholds. In his work on the capability theory approach (CTA), Sen (1999) argues that development is best considered as a 'process' of increasing the freedom people enjoy. The CTA changes the focus of development from the resources people have and the public goods they can access to look at what they are able to do and be with those resources and goods (Sen, 1999). Accordingly, viewing development from this perspective enables the focus to be on the means of achieving better quality of life for citizens, through the expansion of freedoms, and the removal of 'unfreedoms' that prohibit better life (Sen, 1999).

3.4.3 Creating and Measuring Public Value Across Social Actors

Literature on public value is relevant to this study, as it is focussed on public sector dynamic capabilities and its role in creating public value for Nigerian citizens – the last part of the main research question. It introduces the notion of public value – distinct

from social value, by reviewing literature on the different frameworks on public value. It then discusses public value in public service ecosystems before exploring how public value is measured, managed and sustained to enable development.

3.4.3.1 Public Sector and Public Value Creation

In neoclassical economic theory, the notion of public value was previously non-existent as it classifies the government as being unproductive because they are not involved in production activities that require goods being sold at a price that equates to a value (Mazzucato, 2019). Instead, the private sector was deemed to be the productive part of society and neoclassical economists declared that businesses' priorities were to create profit for their shareholders by focusing on shareholder value creation (Friedman, 1970). However, subsequently, other scholars held the view that businesses' focus should extend beyond profit maximisation because they have responsibility to contribute positively to other stakeholders in the society and the environment (Carroll, 1991). This is the concept of social value creation through corporate social responsibility practices of private firms (Carroll, 1991) to ensure stakeholder value maximisation instead of shareholder value creation (Business Roundtable, 2019). Therefore, social value is a private company's desire to get the best financial value for the company as well as to generate long-term positive impacts for the communities where they operate (Khalifa, 2020).

Today, the concept of social value goes beyond a few corporate social responsibility initiatives to being a long-term commitment to giving back and conducting ethical business. Additionally, social value has morphed into shared value creation as businesses direct their efforts to achieve financial success in ways that also benefit the society to address issues such as inequality and climate change (Kramer and Pfitzer, 2016). Consequently, businesses' socially valuable actions create direct outcome or social impact that affect different segments of the society (Khalifa, 2020). However, scholars distinguish social impact from social value. According to scholars, the immediate or direct effect of particular business interventions are the social impact created (Emerson, 2003), whilst the contribution to the long-term systematic changes in the society and well-being of citizens by enterprises' activities are the social value created (Porter and Kramer, 2011).

From a public services perspective, the UK Social Value Act (2013) requires the public sector to secure additional benefits when procuring goods and services by ensuring that the money spent generates the maximum economic, social, and environmental value for local communities (Toleikyte and Salway, 2015; Mazzucato and Wainwright, 2024). It requires UK public organisations, before commencing a procurement process, to consider how the goods and services provide the most valuable benefits for their area and locality (Toleikyte and Salway, 2015; Mazzucato and Wainwright, 2024). Whilst this Act has been somewhat beneficial to the UK public service's procurement system, critics argue that social value is still considered an add-on and not as an integral part of the delivery process for public goods and services (Mazzucato and Wainwright, 2024). Mazzucato and Wainwright (2024) go further to argue that the Act has been implemented by public procurement practitioners using a market-fixing lens, by mostly seeking to derive better results based on price to meet their set KPI targets.

Social value is distinct from public value. Public value creation is a highly debated term with different perspectives by various scholars. To start off with, some authors contend that value is anchored on opinions and desires of people and not on actual physical changes (Moore, 1995). This means that the public sector's role is to ensure citizens' perceptions are met with funds being applied to provide citizens with benefits and to create value-enabling organisations (Moore, 1995). In this instance, public value is considered the balance between benefits and cost of a public service to its beneficiaries (Ojasalo and Kauppinen, 2022). Furthermore, when considering public value from a market failure perspective, market efficiency is the main issue at play. In this case, the public value is said to have failed if the expected target or benefit is not achieved (Bozeman, 2007). In his 2019 article, *Public Values: Citizens' Perspective*, Bozeman further states that public values are not solely determined by policymakers or public administrators but are jointly created by citizens and the state through their interactions and based on trust (Bozeman, 2019).

Another view of public value is its perception by citizens who are the beneficiaries of the public interventions. However, public value has two parts – what the public values, and what adds value to the society as a whole (Bennington, 2005). So, the classification of a public intervention as having public value is based on a collective

assessment on whether common concerns have been met (Bennington, 2005). Similarly, Ojasalo and Kauppinen (2022) describe public value as a collective value that comprises of a combination of ascribed values of individual citizens who are beneficiaries. Ojasalo and Kauppinen (2022) further contend that public value emerges through a democratic political process that selects representatives of citizens.

Nevertheless, the emerging view on public value creation involves governments playing key roles to shape markets for positive societal outcomes and more inclusive societies (Mazzucato and Ryan-Collins, 2019, 2022). This concept of co-creation of value builds on Polanyi's (1957) assertion on different markets being outcomes of interactions between different participants in different contexts (Mazzucato and Ryan-Collins, 2019, 2022). It also aligns with Ostrom's (2005) view on the collective actions by agencies and stakeholders to manage common pool resources for common good (Mazzucato and Ryan-Collins, 2019, 2022).

Mazzucato (2016), posits that for public value to be created, governments must play important market shaping-roles instead of just being market fixers. Consequently, she makes four main arguments on the market-shaping role of governments which are mission-oriented policies – for getting a man to the moon and solving societal problems, the developmental state role – for setting developmental agenda for economic development, emergence of techno-economic paradigms – for setting innovation direction for public and private actors, and lead-risk taking role – for funding innovation-led growth.

3.4.3.2 Public Value in Public Service Ecosystems

As discussed in 3.4.3.1 above, the notion of public value is highly debated. Yet, this concept has influenced the public administration space, having evolved from the adoption of NPM which promotes the use of private sector management tools (O'Flynn, 2007; Pollitt, 2007; Hood and Dixon, 2013). Conversely, the notion of public service logic (PSL) is a counter view of NPM. This is because it challenges the dominance of the private sector and product-focused approach of NPM by emphasising the significance of value creation in understanding in the area of public service delivery (Ojasalo and Kauppinen, 2022; Osborne *et al.*, 2022). According to Ojasalo and

Kauppinen (2022), PSL introduces a service-dominant perspective which positions value creation at the core of public service performance. Also, unlike NPM, which prioritises service outcomes, PSL recognises the importance of the value created to citizens and society due to the process of public service delivery by public organisations interacting with different sectors of the society (Ojasalo and Kauppinen, 2022; Osborne *et al.*, 2022). This is an ecosystem approach to viewing value creation. Public sector ecosystems are complex networks that operate at different levels – citizen, organisational, local and regional, national, and international layers (Ojasalo and Kauppinen, 2022; Osborne *et al.*, 2022). In this regard, public value creation comprises of both individual and collective components, and changes that move through the ecosystem levels (Ojasalo and Kauppinen, 2022). The interaction that takes place across different layers of society is similar to the ones that take place within innovation ecosystems. Innovation ecosystems emerge from the dynamic interactions of different actors and stakeholders that are complementary in a network to jointly create system-level output or ‘ecosystem service’ (Autio and Thomas, 2014). Conversely, when innovation is considered as a system, it involves just looking at the structural and institutional factors, and the comparative advantages that create national, regional and sectoral innovation systems (Lundvall, 1992; Freeman, 1995). The emphasis on the public sector for the purpose of this study is not on the system these organisations have in place but on the interactive activities within the various public agencies’ ecosystems that create public value.

As shown in Figure 3.6 below, when considering public value creation within public service ecosystems, there needs to be a balance between the individual and collective components as importance increases as one ascends the levels (Ojasalo and Kauppinen, 2022). To start off with, at the citizen level, the focus is on the perception of public value by individuals (Ojasalo and Kauppinen, 2022). Here, while collective value is present, it plays a minor role at this initial level. Thereafter, at higher levels the focus tilts towards the collective component of value within the ecosystem as one transcends the local, national, and international levels (Ojasalo and Kauppinen, 2022).

Figure 3.6: A framework of public value in public service ecosystems

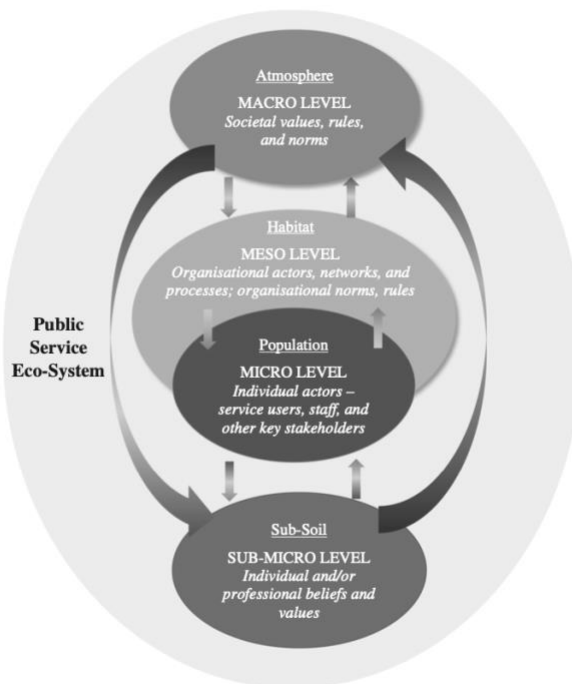
LEVELS OF PUBLIC SERVICE ECOSYSTEM	PUBLIC VALUE		
	Individual vs. collective value	Ultimate beneficiaries	Primary definer in decision making
International		Citizens of the contracting countries	Authorized representatives of the contracting countries
National		Citizens of the country	National public government
Local and Regional		Citizens of the region	Local public government
Organizational		Consumers of the organization's service	Public service organization
Citizen		Individual citizen	Individual citizen

Source: Ojasalo and Kauppinen (2022)

Accordingly, this shift is facilitated by a democratic process, which makes elected representatives and public administrators to assume a broader perspective that prioritises collective value creation. Ojasalo and Kaupponen (2022) further argue that the interplay between levels within a public service ecosystem are essential for the creation of public value.

Moving beyond the ascension of value from one level to the next, Osborne et al (2022) argue that value creation in the society is an interactive process. Figure 3.7 shows the process of value creation through public service delivery as an interplay between different elements such as societal context and values.

Figure 3.7: Interactivity Between Levels Within Public Service Ecosystem



Source: Osborne *et al*, 2022

Essentially, Osborne *et al*'s (2022) framework integrates insights from public administration management (PAM), and service management and marketing (SMM) theories to explain the role that value creation plays in determining public service delivery. This approach runs between macro-level societal and meso-level organisational service delivery as well as micro and sub micro levels of value creation for individuals and the society (Osborne *et al.*, 2022). Therefore, public value creation within public service ecosystems is an interactive system that involves the different ecosystem levels. This ensures that public value is maximised to meet the diverse needs of citizens and societies across the ecosystem (Ojasalo and Kauppinen, 2022). Finally, Osborne *et al* (2022) assert that for public value creation to take place and enable public service delivery it needs to occur within the context of public service ecosystems (Osborne *et al.*, 2022).

3.4.3.3 Measuring, Managing and Sustaining Public Value

The measuring of public value is a difficult task because it leads to different consequences and conclusions (Mulgan *et al.*, 2019). This is because societal

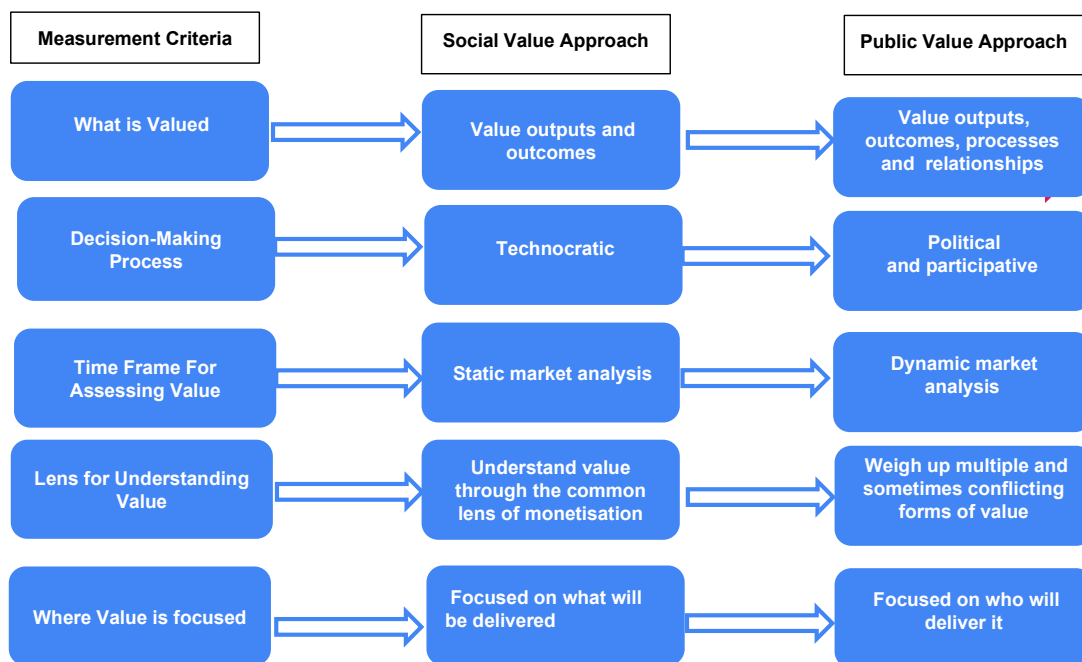
challenges, do not have one ideal solution and as such there needs to be continuous discussion, experimentation and learning that requires specific sets of capabilities (Mazzucato and Kattel, 2019). To this effect, when it comes to measuring public value, Mazzucato and Kattel (2019), argue that there is a need to move beyond cost benefit analysis and that focus should be on the achievement of systemic change and the production of innovation and spill over effects in ecosystems. They go further to advocate that there should be on-going reflective evaluation to understand if the systems are moving in the direction to achieve the desired transformation. Similarly, Mulgan et al. (2019) recommend an approach that involves the use of both quantitative and qualitative indicators which are focused on certain objectives. They suggest that to ensure a detailed and robust assessment of public value, the selected indicators need to be developed by consulting different stakeholders. Also, when it comes to managing public value, there is a need for strong leadership, strategic thinking, and availability of data to enable decision-making, resource allocation and implementation of initiatives that solve societal challenges (Mulgan *et al.*, 2019). Thus, the public sector needs to collaborate with other sectors, such as civil society and the private sector, to leverage complementary strengths and resources (Mulgan *et al.*, 2019).

In their report, *Public Value: How can it be measured, managed and grown?* Mulgan et al (2019) identify certain capabilities, namely: system leadership, public entrepreneurship, relational skills, analytical skills, and strategic skills. They argue that the public sector needs to be entrepreneurial to enable the innovative creation of value to address societal challenges (Mulgan *et al.*, 2019). They review how public value can be applied in different contexts by studying five different cases to highlight the flexibility of the framework. Their review of the different case studies provide clarification that public value is not limited to one area but is applied to different contexts and situations. They essentially show how public value is measured and managed by using innovative approaches and partnerships that focus on outcomes.

Using the public procurement process as an example, Mazzucato and Wainwright (2024) argue that following a market-shaping public value approach enables a broader and more holistic negotiating platform for government agencies. They argue that compared to social value, public value approach affects what is valued, how it is

evaluated, and how decisions are subsequently made. Figure 3.8 summarises their viewpoint.

Figure 3.8: Public Procurement Measurement Criteria – Social Value Approach Vs Public Value Approach



Source: Mazzucato and Wainwright (2024)

To start off with, per Figure 3.8, a public value approach enables the valuation of processes and relationships and not just outcomes as public value-creation is considered collaborative. Secondly, for decision-making purposes, more consideration is given to socio-political and value-based arguments than on technocratic and quantitative cost-benefit approaches to appraising value. Thirdly, public value approach requires value to be assessed over a given time period – dynamically, and not just at the point of implementation – statically. Fourthly, value created is viewed from multiple perspectives to understand how a good or service that is being procured contributes to long-term mission outcomes. Fifthly, as public value is collaboratively created, the focus is on who will be delivering it and not on solely on what is to be delivered per the procurement contract.

3.4.4 Conclusion of literature review on how public sector dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value

This section reviewed literature on the evaluation of public organisations and the creation of public value to address the third sub-research question: *How do these public sector dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value?* It shows that public sector evaluation is an important area for public organisations. Also, despite growing interest in public sector dynamic capabilities, there is a significant gap with little agreement on their core components or the ways they interact in practice. This presents a vital research opportunity – particularly for contexts like Nigeria – where challenges persist despite several public sector reforms. By addressing how relevant public sector dynamic capabilities are built, deployed, and sustained, this study contributes to bridging this gap. It also addresses the main research question by exploring how Nigerian public organisations create public value to meet citizens' needs.

3.5 RESEARCH GAP – EXPLORING HOW THE PUBLIC SECTOR DYNAMIC CAPABILITIES CREATE PUBLIC VALUE

Dividing the main research question – *How are relevant public sector dynamic capabilities built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria?* – into three main components (The state, public sector dynamic capabilities and, and societal outputs, outcomes and public value) allowed the review and juxtaposition of the most relevant literature to reveal the linkages to theories that will enable the answering of the research question in a context-sensitive manner.

Whilst there are emerging studies in the area of public sector dynamic capabilities in the Western world, and theories on why development has not fully taken place in some developing countries, there is a gap regarding the nature and the role played by public sector dynamic capabilities in the development of countries in the developing world context. While numerous studies have examined the effects of colonial administration, challenges of public service delivery, or failures of reforms, very few have examined how public sector organisations in developing countries build, deploy, and sustain

dynamic capabilities that enable them to create public value. Additionally, the reviewed literature means that the identified conceptual frameworks do not have basis to assess or strengthen these capabilities in practice. This research addresses this gap by combining the public sector dynamic capabilities perspective with the capabilities theory approach in line with the work done by Paukku et al (2010) that advocates an ecosystem approach to assessing firm's capabilities.

The selection of a sub-Saharan country, Nigeria, as a case study offers a unique opportunity to explore dynamic capabilities in a country with both persistent development challenges and ongoing reform efforts. By applying the ROAR framework (Routines, Organisations, Assessment, and Risks and Rewards), this study operationalises the ecosystem perspective in both the design of research questions and the analysis of data. Consequently, this research contributes to bridging an important gap in public administration and development studies: understanding the processes by which public sector organisations in developing countries – such as Nigeria – build, deploy and sustain the dynamic capabilities required to generate long-term public value for citizens.

The application of the ROAR framework for this research is discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

3.6 SUMMARY

This literature review chapter commences with the exploration of literature to explore the role the state plays in solving societal problems by considering its capability and legitimacy. To reiterate, this involves the review of different concepts of the state which are the state as an authority and the state as a key actor. It discusses two state models relevant to this study which are the sustainable state and the entrepreneurial state and reviews the concept of mission-oriented innovation approach. Afterwards, it explores development and state capacity by considering the relationship between state and societal outcomes, as well the notion of the developmental state.

The second part of the literature review addresses the notion of public sector dynamic capabilities towards assessing how public organisations build, deploy and sustain dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems. It starts off by reviewing literature on bureaucracy and public administration – the Weberian bureaucratic system and its role in development, the role of colonialism on Africa, as well as the emergence and impact of the new public management on public administration systems. The section then introduces the concept of dynamic capabilities in the private sector before discussing public sector dynamic capabilities.

The third part of the literature assesses literature that will allow the consideration of societal outputs, outcomes and public value. It starts off by assessing how public institutions are evaluated – performance management system and the role played by new public management and new public governance in assessing the public sector, the infrastructure power of the state, measuring capabilities, and connecting capabilities and development. It then discusses the different notions of public value, public value in public service ecosystems, measuring, managing and sustaining public value.

Finally, it revealed a gap regarding the nature and role played by public sector dynamic capabilities in the development of countries in the developing world context. It also provided justification for the selection of Nigeria as a case study to enable an ecosystem approach to assessing the capabilities of its public institutions using the ROAR framework.

CHAPTER 4: ROAR – THE THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This study draws on multiple theoretical perspectives to explore the main research question: *How are relevant public sector dynamic capabilities built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria?* The **ROAR framework** (Mazzucato, 2018a) is the main conceptual tool used to holistically assess how dynamic capabilities operate within public sector agencies and how these capabilities lead to public value creation for the purpose of this study. The framework is particularly relevant as it comprises four components – Routes, Organisations, Assessment, and Risks and Rewards – to enable an understanding of the connection between dynamic capabilities and the creation of public value.

In the wake of several complex phenomena and unprecedented challenges globally, the need for public organisations to be proactive rather than reactive, to create data-led strategies, to track its progress, and carry out a myriad of activities that have erstwhile been attributed only to the private sector has increased. Mazzucato (2013) regards these activities as being entrepreneurial in nature owing to the level of innovativeness, risk-taking, resource mobilisation, amongst others to sustain long term development. A state is entrepreneurial when it is willing and able to invest in uncertain areas, envisioning the direction of change and coordinating public agencies and departments to deliver the mission via procurement, funding and their range of tools (Mazzucato, 2013).

Closely following from the entrepreneurial state is the mission-oriented innovation policy (MOIP) also discussed in section 3.2.5.1. Mazzucato (2018a) posits that successful MOIOs need to implement the ROAR framework. Consequently, the public sector's use of the ROAR framework is to suggest how the state can be entrepreneurial across each segment of the framework. In order to do this, the study was conducted iteratively by moving between data and theory to enable contextual

interpretation, and not adoption, for conceptual clarity (Bryman, 2012). This was done by first applying the ROAR framework as a guide (a deductive approach), which then helped reveal the themes/patterns from the data (an abductive process). These emerging themes suggest that the dynamic capabilities found in the public agencies are linked to the improved societal outcomes and the created public value.

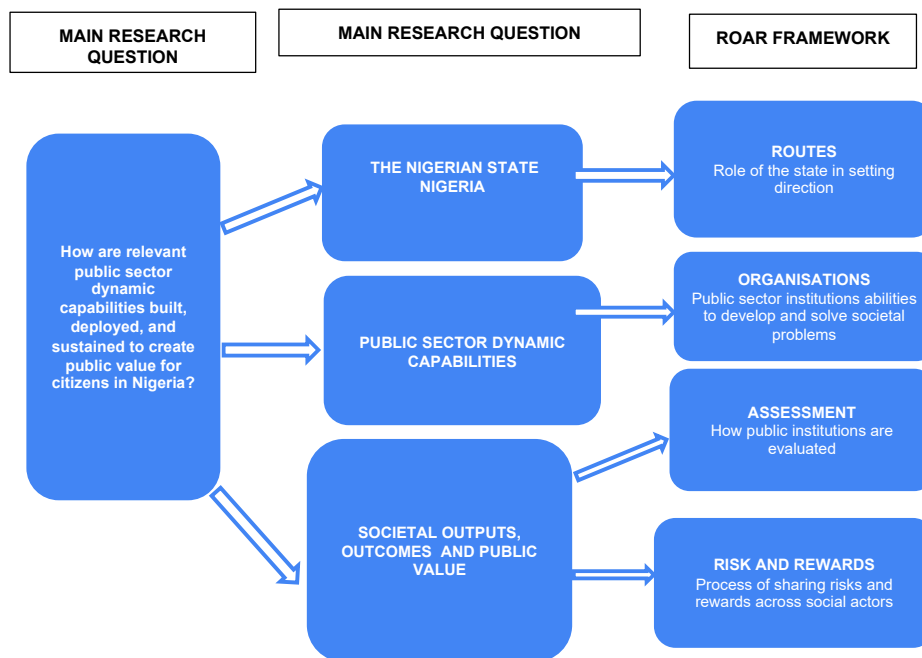
The iterative approach is particularly important in this research as the ROAR framework is based on a heterodox perspective which challenges the dominant neoliberal policy environment that has influenced Nigeria's public administration system. In the fieldwork, interview questions were framed with local language and cultural context. Subsequently, critical reflexivity is used to interpret and reconcile the use of the ROAR framework with the responses provided by the participants (Taha, 2018).

It is important to note that dynamic capabilities in the public sector is an emerging area of research by authors like Piening (2013), Mazzucato and Kattel (2018), and Kattel (2022), adapted from firm-level dynamic capabilities theory in strategic management from work by Teece et al (1997). Measuring these capabilities and their effects is inherently challenging. The ROAR framework is adopted because it offers a way to answer the 'so what?' question – by connecting public agencies' characteristics to tangible public value created. This is similar to how profitability or competitive advantage is assessed in private firms.

The expected outcome of this study in a developing country is that the insights will contribute to the work done on public sector dynamic capabilities by Mazzucato and Kattel (2018), Gullmark (2021) and Kattel (2022). Moreover, it considers the various concepts broadly from different angles – Western perspective, the Nigerian context, and the individual agencies' circumstances.

As previously noted in Chapter 3, the main research question unfolds three main components for this study: the Nigerian State, the public sector dynamic capabilities and societal outputs, outcomes, and public value creation. These three main components and their links to the ROAR framework are illustrated in Figure 4.1 below and linked to Figure 1.2 in Chapter 1.

Figure 4.1: Linking the Research Question's Components to Mazzucato's ROAR Framework



Source: Developed and Compiled by author

The first row of the second column moves from the Nigerian state to part aligning with the first factor of the ROAR framework in the third column – Routes and the first sub-research question: What roles do public organisations play in solving societal problems? It reflects the strategic environment as well as the process of setting clear objectives and leveraging resources effectively. Section 4.2 outlines relevant concepts for the study. The second row of the second column shows public sector dynamic capabilities corresponding with the factor of the ROAR framework in the second row of the third column – Organisations and the second sub-research question: *How do these public organisations build, deploy and sustain the relevant dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems for citizens?* This examines the internal characteristics of public agencies, classifying these characteristics under the different components of dynamic capabilities – sense-making, connecting and shaping. Organisations is discussed in section 4.3.

The third row of the second column shows societal outputs, outcomes and public value and aligns with the third and fourth factors of the ROAR framework – Assessment and Risk and Rewards as shown on the last two rows of the fourth column to answer the

third sub-research question: *How do these public sector dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value?* Assessment, per the third row of the third column, is discussed in section 4.4 and involves the study of the recorded achievements and outputs. While risk and rewards, per the fourth row of the third column, is discussed in section 4.5 and focuses on the public value generated as a result of these outputs, essentially assessing the societal returns and potential trade-offs of the agencies' actions. It is pertinent to note that while it will appear that public sector dynamic capabilities emerge only in the analysis of the third acronym of the framework, 'Organisations', each part plays a tangible role. From Routes role in setting the foundation and providing context on the directionality and purpose embedded within public sector agencies, through the process of isolating dynamic capabilities within Organisations, and the resulting risks and rewards or value created in these public sector agencies, it will be erroneous to tear only one piece of the framework apart.

4.2 ROUTES – THE ROLE OF THE STATE IN SETTING DIRECTION FOR SOLVING SOCIETAL CHALLENGES

4.2.1 Overview

The overriding purpose of Routes is to assess directionality. It assesses the ability of the public sector to set goals and map out strategies on how such goals can be attained leveraging the available human and material resources. Section 3.2.2 covers the state as an authority and this infers the legal mandate public organisations have to act on behalf of elected governments to achieve their set objectives and for the benefit of citizens. Below, ROAR's first component, Routes is broken down into three main parts for the purpose of this research: Purpose, Objectives, and Strategies, and linked with the relevant theoretical and conceptual frameworks to enable adequate assessment of the surveyed agencies.

4.2.2 Linking ROAR'S Routes To The Study

In exploring the role of the state in setting direction, this study considers the purpose, objectives and the strategies set by public agencies in Nigeria. These three factors, that are typically found in public organisations' publications, provide useful information on their missions and target areas of focus – thereby enabling the exploration of the

selected agencies' roles in setting directions. The study considers the boldness of the missions and their abilities to rally different solutions and experimentations across different actors and sectors within their various ecosystems. 'Routes' assesses directionality specific to public organisations who take a challenge-led approach as opposed to a profit-led one in private organisations. Mazzucato and Nguyen (2024) posit that growth and development could be otherwise uncertain without a clear sense of directionality. Additionally, it enables the assessment of how organisations' dynamic capabilities facilitate directionality in setting missions and solving societal problems (Kattel and Mazzucato, 2018).

4.2.2.1 Purpose

Purpose fundamentally addresses the existence of directionality within the public sector. This could take the form of mission statements, vision statements, or written down mandates within public sector agencies. The state as an authority confers both the right and the responsibility on public sector agencies to define their reason for existence. Given that public sector agencies are set up to solve specific societal challenges, their purposes tend to stem from observable challenges. According to Kattel & Mazzucato (2018), organisations need to have strong public purpose to achieve their set missions. Also, Spanó et al (2024) argue that robust public purpose is required for a legal-institutional foundation that enables the development of dynamic capabilities to help solve societal problems and shape the market.

The study sets out to know the specific societal problems the agencies are to address and if such challenges are ingrained in their value proposition. A public sector agency is an extension of the government's arm to effect changes in the society; as such, the study follows from the arguments that the state's role is to shape the market through leadership, directionality, and execution in critical areas, and would need to plan, innovate, strategize, seek investments, collaborate, and perform as many activities as possible that allows it to deliberately solve societal challenges. The study, therefore, uses the lens of the market-shaping theory to assess responses.

The study also assesses the understanding of what both internal and external respondents – specifically the leadership – understood about their role and level of

autonomy in influencing economic and social behaviour (Krasner *et al.*, 1984). Are the agencies truly challenge-led? The questions on the purpose are put to both internal and external respondents of the agencies to assist in the understanding of their *raison d'être* (Springett, 2002). Given the foregoing, the questions were framed around the societal problems that the agencies are expected to solve and the objectives for which they were birthed as guided by the challenged-led approach to solving societal problems advocated by Mazzucato (Mazzucato, 2018a, 2021). The responses are then compared with the published mission and vision statements of the agencies.

4.2.2.2 Objectives

The section on objectives reviews the ability of the agencies to set targets as well as their ability to communicate those targets to the responsible parties who will work towards their attainment. Here, the entrepreneurial state is also referred to through the degree with which government agencies set achievable objectives and strategies for themselves and their ecosystems. The study also reviews the perceived impact of the agencies' target objectives on the society as a whole. While setting objectives includes assessing impact, this is addressed under risks and rewards in section 4.5.

The question on the objectives is directed at the internal respondents of the agencies. It enables the extraction of the core areas of responsibilities and goals of the agencies. Mintzberg (1983) explains objectives as the targets toward which other plans and team efforts are directed and notes that in order to choose the appropriate means, it is necessary that they are clear. The question on the objectives is different from the question on the agencies' purpose. It is framed in a way that allows the appreciation of how well internal stakeholders understand their organisations' areas of responsibilities through a comparison between the published objectives and the responses obtained from respondents. According to Kattel *et al.* (2024) and Mazzucato & Kattel (2020), organisations require clear mission-oriented objectives to enable the coordination of efforts across different departments and sectors. Essentially, objectives translate purpose into measurable, time-bound goals that allow organisations to apply dynamic capabilities required to mobilise resources needed to solve societal problems.

4.2.2.3 Strategies

The purpose of this section is to assess the methods by which societal challenges have been addressed as well as their strategic focus areas over time. It explores how government agencies implement strategies to foster innovation (Lema *et al.*, 2018). According to Mintzberg (1983), an organisation's strategy is the position an organisation takes in its operating environment. This means that the formulation of strategy requires the organisation making decisions regarding how it will interact with its environment.

For the purpose of this study, both the internal and external respondents are asked about the strategies embarked upon by the agencies. The responses of the external ecosystem participants are important to enable the understanding of the level of clarity of the strategic intents of the agencies and to explore the alignment of their responses with those of the internal stakeholders.

4.3 ORGANISATIONS – PUBLIC SECTOR ORGANISATIONS' ABILITIES TO DEVELOP AND SOLVE SOCIETAL PROBLEMS

4.3.1 Overview

The overriding purpose of Organisations is to assess how organisations can be structured to achieve their objectives. Mazzucato and Nguyen (2024) ask the question: *How can the organisation develop, explore, and adapt capacity and capabilities to tackle challenges and achieve their mission?* While private sector organisations take on task-based employment where staff are hired for specific tasks, public sector organisations in addition to full time civil servants, have the opportunity for collaboration with local and international organisations, social partners, ecosystem members etc. In other words, ROAR's 'Organisations' prioritises collective capabilities over task-based employment (Mazzucato and Nguyen, 2024). It assesses the ability of the public sector to organise itself to attain its set goals leveraging the available human and material resources. Consequently, respondents are asked questions that can reveal the available capabilities and learning capabilities inherent within the public sector agencies.

It is in this section that the core research question on public sector dynamic capability is addressed per the second sub-research question: *How do these public organisations build, deploy and sustain the relevant dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems for citizens?* Responses to questions under organisations allow the study to explore how these public agencies organise and manage their internal bureaucratic systems (administrative functions), human resource management systems (recruitment, learning and development, and performance management), and coordinate their interaction with external stakeholders.

The notion of dynamic capabilities in the public sector discussed in section 3.3.6 refers to the necessary capacities within public organisations that are required to facilitate societal transformation (Mazzucato and Kattel, 2018). However, as there are no metrics to determine the degree of dynamism of the capabilities of the selected public agencies in this study, all these factors are addressed from the interview responses in an explanatory manner. A useful set of tools for explaining the existence of dynamic capabilities within these agencies comes from Kattel's (2022) study on three public sector organisations - the UK's Government Digital Service, the City of Barcelona, and Sweden's Vinnova - which examines the agencies' involvement in three areas: sense-making, connecting, and shaping. (Kattel, 2022). Thus, determining dynamic capabilities under 'Organisations' as part of the ROAR framework is based on the responses from both internal and external respondents. The internal respondents are asked questions on the critical success factors, the strengths, and the level of proactive activities engaged by their respective agencies as these are important considerations that enable the understanding of the availability of dynamic capabilities within the different agencies. Also, the responses from the internal stakeholders on the learning and development of their staff is expected to provide useful perspectives for assessing the agencies' level of dynamic capability.

Scholars argue that the building of dynamic organisational capabilities requires the transfer of 'know-how' and 'know-why' to ensure proper application of solutions and technology (Zollo and Winter, 2002). Additionally, to have these capabilities entrenched in the organisations' systems and activities that improve their effectiveness are systematically recorded and documented (Zollo and Winter, 2002).

Organisational knowledge improves the collective pool of knowledge and skills of firms resulting in the emergence of certain competencies and capabilities that shape organisations (Marengo, 1992). Hence, this study also explores the level of professional qualification and retraining available in the various agencies to enable the understanding of the dynamic capabilities that reside in these public organisations.

4.3.2 Linking ROAR'S 'Organisations' To The Study

In exploring the public sector organisations' abilities to develop and solve societal problems, the study considers different factors for the selected agencies to explore how these agencies build and sustain dynamic capabilities through their internal structures and external relationships. These factors are organisational structure, public administration and human resource management, working relationship with ecosystem partners, working relationship with social partners, organisational core functions, proactive vs reactive functions, critical success factors, strengths, and weaknesses.

4.3.2.1 Organisation Structure

The study assesses the availability and form of the organisational structures vis-à-vis their goals. The structure of organisations is an important element of this study. The full description of the five basic elements of an organisational structure according to Mintzberg (1983) is described in section 3.3.3 and with Figure 3.3 in chapter 3. A key determinant of public sector dynamic capabilities lies in the structure of organisations by having structures that allow for 'agile stability' – to allow public sector agencies to maintain core functions whilst being adaptive to new societal challenges (Kattel, Drechsler and Karo, 2022).

The best structures are those that are inherently unique to the organisations or agencies for the attainment of their goals. Consequently, the organograms of the five selected public organisations for the five case studies are assessed using Mintzberg's organisation structure theory to enable the understanding of the various structural contexts that affect these agencies. The review of the structures enables the understanding of the degree of centralisation of decision making in the agencies, the level of formalisation and chains of command, the clarification of the role of

professionals and specialisation, and the level of autonomy and flexibility within each of the selected agencies. It is important to consider the specific contexts in which public agencies adapt their organisational structures, to ensure these structures support the achievement of their objectives and facilitate seamless and transparent interactions stakeholders (Mintzberg, 1983).

Furthermore, scholars argue that for organisational structures to facilitate MOIP, they need to be flexible, decentralised and cross-functional to tackle societal challenges (Spanó *et al.*, 2024). This means that the ideal structure for any public organisation is that which balances between the attainment of stable bureaucracy and development of dynamic capabilities (Spanó *et al.*, 2024).

4.3.2.2 Public Administration and Human Resource Management

In considering the public administration systems, Peters (2021) reveals how the Weberian form of public administration which was passed down by the British when the African continent was colonised, is still in use by the civil service. The Weberian bureaucracy comprises of several aspects; the focus will be around the availability of a formal hierarchical structure as discussed in section 3.3.3, functional specialty, management by rules, and the availability of a meritocratic recruitment system to assess the existence or otherwise of nepotism in human resource management. The capabilities around recruitment are thus assessed. A formal and context-specific hierarchical structure defines a clear communication channel or chain of command to ensure accountability within organisations.

The Weberian model also assesses functional specialty which assesses how civil servants are equipped to manage their roles and attain set goals. Understanding the systems around functional specialty will enable the understanding of what dynamic capabilities exist to ensure that the best civil servants are put in the right roles for goal congruence.

According to Olaopa (2017), a tool used in the neoliberal environment of the Nigerian public sector to determine the level of effectiveness of public sector administration and human resource management is that of the New Public Management (NPM) as

discussed in section 3.3.4. In Nigeria, the NPM lens is used to assess how tasks set by the management are performed, and how staff are held accountable for their work (Olaopa, 2017).

This study also explores the role of new public governance as it advocates consideration of the different roles played by different inter-dependent actors that are involved in the delivering of public services (Osborne, 2006). In evaluating the performance of the selected public organisations, consideration is given to the relationships and effectiveness of the interactions between these organisations and their ecosystem in producing positive societal outcomes (Osborne, 2006). This means that the study looks beyond the performance management system by considering the assessments of the agencies by their ecosystem participants.

Human resource management (HRM) factors are considered when exploring the public administration management for these agencies. The relationship between the structure, recruitment and other staff elements are explored in this study in line with Evans and Rauch's (1999 and 2000) studies on the correlation between Weberianness and economic development. According to Mazzucato and Kattel (2020), the existence of flexible and well-developed human resource is central to the development of dynamic capabilities in public organisations. Accordingly, poor HRM systems can lead to failed capabilities as well as administrative inefficiencies. Moreover, Spanó et al. (2024) incorporates HRM as one of the five institutional requirements necessary for developing dynamic capabilities and to account for policies such as on talent acquisition and retention, performance feedback systems, learning, training and capacity building.

4.3.2.3 Working Relationship With Ecosystem

An important perspective of public sector dynamic capabilities is the state's ability to work with stakeholders within the ecosystem to attain its objectives. One of the forms of assessing public sector dynamic capabilities, according to Mazzucato and Kattel (2018), is their ability to collaborate with different societal actors so that they can drive societal change. Consequently, external respondents share insights on how well agencies connect with stakeholders by working collaboratively with them to solve

ecosystem problems (Kattel, 2022). This is critical because the agencies' ability to collaborate with ecosystems is an indication that they possess connecting dynamic capabilities discussed in section 3.3.6.

4.3.2.4 Working Relationship With Social Partners

Mazzucato and Nguyen (2024) speak about the need for collaboration with local and international organisations as well as social partners. In the African context, social partners are especially important in the activities of the public sector as they tend to work with governments and agencies to aid in the provision of social services. Michael (2004) explains that the presence of social organisations like the missionaries in Africa dates back to the colonial era; they provided social services that the colonial state failed to give the citizens. Campbell (1996) also explains that following the challenges around Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs), these social organisations took over some previously performed roles by governments through their agencies. Resultantly, public agencies require the support of social partners for the provision of funding and infrastructure, and for awareness creation. Thus, since social partners have requisite resources, the partnership with government can produce to sustainable development (Hofisi and Hofisi, 2013).

In this study, the external stakeholders explain the agencies' working relationships with their ecosystems and social partners to enable the understanding of the nature of the relationships and the correlation between these alliances and the societal outcomes that arose within the various ecosystems.

4.3.2.5 Agencies' Core Functions

In the public sector, activities geared towards goal attainment are ingrained in day-to-day core functions or organisational routines of the agencies. As such, the core functions of public sector agencies should point to how they obtain and utilise available human, material, or financial resources to attain public value. These organisational routines involve activities that are used to perform policy functions: analytical, planning, coordination, evaluation, policy, and participation as illustrated in Figure 3.5 in section 3.3.6 of Chapter 3.

4.3.2.6 Agencies' Proactive Vs Reactive Work

According to Krasner et al (1984), the state's possession of institutional capabilities influences economic and social behaviour. As such, the level of deliberateness and proactiveness of the agencies in enforcing societal change is a key aspect of assessing dynamic capabilities. This ability to anticipate societal needs rather than react to crises is fundamental to their possession of sensing dynamic capabilities discussed in section 3.3.6. Argungu (2004) explains that for any strategic leadership to be success oriented and focused, it must be 'creative, pre-emptive, and proactive' in all its dealings. This also stems from the market-shaping perspective as the state acts in an entrepreneurial capacity in setting the direction of which societal problems need to be solved, which areas need to be invested in, who to collaborate with, etc. (Mazzucato, 2013). Thus, this study explores the dynamic capabilities employed by the various agencies by asking the internal stakeholders to describe the split between proactive versus reactive work.

4.3.2.7 Agencies' Critical Success Factors

The study explores the dynamic capabilities employed by the various agencies by asking the internal stakeholders to describe their agencies' critical success factors. What success looks like and how they monitor their progress is a key aspect of assessing dynamic capabilities as well as the learning capabilities within public agencies. As dynamic capabilities are organisational and strategic routines that firms use to formulate, develop, and create value for competitive advantage (Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000), the critical success factors are considered as key competitive advantage enablers. Guided by Gullmark's (2021) study that suggests that there are two types of dynamic capabilities in public organisations in his study in Norway – the low-routinised or strategic versus the high-routinised or operational, this study in addition to identifying the proactive and reactive work done by the agencies, assesses the capabilities that facilitate sense-making, connecting and shaping per Kattel (2022). These critical success factors are a subset of the core functions discussed in 4.3.2.5 just as dynamic capabilities are a subset of the organisational routines identified discussed in section 3.3.6. and illustrated in Figure 3.5.

4.3.2.8 Agencies' Areas Of Strengths

Just as private sector organisations carry out SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, And Threats) to assess their competitive advantages, it is useful for public sector organisations to understand their strengths and weaknesses. This allows these agencies to work in line with their strengths and minimise or seek additional help in mitigating their weaknesses. As discussed in section 3.2.5, Nair (2018) argues that the strength of the interaction between the state and the people gives rise to either a strong or weak state. This study explores what the selected Nigerian public sector agencies consider to be their strengths as a way of identifying organisational routines that can be classified as dynamic capabilities.

4.3.2.9 Agencies' Areas Of Weakness And Outsourced Functions

Here, the agencies' limitations, areas of improvement, and the ways they seek external support to mitigate their limitations are explored. NPM practices such as outsourcing of functions to third parties can be used to assess the skill gaps faced by public sector agencies. Possible areas of weaknesses could be around learning capabilities, innovation, skill levels, consistency, autonomy, etc. Internal and external respondents are therefore required to provide information on the agencies' weaknesses and the role of outsourced functions to better meet the needs of citizens.

4.4 ASSESSMENT

4.4.1 Overview

Mazzucato and Nguyen (2024) explain that while private companies, driven by profitability, typically appraise projects using cost-benefit analysis, market-shaping public organisations design a portfolio of programmes that build and complement each other as solutions to a challenge. However, traditional public sector performance assessment frameworks focus on efficiency and compliance with measurements of outputs and outcomes and not on the creation of public value in the society (Moore, 1995). The essence of Assessment as part of the ROAR framework is to understand how public organisations track progress and assess performance by asking – how do public sector agencies appraise public sector investments and projects towards the development of societal solutions? Thus, as this study focuses on the role played by

dynamic capabilities in the public sector to enable public value creation, assessment would require going further by evaluating the value created from the outcomes. This is considered under the last component of ROAR framework – the risks and rewards in section 4.5.

4.4.2 Linking ROAR'S Assessment to the Study

In exploring how public organisations are evaluated, this study considers the achievements and outputs of the agencies. The assessment questions are designed to enable the identification of the societal outputs that are related to the role played by the agencies. The internal stakeholders are asked to state their agencies' key achievements and the external respondents are asked about the agencies' outputs to aid the identification of the physical, organisational and administrative infrastructure in different ecosystems per Mann (1984).

While Laaksonen and Peltoniemi (2018) recommend four areas of consideration for the private sector in section 3.4.2.2 on identifying and measuring dynamic capabilities, they could be useful to the public sector as well. Paukku et al (2010) also recommend combining Teece's work on dynamic capabilities with Sen's capability theory approach (CTA) by performing a multilevel analysis that enables the identification of capabilities within ecosystems. Both internal and external respondents are asked questions on their assessments of the relevant selected agencies' performances and on their experiences interacting as the agencies' stakeholders.

4.5 RISK AND REWARDS – PROCESS OF SHARING RISKS AND REWARDS ACROSS SOCIAL ACTORS

4.5.1 Overview

Mazzucato and Nguyen (2024) assess Risks and Rewards from the lens of the public sector to be more forward-looking and possess a fair share of risks and rewards agreements as opposed to the short-term profit-based approach by private companies. This section reviews how public organisations deploy investment tools to socialise risks and rewards to aid development. It assesses what public value means and what efforts or risks go into the process of attaining such value.

Section 3.4.3 addresses the emergence of the different contestations on the notion of public value. The early neoliberal economists consider value as being created by the private sector solely as the government was assessed as unproductive. It also explores the notion of social value produced by private firms and differs from the concept of public value. The research, by aligning with a market-shaping viewpoint, considers public value as outcomes of collaborative activities between the public sector and other different participants in different sectors (Mazzucato and Ryan-Collins, 2019, 2022). Public value from a collective assessment perspective is important for this study as external respondents are asked to assess the value created by the various public agencies within their specific ecosystems.

Emerging views on public value creation arise from governments playing key roles to shape markets for positive societal outcomes and more inclusive societies (Mazzucato and Ryan-Collins, 2019, 2022). As discussed in section 4.2 under Routes, this involves governments taking the lead to set bold targets and missions to enable innovation to take place across different sectors of the society (Mazzucato, 2016). Thus, this study also explores the value created by the ecosystems due to their interactions with the selected public organisations. This perspective of public value creation is discussed further in section 4.5.2 which considers the effect of the lead-risk taking role played by the selected agencies on their ecosystems. The external respondents' responses to questions on the value their organisations have been able to create as a result of the interventions by the relevant agencies are critical points for analysis.

For this study, the context of public value created within each of the five selected public institution's ecosystem are explored in a narrative manner by discussing them in line with Mazzucato and Kattel's (2019) and Mulgan et al's (2019) studies.

4.5.2 Linking The ROAR'S Risk and Rewards To The Study

In exploring the process of sharing risks and rewards across social actors, this study considers the problems solved by the various agencies, how the problems are solved, the effects of the agencies' outputs on the ecosystems and the social values created by the ecosystems as a result of the agencies' activities. The questions are designed to enable the understanding of the changes in the society that may be related to the

role played by the agencies. For the purpose of this study, the various roles played by the agencies are considered equivalent to the risks they took.

The questions addressing this section are critical because the study aligns with Paukku et al's (2010) argument that advocates a holistic multilevel approach to enable the assessment of the effects of an organisation within its ecosystem and its impact on others and the system. This approach attempts to determine the relationship between the various organisations' capabilities and the resultant improvements in society. Thus, the external respondents were asked a series of questions designed to explore the possible linkages between the agencies' activities and the social values created by the ecosystem partners. Furthermore, for the purpose of this study, the responses given by the external respondents on the value their organisations created as a result of the various agencies' activities are considered equivalent to the public value created by the agencies. This is because the identified social value created should align with the shared vision of the agencies and their ecosystem participants to collaboratively contribute to the solving of societal challenges for the benefit of Nigerian citizens.

4.6 LINKING THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK TO THE RESEARCH DESIGN

The ROAR framework, though an emerging model, is used to design the research to enable the answering of the research question. However, as this research is based on Nigeria, the ROAR model is used iteratively as a guide whilst taking into consideration the specific contexts of the Nigerian agencies for this study. Consequently, the ensuing chapters present the detailed aspects of the research and more applications of the ROAR framework as follows: to guide the research design and data collection in Chapter 5, to present and analyse the findings in Chapters 6, 7, 8, 9., and 10 to conduct and to wrap up the study with discussions on the exploration of the research question using the framework and conclusions in Chapter 11. Additionally, Chapter 11 reviews the relevance of the ROAR framework to the research, the limitations of the research, recommendations, implications of the study before wrapping up with the concluding section.

4.7 SUMMARY

This chapter takes a deep dive into the core elements of the ROAR framework as a tool for answering the main research question that asks: *How are relevant public sector dynamic capabilities built, deployed, and sustained in Nigeria to create public value for citizens in Nigeria?* In assessing the uniqueness of the developing world, it allows for local sensitivity of the Nigerian public sector. It also suggested an iterative approach as the ROAR framework is based on a heterodox perspective away from the erstwhile neoliberal policy environment in Nigeria and its impact. All four key aspects of the framework are then reviewed in detail and contextualised in line with the study.

Firstly, the role of the state in setting direction for solving societal challenges was explored to assess the state's responsibility as an authority required to define its purpose, objectives, and strategies for attainment of perceived goals. It covers how they collaborate with state actors, social partners, and other members of the ecosystem to ensure value alignment. Clarity of objective was also defined as an important element in the state's success in setting direction.

Secondly, the abilities of public sector organisations to develop and solve societal problems was reviewed to assess how internal resources are put to good use for the attainment of public value. Top of the list is the need for a well-defined and effective organisational structure that suits the public organisations' activities. Various kinds of structures were reviewed; additionally, the questions on structure were posed to internal respondents and backed up by publicly available information to ascertain the degree of Weberianness of their organograms. Other factors considered include public administration management, working relationship with ecosystem partners, working relationship with social partners, organisational core functions, proactive vs reactive functions, critical success factors, strengths, and weaknesses of the public agencies.

Thirdly, towards exploring how public organisations are evaluated, the study considers the achievements and outputs of agencies as articulated by the internal and external interview respondents.

Finally, risks and rewards were discussed to define the means by which risks, and rewards are shared by social actors. Public value was also discussed per different definitions. Afterwards, the need to explore the problems solved by the various agencies, how they are solved, their outputs on the ecosystems, and the social values created by the ecosystems as a result of the agencies' activities, amongst others were considered.

CHAPTER 5: METHODOLOGY – APPLYING THE ROAR FRAMEWORK FOR THE RESEARCH DESIGN, DATA COLLECTION AND EXTRACTION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to present the research design and methodology that use the ROAR framework discussed in chapter 4. It mostly reports in the first person to convey the work done by the researcher. Chapter 4 contains the combined theories that guide this research to answer the main research question that asks: *How are relevant public sector dynamic capabilities built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria?*

The research approach is influenced by studies on public sector dynamic capabilities in Western countries by Gullmark (2021) and Kattel (2022) that used case study methodologies. However, as discussed in the introductory section of Chapter 4, to investigate the main question and the sub-questions, the research adopts an iterative research approach (Bryman, 2012). The process of iteration involves deductively applying the ROAR framework, followed by an abductive analysis of emerging themes. This is particularly important because the research is being conducted in a country that has practiced neoliberal policies since the 1980s resulting in the perception of government as playing market-fixing roles and the private sector as driving the economy.

The research involves the collection of data from different respondents to enable the identification of the capabilities and dynamic capabilities of the institutions of study, and to assess the resultant public value. In-depth interviews with 60 internal and external ecosystem participants were conducted mostly on-line via Zoom, followed by the review of documents provided by the participants and information from websites and press articles. The methods outlined in this chapter allowed for the extraction, documentation, presentation, and analysis of the findings in Chapters 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 in a constructive manner – moving beyond the identification of problems or dynamic

capabilities to examining their connections to the creation of public value (Creswell, 2014).

The following is the breakdown of this chapter. In section 5.2, the selection process for the public organisations for this study is discussed – four national and one sub-national agency. The selected agencies are the Nigerian Communication Commission (NCC), the National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA), the Bank of Industry (BOI), the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS,) and the Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning and Budget (LSMEPB). In section 5.3, the methodology used for data collection is outlined. As mentioned above, the main instrument for data collection for this study was 60 in-depth face-to-face interview sessions with purposefully selected knowledgeable actors (Hochschild, 2009; Yin, 2009; Simon, 2011; Creswell, 2014) from the five selected agencies. In section 5.4, the data extraction process that aids the presentation of my findings presented in chapters 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 are discussed. Recommended data analysis approaches are adopted and adapted to effectively summarise interview texts, extract key words, collate responses, and reassemble/merge data before presenting the data to be analysed (Yin, 2009; Saldaña, 2021; Braun and Clarke, 2022). In section 5.5, the active steps taken to ensure that the research is ethically compliant are summarised, whilst in section 5.6 the trustworthiness of the research is discussed. A reflexivity statement is provided in section 5.7 to present a summary of my background as a researcher. Finally, section 5.8 summarises this chapter.

5.2 CASE STUDY SELECTION

5.2.1 Selection of Case Study Methodology

As discussed in chapter 4, Mazzucato's (2018) ROAR framework influenced the setting of the research question that has three main components – the Nigerian State, Public Sector Dynamic capabilities, and Societal Outputs, Outcomes and Public Value. Consequently, the case study methodology is selected for this research. Firstly, guided by Yin's (2009) work, the case study methodology is chosen because the main research question asks a 'how' question, which is exploratory and descriptive in nature, thereby requiring that interviews of involved persons and knowledgeable stakeholders

are conducted to enable the exploration of the main and sub-research questions. The first sub-research question asks: *What roles do public organisations play in solving societal problems?* This question is designed to enable the high-level understanding of how the public sector agencies are structured to effectively solve societal problems. The second sub-research question asks: *How do these public organisations build, deploy and sustain the relevant dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems for citizens?* This question allows the understanding of the public agencies' characteristics and processes employed for deploying and institutionalising dynamic capabilities. The third sub-research question asks: *How do these public sector dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value?* This question allows for a connection to be made between the dynamic capabilities within public organisations and the reported outputs, societal outcomes and public value created.

Secondly, the selection of case study as a methodology enables the unravelling of the deep nuances in the area of study and is influenced by the recommendation from Hickey's (2019) study. The study administered surveys to experts in Ghana, Rwanda, Uganda and Zambia to identify and explore pockets of effectiveness in these countries' public institutions. Hickey's (2019) study used similar methodology to those used by Evans and Rauch (1999 and 2020) in their studies of 35 countries' bureaucracies that focussed on expert interviews in financial agencies. However, despite the use of expert surveys, Hickey (2019) suggests the use of in-depth case studies of specific public institutions that are pockets of effectiveness for future research works.

Thirdly, as the research question focuses on public sector dynamic capabilities, the main points for analysis are public organisations. Accordingly, five public agencies are purposefully selected and the basis for their selection is discussed in section 5.2.2 below.

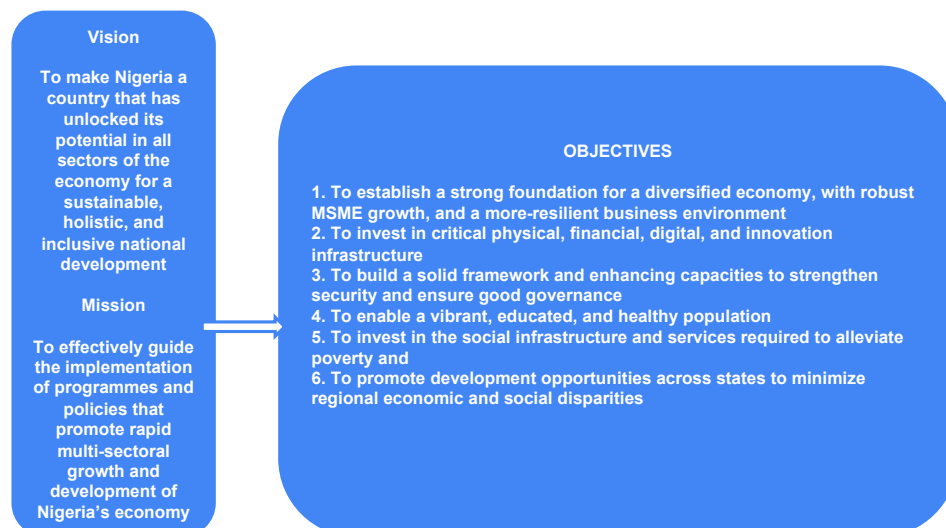
However, despite the justification of the case study methodology for this research, there are some limitations to this approach. One major area of concern is that, unlike experimental research designs, case studies are often difficult to replicate due to their focus on specific cases within certain contexts (Yin, 2009). This lack of replicability can hinder the validation of findings and raise concerns about the reliability of results.

I address this concern by ensuring that there is an audit trail for the research on the following areas: the selection of the public agencies, the collection and extraction of data, and the presentation and analysis of the findings (Korstjens and Moser, 2018). Additionally, I provide information on the contexts of the selected agencies for clarity on the responses provided by interviewees (Korstjens and Moser, 2018).

5.2.2 Selection of National Agencies

As this study focuses on the role played by the state in setting direction for development, I relied on the development planning agenda of Nigeria contained in the 2021-2025 National Development Plan (NDP) for the selection of the agencies from the national level. Development planning is recognised as being pivotal in enabling governments to set the direction through policies, and in guiding the allocation of resources required to facilitate industrialisation and development of countries (Johnson, 1982; Amsden, 1989). As discussed in chapter 2, Nigeria commenced prioritising development as far back as 1946, when the colonial government came up with the ten-year development and welfare plan. Figure 5.1 below highlights the vision, mission, and the objectives of the 2021-2025 NDP.

Figure 5.1: The Nigerian 2021-2025 National Development Plan - Vision, Mission, and Objectives



Source: Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2021

The 2021-2025 NDP objectives captured in Figure 5.1 is summarised as – seeking the socio-economic transformation of Nigeria by enabling a diversified economy and by investing in various critical digital, physical, and social infrastructure. This summarised version of the NDP objectives is guided by the fact that the priorities set in the various Nigerian development plans over the years, from independence to present day, focus on economic growth and social development. Therefore, the two objectives that I consider key to enable the selection of the public agencies for this study are: diversified economy and investment in critical infrastructure. The use of these two key NDP objectives as a starting point provided a structured and policy-aligned basis for selecting agencies. Scholars like Johnson (1982) and Amsden (1989) argue that developmental planning is pivotal in enabling governments to set the direction through policies, and in guiding the allocation of resources required to facilitate industrialisation and development of countries. However, to avoid bias, I did not rely solely on the NDP. I conducted desk research and consulted experts in government relations departments in companies as well as leading academics to identify agencies that have demonstrated notably positive performance. I also consulted multiple data sources, including expert opinions, performance reports, and independent assessments, to avoid cherry-picking agencies that fit a pre-determined narrative. I then compiled lists of two sets of ten agencies that I consider critical for the attainment of each of these criteria (see tables 5.1 and 5.3 below). By cross-referencing the NDP objectives with independent assessments of agency performance, I aimed to reduce the risk of selection bias and ensure a more balanced representation of agencies. I acknowledged the limitation of my selection in section 11.5 as an area for further research to include a broader range of agencies

Subsequently, I purposefully selected four ministries, departments or agencies (MDAs) – two from each category – for this study, based on the factors outlined in Sections 5.2.2.1 to 5.2.2.4 below, as presented in the second columns of Tables 5.1 and 5.2. Table 5.1 list the top ten shortlisted agencies based on their significance and their role in aligning with and enabling a diversified Nigerian economy, while Table 5.3 contains the top ten agencies identified with respect to critical infrastructure investment in Nigeria.

5.2.2.1 Organisational Transformation Between 1999 to 2023

The first area of consideration is that the selected agencies needed to have gone through periods of organisational transformational change between 1999 and 2023. As discussed in section 2.6 of Chapter 2, 1999 is an important year that represents the recommencement of democratic rule in Nigeria. Transformational change occurs in response to or in anticipation of significant changes in an organisation's environment or technology (Cummings and Worley, 2009). Accordingly, the transformational changes in these agencies would have required changing internal structures and improving processes and culture to support the new direction (Cummings and Worley, 2009). This means that the reported improvement observed between 1999 and 2023 for the selected agencies form part of the areas of analysis for this study. I reviewed the activities of the MDAs and considered the fact that there were different levers or agents that caused notable transformation of some of the agencies which resulted in their turnarounds. Some of these change agents include: the enactment of a new law for the agency's mandate to operate, the appointment of an agency head brought in from the private sector with a mandate to implement change in the agencies, or the establishment of a new agency that was previously not in existence.

The decision to select agencies that had been responsible for transformational change is guided by Sen's (1999) position on the importance of viewing development as a process of improvement over time and not as the mere achievement of targets. The importance of transformation and development for these agencies are noted in their various vision and mission statements shown in tables 5.2, 5.4, and 5.6 below. Additionally, these tables illustrate the core areas of responsibilities published by the agencies that highlight the critical roles they play in the Nigerian development agenda.

5.2.2.2 Appointment of Notable Professionals as Leadership of Agency

The second area, also mentioned in 5.2.2.1, is that I selected agencies that had over the years appointed notable professionals as change agents to restructure and reform the organisations at critical points during the period of analysis. This is an important factor as leadership is arguably an important element of dynamic capabilities (Teece, 2017). This factor aligns with the reference to Weber (1919) in section 3.2.2 on the fact that the state's legitimacy emerges from the existence of authority, charismatic

leadership, or the enactment of rational legal structures. Furthermore, Compton and Hart (2019), argue that successful public policies and programmes do not just occur but are made possible by the actions of key agencies' actors such as the leadership of an organisation responsible for the programmes.

5.2.2.3 Examples of Pockets of Efficiencies and Effectiveness

The third factor that influenced my selection of the agencies is that they are examples of pockets of efficiencies and effectiveness (Evans, 1989; Geddes, 1990; Hickey, 2019) that are perceived as positively contributing to societal outcomes (Sen, 1999). Guided by Olaopa's (2022) assertion that there are pockets of effectiveness within the Nigerian civil service that can be replicated to facilitate the country's development, I scanned through the activities of the ten agencies online and spoke to respectable colleagues that work in government relations department of companies for confirmation. The final selection of these successful agencies is also guided by the work of Compton and Hart (2019) which supports the study of positive government stories across the world instead of the emphasis of research being on failed government stories. The study's intention was to learn from successful cases just like Gullmark (2021) and Kattel's (2022) studies rather than to present an overly positive view of the Nigerian public sector. Whilst I focused on positive performing agencies – to study their dynamic capabilities, I examine the broader institutional context and acknowledge systemic challenges and areas of weaknesses in the presentation and analysis of the findings to illustrate how they often deter the replication of success across the public sector. Section 11.6 highlights that future research could address this gap by comparing high- and low- performing agencies to provide a more comprehensive understanding of dynamic capabilities in varying contexts.

5.2.2.4 Access to the Agencies and Ecosystem

The fourth factor was the fact that I had to ensure that I had some level of access to the different agencies and their various ecosystems. Access is important for research done in a country like Nigeria where exclusive/elite interviews that involve senior public servants and industry leaders can be challenging due to power dynamics and inadequate preparation (Mbohou and Tomkinson, 2022). According to Mbohou and Tomkinson (2022), it is important that researchers have access to and make sense of

the cultural context of elites before embarking on research to properly prepare for the interviews and to ensure that the fieldwork exercise is productive. The access is made possible because of my professional network as an individual in senior management. However, despite having access to the various agencies because of my track record, at least 95% of the selected respondents had no prior interaction or affiliation with me. While this was an important factor in ensuring objectivity of the research, it had varying effects on the data collection process during fieldwork. This is discussed further in section 5.3.

Table 5.1: Top MDAs Aligned with Enabling a Diversified Economy

Key National MDAs and Roles	Purposefully Selected MDAs
1. The Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN): responsible for maintaining financial stability and promoting economic development in Nigeria. 2. The Ministry of Industry, Trade, and Investment: responsible for promoting industrial development and increasing Nigeria's exports. 3. Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS): responsible for the assessment and collection of tax to mobilise funds in support of the Federal Government's development agenda. 4. The Ministry of Science and Technology: responsible for developing and promoting science and technology in Nigeria. 5. The Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN): responsible for promoting and developing MSMEs in Nigeria. 6. The Bank of Industry: responsible for financing and supporting industrial and entrepreneurial development in Nigeria. 7. The Bank of Agriculture: responsible financing small- and large-scale farmers and small businesses in rural areas. 8. The Nigerian Investment Promotion Commission (NIPC): responsible for promoting and facilitating foreign and domestic investment in Nigeria. 9. Nigeria Incentive-Based Risk Sharing System for Agricultural Lending (NIRSAL): responsible for providing guarantees to financial institutions that lend to the agricultural sector to promote agricultural lending. 10. Ministry of Youth and Sports Development: responsible for formulating and implementing policies, programmes to promote and enhance youth and sports development.	1. Bank of Industry (BOI) 2. Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS)

Source: Compiled by author

As shown in the second column, the BOI and FIRS were selected. I selected these agencies primarily because they both play significant roles in creating strong

foundations to enable a diversified economy as shown in Table 5.1. The FIRS, in addition to being critical for mobilising funds to support the government's development plan, appointed a key reformer to enable its transformation between 2004 and 2012. Similarly, the Bank of Industry, in addition to being the oldest and biggest Nigerian development finance institution (DFI), went through a major turnaround from 2001. Table 5.2 highlights the vision and mission statements, and the areas of responsibilities for the BOI and the FIRS as obtained from their websites.

Table 5.2: BOI and FIRS- Vision, Mission and Responsibilities

Agency	Vision Statement	Mission Statement	Core Areas of Responsibilities Per Websites
BOI	"To be Africa's leading development finance institution operating under global best practices."	"To transform Nigeria's industrial sector by providing financial and business support services to enterprises across Nigeria in across."	1. "Responsible for providing financial and advisory support for creation and expansion of large, medium, and small enterprises. 2. Responsible for supporting businesses in different sectors such as Agriculture and food processing, oil and gas, solid minerals, healthcare and petrochemicals, creative industries, renewable energy, engineering, and technology across Nigeria."
FIRS	"To deliver quality services to taxpayers in partnership with other stakeholders and make taxation the pivot of national development."	"To operate a transparent and efficient tax system that optimises tax revenue collection and voluntary compliance."	1. "Responsible for assessing, administering and collecting the taxation of the corporate taxpayers, enterprises and individuals in Nigeria."

Source: From The Agencies' Websites

The agencies' future state and focus areas are the key information provided in Table 5.2 under the vision and mission statements. Additionally, the core areas of responsibilities on the third column provide a summary of these agencies' key activities. The information in Table 5.2 is used to analyse, compare, and corroborate information provided by respondents on the FIRS and BOI in Chapter 7. Table 5.3 below showcases the agencies I considered as the top ten corresponding per the critical infrastructure investment in Nigeria.

Table 5.3: Top MDAs Aligned with Investing in critical infrastructure

Key National MDAs and Roles	Purposefully Selected MDAs
1. The Ministry of Transportation: responsible for the development and maintenance of transportation infrastructure in Nigeria, including roads, railways, airports, and ports. 2. The Ministry of Power, Works, and Housing: responsible for the development and maintenance of physical infrastructure in Nigeria, including power generation and distribution, housing, and road infrastructure. 3. The Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN): responsible for maintaining financial stability and promoting economic development in Nigeria. 4. The Ministry of Communications and Digital Economy: responsible for developing and promoting digital infrastructure and services in Nigeria. 5. Nigerian Communications Commission (NCC): responsible for regulating, promoting, and maintaining the quality of telecommunications services in Nigeria. 6. The National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA): responsible for promoting the development and the use of information technology in Nigeria. 7. The Ministry of Science and Technology: responsible for developing and promoting science and technology, and innovation infrastructure. 8. The Ministry of Education: responsible for providing access to quality education, including infrastructure related to building schools, laboratories, and enabling innovation in education. 9. Nigeria Incentive-Based Risk Sharing System for Agricultural Lending (NIRSAL): responsible for providing guarantees to financial institutions that lend to the agricultural sector to promote agricultural lending. 10. National Identity Management Commission (NIMC): responsible for operating and regulating national identity services and instruments.	1. Nigerian Communications Commission (NCC) 2. The National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA)

Source: Compiled by author

The second column of Table 5.3 illustrates that out of the ten identified institutions, the telecommunications industry is considered the bedrock of the different categories of infrastructure built in Nigeria. This is also the sector that I had previous experience in, therefore, I can attest to the investment in critical infrastructure. Accordingly, the NCC is selected as the foremost telecommunication agency, and it underwent a transformation from 1999. The NITDA is selected because of the pivotal role it has been playing in Nigeria's digital economy since 2001. Table 5.4 highlights the vision and mission statements and the areas of responsibilities for both the NCC and NITDA from their websites.

Table 5.4: NCC and NITDA- Vision, Mission and Responsibilities

Agency	Vision Statement	Mission Statement	Core Areas of Responsibilities Per Websites
NCC	“To be a dynamic regulatory environment that ensures universal access to affordable and equitable service and supports the nation's economic growth.”	“To support a market driven Communications industry and promote universal access.”	1. “Responsible for issuing licences and imposing terms and conditions on licences, revocation of licences and the periodic determination of new services eligible for licensing. 2. Responsible for ensuring that operators implement accurate billing systems, promoting fair competition. 3. Responsible for providing written directions to licensees, engaging with different stakeholders, renewal and revocation of licences, monitoring and enforcing compliance. 4. Responsible for fixing and collecting fees for grant of communications licences and other regulatory services, management, and administration of frequency spectrum for the communications sector. 5. Responsible for assessing and resolving complaints and objections filed by and disputes between industry stakeholders and customers and representing Nigeria International telecommunication forums (The Nigerian Communications Commission, 2023).”
NITDA	“To be the prime catalyst for transforming Nigeria into an IT driven economy.”	“To develop and regulate IT for sustainable National development.”	1. “Responsible for formulating a framework for the planning, research, development, standardization, application, coordination, monitoring, evaluation and regulation of IT practices, activities, and systems in Nigeria. 2. Responsible for developing and regulating IT using regulatory standards, guidelines, and policies. 3. Responsible for acting as a clearing house for all IT projects and infrastructural development in Nigeria. 4. Responsible for acting as the main agency for e-government operations, internet governance, and general IT development in Nigeria.”

Source: From The Agencies' Websites

5.2.3 Selection of a Sub-National Agency

It is also important for this research to be conducted at the sub-national level as Nigeria operates a federal system with 36 states plus the Federal Capital Territory. For the sub-national level, the first factor I considered was the amount of internally generated revenue by each state in the country. This is considered an important factor because it provides an objective way of identifying the most successful states, albeit from a

revenue generation point-of view, as it highlights the relevance and significance of the selected state in the Nigerian story. Table 5.5 provides the ranking of the 36 states' internal generated revenue in 2022.

Table 5.5: Ranking of States in Nigeria Per Internally Generated Revenue

Rank	State	Index
1	Lagos	0.82
2	Rivers	0.83
3	Kaduna	1.33
4	Ebonyi	1.46
5	Jigawa	1.64
6	Ogun	1.69
7	Cross River	1.80
8	Anambra	2.14
9	Kwara	2.17
10	Oyo	2.28
11	Kano	2.36
12	Edo	2.38
13	Ondo	2.47
14	Osun	2.51
15	Sokoto	2.70
16	Enugu	2.77
17	Delta	2.80
18	Nasarawa	2.85
19	Plateau	2.93
20	Borno	3.09
21	Zamfara	3.15
22	Katsina	3.19
23	Abia	3.21
24	Bauchi	3.60
25	Ekiti	3.73
26	Imo	3.91
27	Kebbi	3.99
28	Gombe	4.32
29	Kogi	4.39
30	Niger	4.50
31	Akwa Ibom	4.96
32	Benue	5.41
33	Taraba	5.66
34	Adamawa	5.72
35	Yobe	7.03
36	Bayelsa	7.45

Source: *BudgIT State of States Report, 2022*

Table 5.5 illustrates that Lagos is the top-ranking state in terms of revenue generation in 2022 as it relied least on federal funds for the state's operations. This is a significant point because it suggests that Lagos can largely operate independently of federal statutory allocations (Roelofs, 2023), which consists of less than 10% of Lagos's operating revenue (Fitch Ratings, 2023). The second factor supporting my selection of Lagos State is the fact that it has a population of over 25 million (Lagos State MEPB, 2022), which is approximately 10% of Nigeria's population and as such the social impact of the activities of its agencies are important for this study. Thirdly, I considered the fact that Lagos contributes around 20% to the GDP of the country (Fitch Ratings, 2023), as an important point to make it the best state for this study.

In considering the agency of the Lagos state government to select, I followed the selection criteria discussed in sections 5.2.2.1 to 5.2.2.4 above. Consequently, the

Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning and Budget (LSMEPB) was selected. The LSMEPB is a nodal agency (Chibber, 2002) formed from the Programmes and Budget Bureau (PBB) in 1999 for mobilisation, planning and allocation of resources for the sustainable attainment of the state's socio-economic goals (Lagos State MEPB, 2023). Additionally, when the agency was created, an expert from the private sector was brought in to take charge of the mandate of the ministry in line with the developmental agenda of the state.

Table 5.6 highlights the vision and mission statements and the areas of responsibilities for the LSMEPB from their website.

Table 5.6: LSMEPB- Vision, Mission and Responsibilities

Agency	Vision Statement	Mission Statement	Core Areas of Responsibilities Per Websites
LSMEPB	"To be the primary agency of government that facilitates efficient and effective mobilisation, planning, allocation and utilisation of resources for socio-economic transformation of Lagos State."	"Ensuring continuous and dynamic socio-economic policies through prudent and equitable resource management in Lagos state."	1. "Responsible for coordinating economic planning, conducting socio-economic research and intelligence, and preparing the state's development Plans. 2. Responsible for preparing the annual and supplementary budgets for the state's MDAs. 3. Responsible for advising the state on budget planning, procedure and monitoring and accountability and on general finance and budget matters including revenue generation. 4. Responsible for conducting research, monitoring and evaluation of government programmes and projects. 5. Responsible for collecting, analysing and distributing statistical data. 6. Responsible for coordinating the international development funds for the state."

Source: From LSMEPB Website

5.3 DATA COLLECTION

5.3.1 Overview

The purpose of this section is to present the method of data collection for this study. I adopt a descriptive approach using in-depth face-to-face interviews with purposefully selected knowledgeable actors (Hochschild, 2009; Yin, 2009; Simon, 2011; Creswell, 2014) from the five selected agencies as the main instrument for data collection. This

was driven by the need to obtain an extensive understanding of how public institutions work within their ecosystems in Nigeria. The use of in-depth interviews enabled the answering of questions through guided conversations with respondents that are experts and knowledgeable about the activities of the selected public agencies (Yin, 2009). I describe the basis for formulating the interview questions and for arriving at the interview sample size in sections 5.3.2 and 5.3.3 respectively. Afterwards, in the rest of this section I discuss the selection of the interviewees in the five agencies (section 5.3.4), the summary of the interview sessions (section 5.3.5), and post interview activities involving the transcribing and labelling of the recorded interview sessions (section 5.3.6). Subsequently, in section 5.4 I provide a first-hand account of how data was extracted and collated prior to the presentation and analysis of my research findings contained in Chapters 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10.

5.3.2 Formulating Interview Questions

As my research adopts a qualitative research rather than a quantitative methodology, the process of data analysis began prior to data collection, with the formulation of interview questions (Merriam and Tisdell, 2015). According to Yin (2009), data analysis involves examining, sorting, organising, testing or reconstructing evidence to arrive at evidence-based conclusions. However, analysing case study evidence can be challenging, as the techniques are not as clearly defined as those used in quantitative research (Yin, 2009). To mitigate these challenges, it is therefore important to provide clarity on the areas of focus, and to ensure that these are prioritised during the analysis (Yin, 2009).

Mazzucato's (2018a) ROAR framework, which I discussed in chapter 4, guides the formulation of the main research, sub-research and interview questions. The sub-research questions provide the overarching basis for formulating the interview questions posed to the respondents. As noted in Section 4.1, the interview questions were designed with sensitivity to local language and cultural context. To ensure this, the draft interview guide was shared with Nigerian experts from academia and industry for their input in refining the questions. The interview questions are divided into three sections: Section One and Two were developed for internal respondents, whilst Section Three was crafted for the external respondents, as illustrated in Table 5.7.

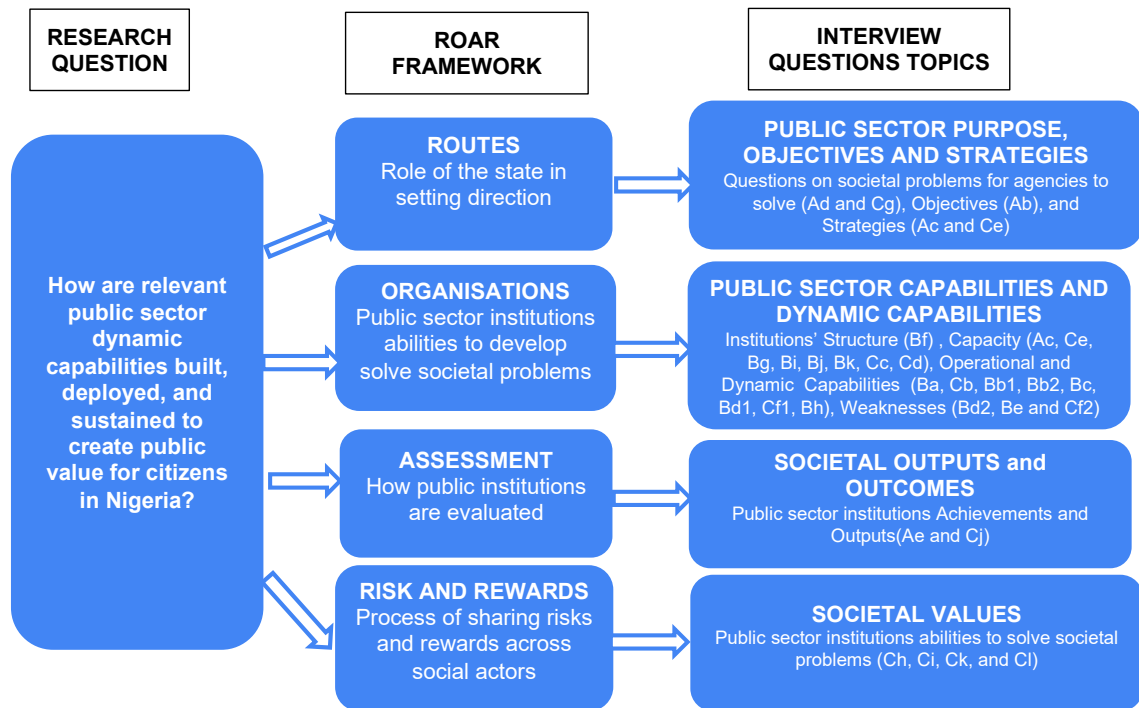
Table 5.7- Sub-Research Questions and Interview Questions

SUB-RESEARCH QUESTION 1: A) What roles do public organisations play in solving societal problems?	SUB-RESEARCH QUESTION 2: B) How do these public organisations build, deploy and sustain the relevant dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems for citizens?	SUB-RESEARCH QUESTION 3: C) How do these public sector dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value?
Aa) What is your background and what role do (did) you play in the agency?	Ba) Please describe the work the agency does – What kind of practices does the agency engage in? Bb) What are the pro-active and reactive activities done by the agencies? Bc) What's the balance between pro-active or reactive way of working?	Ca) What is your background and what role do you play or played in the agency's ecosystem?
Ab) Why do you think the agency was set up?	Bd) What area(s) does the agency do really well? Be) What area(s) does it need to improve on?	Cb) Please describe the work that the agency does. Cc) How does the agency work with its industry participants? Cd) Is the agency creating coalitions with social partners? Ce) How strategic is the agency in the way it works? Cf) What would you say the agency does really well and what do they not do so well?
Ac) What are the main strategic focus areas of the agency over the years?	Bf) What areas of work does the agency get outside firms to do?	Cg) What societal problems do you think the agency was set up to resolve? Ch) Has the agency been successful in solving the main societal problems it was set up to resolve? Ci) Please describe how these societal problems have been resolved? Is the agency behaving strategically in solving these problems?
Ad) What would you say are the main societal problems we have in Nigeria that the agency is meant to address?	Bg) Please describe the agency's structure and staff levels with roles and responsibilities? – What is the chain of command and how are decisions taken by the agency? Bh) Where are staff mostly recruited from at different levels of the organisation?	Cj) What are the agency's outputs over the years?

SUB-RESEARCH QUESTION 1: A) What roles do public organisations play in solving societal problems?	SUB-RESEARCH QUESTION 2: B) How do these public organisations build, deploy and sustain the relevant dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems for citizens?	SUB-RESEARCH QUESTION 3: C) How do these public sector dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value?
Ae) What have been the key milestones and achievements by the agency along the way?	Bi) What leadership, senior managerial skills and operational skills exist within the agency? Bj) How are staff equipped with the requirement for their jobs at all levels? 1. How are training needs assessed and delivered? 2. How are staff performances assessed and monitored within the organisation? Bk) How comparable are the rewards and incentives provided by the agency to the staff at different levels?	Ck) What have been the effect of the agency's outputs and activities over the years? Cl) What societal values has your agency been able to achieve because of the agency?

To start off with, the interview questions, under the first sub-question in column one of Table 5.7, were directed at the internal respondents to enable the high-level understanding of how public sector agencies are structured to effectively solve societal problems. Secondly, the interview questions under the second sub-question in column two were directed at the internal participants to enable the exploration of how the agencies operate and how they deploy and institutionalise their capabilities. Finally, the third set of interview questions, under the third sub-research question in column three, were directed at external participants mostly to enable the understanding of the relationship between the agencies' dynamic capabilities and the social outcomes. Subsequently, I matched the different interview questions with the different factors of the ROAR framework as shown in Figure 5.2 to enable the presentation and analysing of the interview data in chapters 7, 8, 9, and 10.

Figure 5.2: Linking the ROAR Framework and the Interview Questions



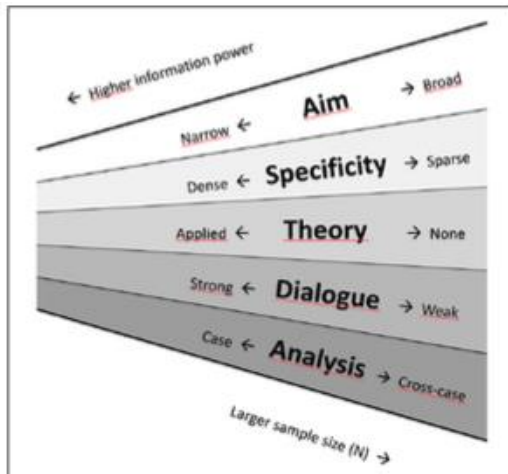
Source: Developed and Compiled by author

Figure 5.2 illustrates the fact that the questions have been clustered into the ROAR framework and each cluster has different questions that were directed at internal and external interviewees.

5.3.3 Interview Sample Size and Respondents

Regarding the number of interviewees that participated per institution, I selected a sample size of 12 individuals per agency comprising of internal and external stakeholders – as the participants are heterogeneous and the research area is new with Nigeria. In arriving at a total of 12 interviewees per agency, I was guided by Malterud et al's (2016) study on information power as shown in Figure 5.3 below.

Figure 5.3: Information Power: Items and Dimensions



Source: Malterud et al, 2016

According to Malterud et al's (2016) information power model, depicted in Figure 5.3 above, the sample size is determined by the following factors. Firstly, the sample size is influenced by how narrow or broad the study is and as such the broader it is the more the sample size (Malterud, Siersma and Guassora, 2016). Secondly, the sample specificity in terms of similarities between the interviewees such that more individuals are needed if the similarities of individuals are sparse (Malterud, Siersma and Guassora, 2016). Thirdly, if the topic being studied is an established theory then fewer people are required for the interview (Malterud, Siersma and Guassora, 2016). Fourthly, the quality of dialogue or understanding of the respondents determines the size of the sample, such that if the dialogue is strong there is no need for a large sample size (Malterud, Siersma and Guassora, 2016). Fifthly, the analysis strategy such that if the study involves a cross-case analysis then more participants are needed to offer adequate information power (Malterud, Siersma and Guassora, 2016).

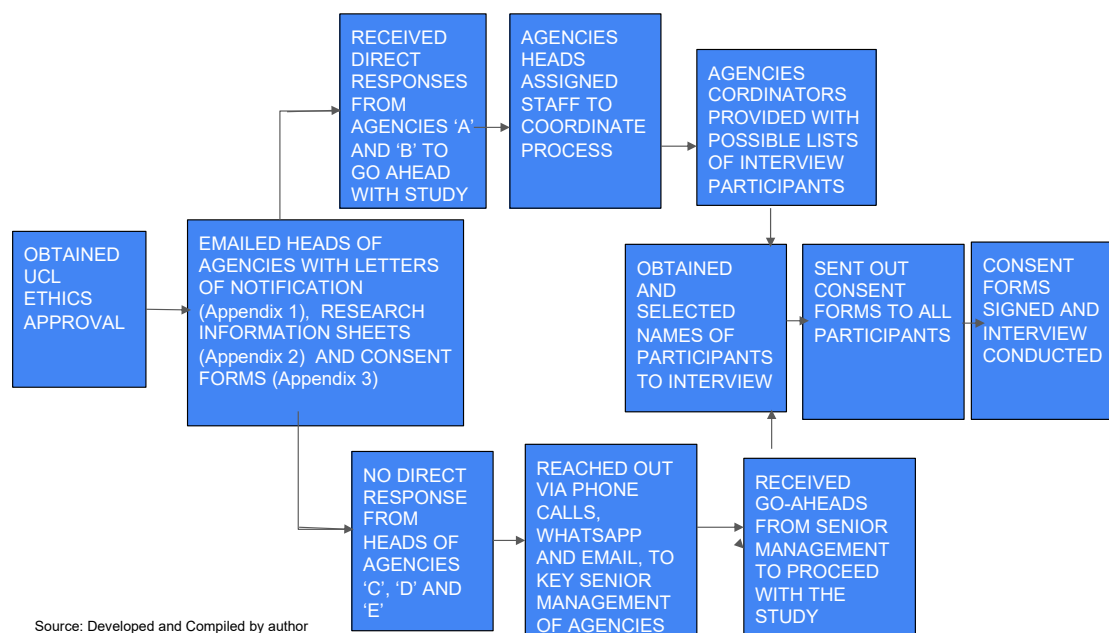
Furthermore, in arriving at the number of interviewees per agency, I also considered the issue of data saturation and variability (Guest, Bunce and Johnson, 2006). Guest et al (2006), in their study to determine how many interviews are enough for a study, attest that they arrived at data saturation by the time they interviewed twelve respondents for their work. Similarly, Gullmark's (2021) study influenced the number of selected interviewees. Gullmark's (2021) study on the public sector innovation capabilities in Norway involves semi-structured interviews of sixty individual participants and focus groups from the selected four municipalities between 2016 and

2020. Hence, for the purpose of this research involving five Nigerian public agencies, I chose to interview twelve individuals per agency and a total of 60 interviews in total. These twelve respondents, comprising of internal and external stakeholders were interviewed per agency which ensured that the views obtained were from diverse sources within each ecosystem. This is an ecosystem approach that enabled insights to be obtained from both the internal stakeholders, who worked directly in the agencies and the external stakeholders that worked within their ecosystems. As discussed in chapter 4, this ecosystem approach enables the identification of interdependences of the organisations' capabilities with the social outcomes (Paukku, Koria and Kourula, 2010). Consequently, the information obtained from the internal respondents is triangulated with those received from the external participants.

5.3.4 Pre-Interview Activities to Reach Agencies

This section describes the pre-interview activities embarked upon before commencing the interview sessions. Figure 5.4 below illustrates the overall steps taken while the specific process flow per agency is described below in the following paragraphs.

Figure 5.4: Flow Diagram Summarising Overall Pre-Interview Activities to Reach Agencies



Per Figure 5.4, upon receipt of approval from the UCL IIPP Ethical Board, in line with my research design, I contacted the leadership of the chosen agencies via email and phone calls to notify them of my intention to conduct the study and to get their buy-in. Formal letters were sent requesting permission to conduct my research in their organisations, alongside information sheets that detailed the purpose and focus of the study and consent forms for interview participants, which required their signatures. See Appendices 1, 2, and 3 respectively. The signed 59 consent forms for the 60 interview sessions were then stored on a hard drive that can only be accessed by the researcher, in line with data protection policy. Also, as discussed in section 5.3.6 below, the respondents were assigned with unique codes whilst removing any identifiable information about each participant. The levels of support, cooperation, and acceptance from the various heads differed from one agency to the other. Subsequently, all interview participants from each of the agencies were sent emails explaining the purpose and focus of the study also with accompanying research information sheets and consent forms for their execution. In some cases, meetings with potential participants were held to provide additional information, to further explain the purpose of the research, and to gain their trust.

Agency A – Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning and Budget (LSMEPB)

The Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning and Budget is a coordinating ministry of Lagos State responsible for planning, drafting and implementing policies on the state's economic planning and budget (Lagos State Government, 2023). It was set up in 1999 by Asiwaju Bola Ahmed Tinubu, Governor of Lagos State out of the former Plans, Programmes and Budget Bureau (PPBB) under the ministry of Finance and Establishment. (Lagos State Government, 2023).

The leadership of agency LSMEPB was extremely cooperative. I was introduced by the head of the agency to the agency's deputy to notify them of the study. Afterwards, the deputy nominated an assistant director to assist in providing a list of 30 internal and external stakeholders for my selection. I then selected seven internal stakeholders, comprising of the agency head as at the date of the interview, the deputy, a past agency head and directors and unit heads, as well as five external stakeholders, comprising of directors and heads of public agencies that worked directly with the ministry. Six out of the seven internal stakeholder interviews were conducted

physically while all of the five external stakeholder interviews were conducted virtually via Zoom.

Agency B – National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA)

The National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA) is responsible for implementing the Nigerian Information Technology Policy and co-ordinating general IT development in the country (NITDA, 2023). It was created in 2001 and the National Information Technology Development Act (2007) requires it to create a framework for the coordinating, monitoring, evaluating, and regulating of the Information Technology practices, activities and systems in Nigeria (NITDA, 2023).

The leadership of NITDA was also very cooperative. The head of the agency nominated a senior staff to provide the necessary support required for the interviews. Consequently, the staff sent out introductory emails to internal stakeholders, copying me and notifying the respondents of my intention to conduct some research on the agency. The staff also sent out a spreadsheet of names across different departments for my final discreet selection of participants. Afterwards, six currently employed internal stakeholders and one former employee from assistant director level upwards were selected and contacted via email with the accompanying research information sheets and consent forms.

For the selection of the external stakeholders, I relied on my industry knowledge to reach out to respondents that work in key organisations that interact directly with agency B. On that basis, four external stakeholders were selected as participants. Additionally, one former staff already interviewed as an internal stakeholder, agreed to be interviewed a second time as an external stakeholder –thereby making the total number of individuals interviewed to be 59 for the 60 interview sessions held. This respondent had transited into a consultant for NITDA in the past four years, so he occupies a unique position as having insights on NITDA from different perspectives.

Finally, as all the respondents were dispersed across Nigeria, the interview session were conducted online via Zoom.

Agency C – Nigerian Communications Commission (NCC)

The Nigerian Communications Commission (NCC) is independent regulatory authority for the communications industry in Nigeria. It was set up in 1992 and its powers are from the Nigerian Communications Act (NCA) of 2003 (The Nigerian Communications Commission, 2023). It is responsible for promoting competition among industry operators, issuing, suspending, and revoking licenses, ensuring the provision efficient telecommunications services across the country, and facilitating the use of communications infrastructure and services to support national development (The Nigerian Communications Commission, 2023).

Unlike the first two agencies, the head of the NCC at the time was unavailable. After several attempts of sending direct emails and physical letters, I leveraged on my industry knowledge to reach directors within the agency who granted me the required interviews. I was, however, informed that the agency head, whilst not responding to me directly had been made aware of the interview. I was also told that the agency head had been extremely preoccupied with more pressing matters concerning the agency and as such was unavailable to participate. Nevertheless, I was advised by the senior agency staff that the protocol required researchers to approach current staff directly, who in return individually sought clearance and approval from the agency to participate in studies. I, then, proceeded as advised in my selection of current staff. Six internal stakeholders were selected, comprising of current and past directors. For the selection of external stakeholders, I relied on my industry knowledge in their selection. I selected six external stakeholders including senior management respondents who worked in the telecommunication industry or in consulting firms. The respondents were also dispersed across Nigeria and all the interviews for the agency were conducted online via Zoom.

Agency D – Bank Of Industry (BOI)

The Bank of Industry Limited (BOI) is Nigeria's oldest and largest development financing institution (DFI) in the country. It commenced in 1959 as the Investment Company of Nigeria (ICON), was restructured as the Nigerian Industrial Development Bank (NIDB) in 1964 and then became the BOI in 2001 (Boi.ng, 2025).

It is responsible for providing long-term, low-interest financing and advisory services to support large, medium, and small enterprises and projects in Nigeria (Boi.ng, 2025). Similar to agency C, the head of BOI was unavailable. After several failed attempts to reach the head at the time, by sending emails directly and through other stakeholders, I reached out to the past leadership to provide me with a list of current and past directors for the study. The current agency head, whilst not responding to me directly, was aware of the interview; he had, however, also indicated verbally through a reliable source that he was fine with the study being conducted but was unable to participate. Consequently, I obtained the contact information of the 12 participants comprising of seven internal stakeholders and five external stakeholders, selecting six from the internal stakeholders list. One of the proposed internal respondents was unresponsive. For the external stakeholders, I chose five of the suggested respondents and added two additional names based on industry intelligence on the relationship between their organisations and the agency. The selected five internal stakeholders comprised of two past agency heads, one current director, and two past directors who were also board members. The seven external stakeholders were all business owners and Managing Directors of companies that interact with agency D frequently. The respondents were dispersed across Nigeria and all interviews for agency D were conducted online via Zoom.

Agency E – Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS)

The Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS) is the federal government agency responsible for assessing, collecting, and accounting for taxes and revenues for the Nigerian federal government (FIRS.ng, 2025). It was established in 1943 as the Nigerian Inland Revenue Department under the colonial administration and then after went through several reforms until 2007 when the Federal Inland Revenue Service (Establishment) Act granted it an autonomous status with its own Board (FIRS.ng, 2025).

The head of the FIRS at the time was unavailable. However, one of the current directors who received the request on his behalf responded to my email noting that my request had been forwarded to the agency head for his nomination of current directors to be interviewed. The director also revealed that pending the list of

nominated respondents, I could proceed with interviewing former directors and other stakeholders, without any recourse to the agency. As a result, the selection of the six internal stakeholders all comprised of former and retired agency directors whose names were provided by partners in consulting firms who have had dealings with the agency. The six external stakeholders were senior management individuals who work with private companies – one from the telecommunication sector, two from the oil and gas sector, and three partners from consulting firms. The respondents were dispersed across Nigeria and all the interviews for agency E were conducted online via Zoom.

5.3.5 The Interview Process

As previously mentioned, I conducted in-depth face-to-face interviews with purposefully selected experts and knowledgeable actors (Hochschild, 2009; Yin, 2009; Simon, 2011; Creswell, 2014). These participants are people in the ecosystem whose accounts and views can be relied upon such as the past and present heads of the agencies, senior employees, political appointees, civil servants, and industry participants. Each interview session lasted between 40 minutes and 90 minutes. The internal stakeholders' interviews lasted longer as they were required to answer questions in sections A and B on the interview question sheet as outlined in Table 5.7 above. The external stakeholders' sessions were shorter in duration as they were presented with questions in section C of the interview question sheet depicted in Table 5.7. The full data collection spanned nine (9) weeks, from 26 May to 1 August 2023. Most of the interview sessions were conducted online via Zoom; in the same vein, all interviews – including those conducted physically – were recorded using Zoom.

However, it is pertinent to note that a majority of the respondents preferred to be interviewed via Zoom as it allowed them flexibility with their schedules. Just as comparable platforms like Skype, Zoom offers an avenue to communicate in real time with geographically dispersed individuals using a computer, tablet, or mobile device. However, unlike others, Zoom holds a range of additional advantages which further enhances its potential research utility. One of such advantages is its ability to record and store sessions securely, without recourse to third-party software (Archibald *et al.*, 2019). This mode of interview also served as the most convenient option for me as it reduced the risks associated with moving around different locations in Nigeria such as

local traffic congestions, expensive cost of travel to different parts of the country, as well as security concerns. Over the course of the period, 60 interviews were conducted with 59 participants solely by me. The semi-structured interview questioning style was adhered to as I asked additional questions where necessary, to seek clarification and to obtain more insights from the respondents. In some cases, the respondents also sought clarification to questions for better understanding of context, or as a result of low Zoom audio owing to internet connectivity challenges or other limitations.

5.3.6 Post-Interview Activities

As indicated in the ethics approval, I engaged the services of a third-party transcriber who signed a Non-Disclosure Agreement (NDA) (see appendix 4). This made the process of reviewing and summarising of the transcripts from 60 interview sessions more manageable. Upon conclusion of each batch of 12 interview sessions per agency, the different Zoom audio files were coded, labelled, and sent to the transcriber for full transcription via email. The research data is pseudonymised to protect personal information of respondents, with each participant being assigned a unique code commencing with the letters assigned to the relevant agency – A, B, C, D, or E – accompanied by letter 'R' for respondent, then followed by a number from 1-12 and ending with a hyphenated 'I' for internal stakeholders or 'E' for external stakeholders.

For example, for respondent 1 that is an internal stakeholder from agency A, the label is AR1-I, and for respondent 12 that is an external stakeholder from agency E, the label is ER12-E. All the transcribed interview sessions were sent back via email in five different MS Word documents, which have been saved on an external hard drive for safety measures. All signed consent forms from the 59 participants were also received via email or WhatsApp and are saved on the external hard drive.

5.4 DATA EXTRACTION STEPS

This section describes in detail the steps taken to extract data from the interview sessions. During the interview sessions, in addition to the recording being made on Zoom, I made hand-written notes on dedicated agencies' notebooks for each participant to further capture responses as a back-up peradventure there were lapses

in audio quality. Following the interview sessions, the sixty Zoom recordings were sent by me to the transcriber in batches of 12 per agency. Following the complete transcription of each batch, the resulting transcripts were sent via email as MS Word documents. Upon receipt of the transcribed notes for each of the agencies, the documents were securely saved on an external hard drive. Afterwards, I familiarised myself with the responses per question given by the interviewees for each question alongside my hand-written notes to ensure correctness, context, and clear understanding. I then adopted and adapted recommended data thematic analysis approaches that allowed me to effectively summarise interview texts, extract key words, collate responses, and reassemble/merge data before analysing and interpreting the assessed themes or patterns (Yin, 2009; Saldaña, 2021; Braun and Clarke, 2022). The following were the pre-analysis steps taken to extract the data from the transcripts.

Step One – Summarisation Of Interview Transcripts

The summarisation process commenced with the creation of individual Microsoft Word documents for each interview question, capturing responses per agency. In total, 28 documents were created, labelled to the question sets: Aa to Ae (5 questions), Ba to Bk (11 questions) and Ca to Cl (12 questions). For example, the response from respondent BR1-I's response to question Aa that asked: *What is your background and what role do (did) you play in the agency?* – was extracted and entered into the corresponding document. Each respondent's relevant responses were extracted and organised into tables within the 28 separate Word documents. Subsequently, these extracted sets of information were summarised to capture the responses from all the 60 interview sessions for all the questions.

Step Two – Extraction Of Key Words

The next step involved the extraction of key words and codes from the summary description for each of the responses given by all the participants. For example, Table 5.8 illustrates extracted key words for Question Aa for the internal respondent BR1-I.

Table 5.8: Illustrating Key Words Extracted for Respondent BR1-I

Respondent Code	Summary Description	Extracted Key Words
BR1-I	1. Bachelor's Degree and PhD Computer Science and Engineering 2. Joined AGENCY 2019 3. Prior to AGENCY Assistant Professor of Computer Science at Saudi Arabia University 4. Technical Assistant to DG-assist in developing pathways and technical support to agency	1. BSc. and PhD holder (science) 2. Recently joined industry (less than a decade) 3. Previously had private sector experience 4. Technical Assistant (Assistant, Director level)

After step two was concluded for all 60 interview sessions, I saved the summarised and codified versions in 28 Word documents.

Step Three – Collation Of Responses using Figure 5.2

After summarising the transcribed notes, the ROAR framework was used to classify the research questions and responses. All the interview questions and summarised responses were then transferred into a Microsoft Excel workbook in accordance with the components of the ROAR framework on five sheets for each of the agencies. I inputted the questions vertically, noting the coded summarised responses across twelve columns and divided them into internal and external stakeholders' categories. Afterwards, I transferred the key words mentioned in step two from the MS Word documents into the MS Excel workbook for collation.

Step Four – Merging Of Data Per Agency

The next step involves the merging of all the responses for each agency under two columns representing the internal and external stakeholders. In addition to merging the answers given by all the respondents per agency, the responses were ranked according to the frequency of the points raised by the respondents.

Step Five – Merging Of Data For All Respondents

After implementing the preceding steps, I brought all the responses into one sheet for final collation before commencing analysis. This step involved the linking of the single agency worksheets on MS Excel to the main worksheet that has the five agencies' internal and external stakeholders' columns from step four. Afterwards, the answers

were combined, summarised, and presented before analysis and interpretation of the data commenced.

Step Six – Presentation and Analyses of Research Findings

This step involves the presentation and analysis of the findings from the 60 interview sessions showing the demographic distribution of the respondents and using the key parameters of the ROAR framework - 'Routes,' 'Organisation,' 'Assessment' and 'Risk and Rewards' discussed in Chapter 4. To start off with, Chapter 6 contains the demographics of the respondents to provide context of the background on the research interviewees; Chapter 7 contains the findings on 'Routes' – the role of the agencies in setting direction for solving societal challenges; Chapter 8 comprises of findings on 'Organisation' – the public sector institutions abilities to develop and solve societal problems; Chapter 9 represents assessment – how public institutions are evaluated; and Chapter 10 looks at risk and rewards – the process of sharing risks and rewards across social actors.

The emerging themes and patterns from different data sets were then analysed and interpreted (Braun and Clarke, 2022). This mode of analysis is the abductive part of the iterative research approach that enables the discovery of patterns of the dynamic capabilities employed in the public sector institutions of study and how they positively affect societal outcomes in Nigeria (Bryman, 2012).

The importance of considering context has been extensively discussed in earlier chapters. For instance, in the area of public administration, there are different systems in place to manage specific complex issues facing different societies and countries (Drechsler and Kattel, 2020). Another example is in the area of creating good institutions. Here, scholars argue that developing countries do not need to adopt Western-like institutions but they need to have their own home-grown institutions to develop, as context is unique for every country (Fagerberg and Srholec, 2008; Chang, 2010b). In Nigeria's case, the public sector has been greatly influenced by neoliberal policies that have been predominant since the 1980s. This plays out in the adoption of policies such as decentralised organisational structures and the practice of NPM that relate to the implementation of the performance appraisal systems found in private

organisations by public agencies. Also, in the Nigerian context, its public sector is considered as playing market-fixing roles to the private sector that are often regarded as the main drivers of the economy. Therefore, the responses provided by the participants were carefully studied as they may have been influenced by this neoliberal perspective. This perspective is different from the heterodox and market-shaping viewpoint of the ROAR framework that is used throughout the research. All analysis were carried out using the ROAR framework together with the existing literature supporting theories outlined in Chapter 4 to enable comparative assessment of emerging themes.

5.5 RESEARCH ETHICS

Research ethics is important because of the potential harm the study may bring to the participants and collaborators (Fujii, 2012). Some of the concerns that this research may present are the power imbalance between the researcher and the researched, and concerns about privacy and confidentiality when interviewing and publishing findings (Fujii, 2012). Also, as this research involves the collection of data, request for consent, and respect for privacy, it was important that I adhered to the Helsinki principles for ethical research (The World Medical Association, 1964) by taking six active steps. Firstly, in line with UCL and IIPP ethical guidelines I obtained all the necessary approvals before the commencement of fieldwork. Secondly, I notified the leadership of the selected institutions before commencement of my interview sessions with participants. Thirdly, I ensured that all participants' voluntary informed consent forms were signed with clarification on the objectives, aims and methods of the research provided, and permission for the interviews to be audio recorded obtained (Damianakis and Woodford, 2012).

Fourthly, all participants were treated with respect and courtesy at all times before, during and after the interview and data collection sessions. Fifthly, confidentiality of individual participants was adhered to by pseudonymising the participants' data – by coding their responses – to prevent their identification and possible harm to them. This is particularly important as some of the respondents are connected to each other within the community and ecosystem of the selected agencies (Damianakis and Woodford,

2012), and may in the course of 'normal discussions', unwittingly disclose information. However, if that was to have happened, I took time and care not to include any identifying information in reporting my findings. I also stored all the data securely on an external hard drive and ensured that no one was able to access any sensitive information from the interview sessions.

Sixthly, the research was conducted with integrity and full disclosure at all times in order to ensure that the outcome of the study is of benefit to the participants, the society and the academic community. I ensured that I conducted the research rigorously and honestly so that the research is not perceived as flawed in any way and to avoid any reputational damage. There was no power relationship with the participants that resulted in biases as they were all professionals and leaders in their relevant roles. Also, there was no conflict of interest nor was there any use of incentives to get interviewees to participate in the study.

5.6 RESEARCH QUALITY: VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

In addition to ensuring that the research is conducted in an ethical manner, it was also critical that the work done was of high quality to provide readers and scholars with assurances of the trustworthiness of the study (Merriam and Tisdell, 2015; Patton, 2015). To ensure high standards I focused on being thorough in obtaining valid and reliable information throughout the different stages of the study – the conceptualisation of the research, the formulation of the research and interview questions, the review of literature, the selection of the five public institutions of study, the identification of interview participants, the collection of data from the respondents, and the presentation, review and analysis of the findings. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), credibility, dependability, transferability, confirmability are criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of a research study.

Taking the first aspect of trustworthiness, according to Merriam and Tisdell (2015), the credibility of the research, also known as the internal validity, is central to every research. I achieved credibility by interviewing twelve participants which comprised of internal and external stakeholders per agency to enable information power (Malterud,

Siersma and Guassora, 2016) and by cross-checking and triangulating data with publicly available information. The spread of the respondents meant that I was able to obtain responses from diverse groups of people and thereby applying member check to information obtained from participants (Merriam and Tisdell, 2015). Also, the qualification and relevance of the participants to the study also adds to the credibility and reliability of the study. The second point, dependability refers to the existence of an audit trail regarding the steps taken to carry out the research (Korstjens and Moser, 2018). The following processes have been described extensively – the selection of the public agencies in section 5.2, the collection of data in section 5.3, the extraction of data in section 5.4, the presentation and analysis of the responses in chapter 6,7, 8, 9, and 10. The third point, transferability, also known as external validity refers to the degree by which the findings are applicable to different contexts (Lincoln, Guba and Pilotta, 1985). This requires that the study describes not just the events being recorded but the contexts to enable better understanding of the responses provided by interviewees (Korstjens and Moser, 2018). In this study whilst not naming the respondents, I indicate the different perspectives in presenting and analysing the results – internal vs external ecosystem participants. Additionally, the responses provided for each institution were noted with common areas highlighted. The fourth point, confirmability, is about the extent to which other researchers can confirm the study undertaken by cross-checking the data obtained (Korstjens and Moser, 2018). Here, I documented and showcased the steps taken and tools used to collect, extract and analyse the research data.

5.7 REFLEXIVITY STATEMENT

This research was motivated by my first-hand experience as CEO of MTN Nigeria Foundation, where I observed inconsistent performance levels across Nigerian public organizations while we partnered on CSR projects. This sparked my interest in understanding what drives success in the public sector. Subsequently, I encountered Professor Mariana Mazzucato's work on *The Entrepreneurial State* and then decided to embark on studies at the Institute for Innovation and Public Purpose as part of the first cohort of the MPA. During the course of my MPA – in my Creative Bureaucracy class – I was introduced to the concept of public sector dynamic capabilities, which

got me thinking about the possible role governments can play in leading development instead of their reliance on external aid. Consequently, I decided to embark on a study that focuses on the broader need for dynamic capabilities within public institutions to drive sustainable development.

I am well-positioned to carry out this study as a Nigerian-British senior corporate person who has gone through the British education system – from secondary school to postgraduate level – and has professional experience in the UK, the USA, and Nigeria. I am also independently funding this research thereby presenting no conflict of interest. I was warmly received by all interview participants, who responded openly and engaged fully in the sessions, which were conducted professionally, with a shared appreciation of the importance of the study. I expect that this research will contribute to the field of public administration, public policy, and academia.

5.8 SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the research design and methodology. Given that the study was carried out in a country that significantly considers government as a market-fixer and the private sector as the main driver of the economy, the chapter describes the case study methodology utilised and the reasons for its use. The chapter also revealed methods used which allowed the use of the ROAR framework.

The case study methodology was adopted because the main research question is a 'how' question, which lends itself to exploring and explaining the phenomenon under study. Accordingly, interviews were conducted with respondents positioned to provide reliable and informed insights. Moreover, as the research focuses on public sector dynamic capabilities, public agencies were the primary units of analysis and thus required in-depth exploration.

Towards the formulation of the interview questions, this chapter emphasised the importance of considering local language context. The interview process from pre-

interview to post-interview was also described in detail in the chapter alongside the process of keyword extraction.

Subsequently, the extents carried out to ensure research ethics and quality were also described in detail to establish trustworthiness of the study. According to Merriam and Tisdell (2015), the credibility – or internal validity – of research is central to its integrity. Therefore, the steps taken, and tools used to collect, extract and analyse the data were presented here, as they form the basis for the presentation and analysis of the interview data in Chapters 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 which address the research question. Finally, the chapter concludes with a reflexivity statement outlining the researcher's motivation and suitability to conduct the study.

CHAPTER 6: PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INSIGHTS ON THE DEMOGRAPHY OF THE RESEARCH RESPONDENTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and analyses the demographic distribution of the 59 respondents that participated in the 60 sessions of interviews, to provide context and confirm both their credibility and the reliability of the research data. The sample comprised 31 internal stakeholders and 29 external stakeholders, selected from across the country, with a total of 12 respondents interviewed per agency.

6.2 PRESENTING THE DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE INTERNAL RESPONDENTS

Table 6.1 below shows the breakdown of the demographics of the internal respondents per agency comprising Agency A ($n = 7 = 23\%$), Agency B ($n = 7 = 23\%$), Agency C ($n = 6 = 19\%$), Agency D ($n = 5 = 16\%$), and Agency E ($n = 6 = 19\%$) to make up the sample size ($N=31$). Segment 1 of Table 6.1 shows that the employment levels of the respondents that participated in the study were mostly leadership and senior management staff with past or present agency heads ($n = 4 = 13\%$), directors or department heads ($n = 20 = 65\%$), and middle management employees ($n = 7 = 23\%$). Segment 2 shows that all respondents had at least a bachelor's degree, with BSc and BA holders ($n = 22 = 71\%$), Masters holders ($n = 3 = 10\%$), and PhD holders ($n = 6 = 19\%$).

Table 6.1: Internal Stakeholders Demographics

AGENCY	SEGMENT 1-EMPLOYMENT LEVEL			SEGMENT 2-EDUCATION LEVEL			SEGMENT 3- PROFESSIONAL BACKGROUND					SEGMENT 4- PUBLIC/PRIVATE SECTOR EXPERIENCE-		SEGMENT 5- AVERAGE TENURE
	Agency Head	Director/Department Heads	Asst Director /Middle Mgmt	BSc/BA	MSc/MBA/MPA	PhD	Legal/Policy	Finance/Banking/Accounting/Tax	Engineering/Technical/IT/Technologist	Medicine	Marketing/Admin	Public	Private	Per Agency
A	2	3	2	5	2	0	0	6	0	1	0	2	5	14
B	0	4	3	3	1	3	2	0	5	0	0	1	6	9
C	0	5	1	5	0	1	2	2	1	0	1	2	4	14
D	2	3	0	3	0	2	0	5	0	0	0	1	4	21
E	0	5	1	6	0	0	0	5	0	0	1	5	1	23
Total	4	20	7	22	3	6	4	18	6	1	2	11	20	16
Total Per Segment	31			31			31					31		

Segment 3 of Table 6.1 shows that the respondents all belonged to a professional group comprising Legal/Policy ($n = 4 = 13\%$), Finance, Banking, Accounting, and Tax ($n = 18 = 58\%$), Engineering and IT ($n = 6 = 19\%$), Medicine ($n = 1 = 3\%$), and Marketing/Admin ($n = 2 = 6\%$). When considering private and public sector experiences for the internal respondents per segment 4 of Table 6.1, the participants with private sector experience were 20 out of 31 (65%), whilst those with only public sector experience were a minority of 11 out of 31 (35%).

Finally, when considering the tenure of respondents, the data showed that respondents worked between 4 and 34 years (13 out of 31 respondents worked between 3 and 10 years, 7 worked between 11 and 19 years and 11 worked between 20 and 34 years). Table 6.1 shows that the average tenure of all the agencies' respondents was 16 years, with agency B having the least average tenure of nine years, and agency E having the most average tenure of 23 years. According to the respondents, they had all benefitted from being promoted or from changing jobs within their careers in the various agencies at least once and those that had been in the agencies the longest had moved through the ranks over the years to ascend to the director level.

6.3 PRESENTING THE DEMOGRAPHICS OF EXTERNAL RESPONDENTS

Table 6.2 below shows the breakdown of the external respondents for all the agencies. It comprises Agency A ($n = 5 = 17\%$), Agency B ($n = 5 = 17\%$), Agency C ($n = 6 = 21\%$), Agency D ($n = 7 = 24\%$), and Agency E ($n = 6 = 21\%$) to make up the sample size ($N=29$). All the 29 external respondents had relevant experience working in fields related to the agencies which ecosystems they belonged to through direct interaction.

Segment 1 of Table 6.2 shows that mostly leadership and senior management participated in the interviews comprising heads of the organisations and business owners ($n = 19 = 66\%$), directors and senior management ($n = 7 = 24\%$), and middle management ($n = 3 = 10\%$).

Segment 2 ($N=29$) shows that the external respondents were mostly well educated, with all respondents, except one, having at least a bachelor's degree. As illustrated,

one respondent had below tertiary education ($n = 1 = 3\%$) BSc and BA holders ($n = 24 = 83\%$), Masters holders ($n = 2 = 7\%$), and PhD holders ($n = 2 = 7\%$).

Table 6.2: External Stakeholders Demographics

AGENCY	SEGMENT 1- EMPLOYMENT LEVEL			SEGMENT 2- EDUCATION LEVEL				SEGMENT 3- PROFESSIONAL BACKGROUND					SEGMENT 4- PUBLIC/PRIVATE SECTOR EXPERIENCE	
	Agency head/Company MD/Firm Partner	Director/Senior Mgmt	Asst Director and Middle Mgmt	Below Tertiary education	BSc/BA	MSc/MBA	PhD	Legal/Policy	Finance/Accounting/Tax	Engineering/Technical/Technologist	Medicine	Admin/Marketing/Industry	Public	Private
A	2	3	0	0	4	0	1	0	0	3	2	0	4	1
B	2	1	2	0	3	1	1	3	0	1	0	1	0	5
C	5	1	0	0	6	0	0	4	1	1	0	0	0	6
D	7	0	0	1	5	1	0	1	1	1	1	3	0	7
E	3	2	1	0	6	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	6
Total	19	7	3	1	24	2	2	8	8	6	3	3	4	25
Total per segment	29			29				28					29	

Segment 3 shows that the educated respondents ($N=28$) all belonged to different professional fields and that they had or were currently working in professional roles such as legal and policy ($n = 8 = 29\%$), Finance, Accounting and Tax ($n = 8 = 29\%$), Engineering and Technology ($n = 6 = 21\%$), Medicine ($n = 3 = 11\%$), and Administration and Marketing ($n = 3 = 11\%$). Finally, Segment 4 illustrates that most of the interview participants have only private sector experience ($n = 25 = 86\%$). The majority of Agency A's ecosystem participant that work directly with the agency are government ministries and agencies.

6.4 ANALYSING THE DEMOGRAPHICS OF RESPONDENTS

Following the presentation of the demographics of the internal and external respondents in sections 6.2 and 6.3 respectively, this section analyses the respondents' background. The questions on the respondents' demography sets the context for the research and provides the basis for assessing the credibility and validity of the responses given by the participants (Beamer, 2002; Patton, 2015). The 60 interview sessions comprised internal and external respondents that have high academic and professional qualifications. Although the academic qualifications were not prerequisites for the selection of participants of this study, it turned out that both sets of respondents hold a minimum of a bachelor's degree and a significant portion have advanced degrees (master's or PhD). This demonstrates a high level of expertise and specialisation among the interview participants, thereby providing the research

with a good comfort level regarding its reliance on their knowledgeability about the activities of the various agencies (Hochschild, 2009; Yin, 2009; Simon, 2011; Creswell, 2014). The respondents, within each agency's ecosystem, also all come from diverse professional backgrounds which allows for different perspectives in their responses.

The internal respondents occupied leadership, management and middle management positions ranging from tenures of 4 to 34 years which may be an indication of the stability and continuity of the workforce of these agencies. The longer tenures within the organisations could also imply a certain level of institutional knowledge and experience within the agencies, which may play significant roles in the area of the organisations' capacity (Ng and Feldman, 2013). Some scholars argue that long tenure enables productivity in organisations that have jobs with high routines and low job complexity (Gagliardi, Grinza and Rycx, 2023). Gagliardi et al (2023) further argue that tenure is more relevant to industrial firms that are capital-intensive, low ICT and knowledge centric. Conversely, in knowledge-intensive environments and jobs, if employees remain on the same job for long periods, they are likely to become more uninterested and less motivated at work (Ng and Feldman, 2013; Gagliardi, Grinza and Rycx, 2023). Nevertheless, the internal respondents in this study have had career progressions, promotions, and job changes within their respective agencies, with some reaching director-level positions, thereby indicating that these institutions may have merit-based promotion systems. The different elements of the institutions' human resources management (recruitment, performance assessment, and remuneration) are discussed in more details in section 8.3.1 of Chapter 8.

When it comes to sector experiences, the internal respondents have a wide range, with 65% of them having private sector experience and 35% having only public sector experience. The diverse sector experience could be considered as enabling different skills and industry experience in the various agencies. The recruitment strategies of these agencies are reviewed in section 8.3.1.1.

The external respondents also come from diverse professional backgrounds, covering a range of fields relevant to the agencies they are associated with. Their understanding of the agencies' activities, combined with their independence – such as not being on

the agencies' payroll – gives room for them to offer valuable contextual insights while maintaining objectivity and the ability to provide critical commentary. It is also important to note that only demographic datapoints related to this study were considered. Variables like gender distribution, ethnicity, or religion were not included in this analysis but may hold relevance in other research contexts.

6.5 SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to present and analyse the demographic information of all the interview participants across the five agencies, with each agency comprising a total of 12 participants, as a precursor to the main study using the ROAR framework. The chapter highlighted the background of the 31 internal and 29 external respondents, assessing their qualifications and designations within their respective agencies to provide context and assurance regarding their expertise, specialisation, and knowledge of the agencies' activities. Finally, it was established that the respondents' demographic profiles provided the contextual foundation for the research and formed the basis for assessing the credibility and validity of their responses.

CHAPTER 7: PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INSIGHTS ON ROUTES – THE ROLE OF PUBLIC ORGANISATIONS IN SOLVING SOCIETAL PROBLEMS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and analyses responses on the 'Routes' component of the ROAR framework to answer the first sub-research question: *What roles do public organisations play in solving societal problems?* Understanding the role played by these agencies in setting directions such as in defining clear objectives, setting priorities, and creating strategies reveals the roadmap that guides policy choices and other coordinated activities that enable the solving of societal problems. Assessing this is, therefore, critical for studying dynamic capabilities found within these organisations. For each corresponding interview question under this sub-research question, actual quotations from a couple of respondents are first highlighted to provide the reader with a sense of what was said during the interviews – the internal respondents have codes ending with 'I', while external interviewees codes end with 'E'. Afterwards, all the responses are summarised based on the most frequently occurring keywords and themes presented in sub-sections 7.2.1, 7.3.1, and 7.4.1 respectfully. Subsequently, analyses are done in sub-sections 7.2.2, 7.3.2, and 7.4.2 and then the findings in relation to the first research question are discussed in section 7.5 before the chapter summary in section 7.6.

As discussed in chapters 4 and 5, for the purpose of this study, 'Routes' is explored through the first sub-research question by asking respondents interview questions on their agencies' purpose, objectives, and strategies. Purpose is defined as the overarching reason for existence of the agencies, objectives, refers to the specific, measurable activities that an agency seeks to achieve to fulfil its purpose, while strategies outline the position an organisation takes in its operating environment. Answers to these three factors provides the directional context relating to the capabilities found within these agencies (Kattel and Mazzucato, 2018).

7.2 PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INTERVIEW RESPONSES ON ROUTES – PURPOSE

7.2.1 Presentation of Interview Responses on the Purpose of the Agencies

When asked about the societal challenges responsible for the setting up of their agencies, participants CR8-I's and DR5-E's verbatim responses relating to the NCC and BOI respectively, are as follows:

Respondent CR8-I notes this about NCC's purpose: "We'll, uhm let me start first of all with the fact that uhm all the while up until 1999 maybe up until 1992 but more so from 1999, telephone was actually viewed as something that belong to government and the super-rich and all those years it was only government houses that had...government offices and houses had telephones, and a very few people."

Referring to BOI's purpose, respondent DR1-I also notes that: "The gap mainly being lack of suitable funding for the manufacturing sector as well as business advisory services because the bank does not only provide money, the bank also supports the entrepreneurs by helping to build their capacity, by helping to strengthen them right, because you can't just throw them away because they don't meet their requirements, no, you support them."

The most recurring keywords and phrases extracted from responses given by all the internal and external respondents on the societal challenges the agencies were set up to solve have been highlighted in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Summarised Responses on the Purpose of the Agencies

AGENCY	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
LSMEPB	1. Revenue generation (low state internally generated revenue (IGR)) (3) 2. Planning requirement and needs assessment and prioritising (3) 3. Poor infrastructure/Infrastructure deficit (3) 4. Economic development goal congruence (of ministries) – Resource allocation and development (3)	1. Lack of planning prior to it being set up in 1999 and to fix planning and budgeting challenge (3)

AGENCY	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
	5. Infrastructure gap (3)	
NITDA	1. Solve digital skill challenge/close digital gap (5) 2. Employment creation (3) 3. Improvement of IT penetration (2)	1. Need to improve development of digital services and thought leadership in the ICT sector (5) 2. Need for Nigeria to benefit from the digital revolution (4) 3. Need to enable digital service delivery (2)
NCC	1. High population problem and low tele density and poor communication infrastructure (6) 2. Inaccessibility, unavailability, and unaffordability of telephones (6) 3. Poor regulatory processes (2)	1. Universal access problem (5) 2. Poor communication (3) 3. Unstable and poor Market policy and regulation (2) 4. To attract more investment, and Nigeria considered unsafe to invest (2)
BOI	1. Unemployment (3) 2. Bad loans and inadequate vetting of loan takers (3) 3. Lack of adequate funding (2) 4. Hostile environment to grow industries, poor development of the economy (2) 5. Multi-dimensional poverty index (2)	1. To enable the creation of opportunities for employment (5) 2. To provide financial support for entrepreneurs in manufacturing and other industries set up businesses and factories to bridge gap of industrialisation (5)
FIRS	1. Poor tax education and awareness (5) 2. Low tax collection (3)	1. To maximise or collect tax revenue for government and to increase tax to GDP rate (5) 2. To provide funding to government for expenditure (2)

To provide context to Table 7.1, refer to the first row where LSMEPB's internal respondents identified low internally generated revenue (IGR), the need for planning and allocation of resources, and the need to close infrastructure gaps as the main challenges to be solved by the agency. Whilst the external respondents identified lack of planning prior to 1999 as being a key problem that existed in the state which had to be solved by the LSMEPB. On the third row of Table 7.1, the NCC's internal respondents stated overwhelmingly that the high population and low tele-density problems, plus the inaccessibility and unavailability of telecommunication were the major challenges that needed to be solved by the agency. They also mentioned poor regulatory processes that existed. Similarly, the agency's external respondents mentioned universal access challenge, poor communication, and need to attract investment into Nigeria as the key problems leading to its being set up. The fifth row shows that FIRS' internal respondents identified poor tax awareness and education

as challenges that needed solving. Both sets of respondents identified low tax collection, whilst the external respondents went further to mention the need to increase the tax to GDP rate and to provide funding for government expenditure. Other responses regarding the purposes of the agencies are noted in Table 7.1 above.

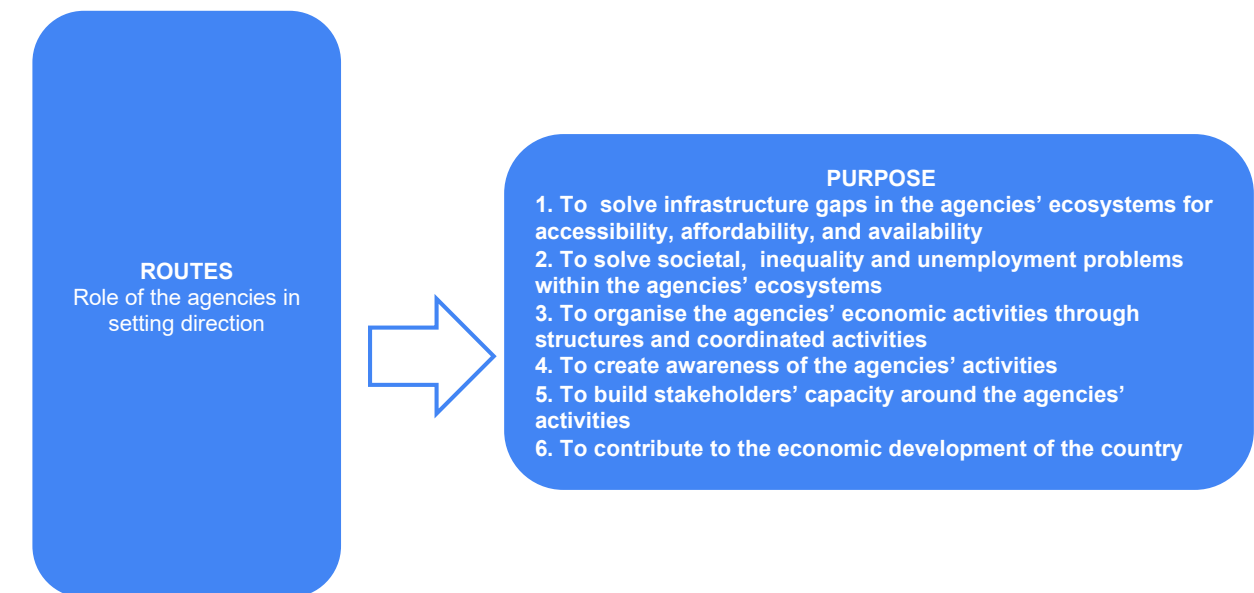
7.2.2 Analysis of Interview Responses on Purpose of the Agencies

In line with Mazzucato's (2018a, 2021) call for a challenge-led approach to solving societal problems, the respondents were asked to identify the societal challenges and gaps that represent the agencies' purposes. In assessing the responses, an online review was conducted to extract the mission and vision statements from the various agencies websites to compare them with the interviewees' answers. The vision and mission statements are represented in the second and third columns of Tables 5b, 5d and 5f respectively in chapter 5.

A cursory look at the agencies' mission and vision statements reveals that their framings are based on the organisations' intended results as their *raison d'être* (Springett, 2002) and not on the relevant societal problems they are meant to solve per Mazzucato's (2018a, 2021) challenge-led approach for mission setting. For instance, the LSMEPB's mission statement illustrated in Table 5.6, states "ensuring continuous and dynamic socio-economic policies through prudent and equitable resource management in Lagos state," without referring to any societal problem that the agency will solve for the state.

However, analysing keywords of the agencies' vision and mission statements allowed for the extraction of recurring areas of focus that align the intended outcomes with the challenges reported by the respondents from the interview. The responses also reveal that the agencies' activities are vital in ensuring socio-economic transformation of the society and sustainable development of the country. Figure 7.1 shows the summarised responses by all respondents regarding the core focus and essence of the agencies from the perspective of both internal and external respondents.

Figure 7.1: ROAR FRAMEWORK- LINKING THE RESPONSES TO ROUTES' PURPOSE



Source: Developed and Compiled by author

The summarised purposes in Figure 7.1 represents all the agencies' *raison d'être* which were linked to the identified gaps within the purview highlighted in Table 7.1. In a nutshell, the agencies' purposes are geared towards mitigating challenges around the accessibility, affordability, and availability of different infrastructure being managed by the various agencies in the country. At least 50% of all the five agencies' respondents mentioned infrastructure gaps and linked these gaps to the need for development – particularly economic development of the country. In some cases, certain core purposes can be identified within their mission and vision statements; others, whilst important, were omitted. For example, the first identified challenge which is to tackle the challenge of infrastructure gap is evident within NCC's vision statement which seeks to ensure "universal access to affordable and equitable service."

Furthermore, at least two respondents from each of the agencies identified the need for the right environment to be created to enable commercial activities and investments in the country as the purpose of their institutions. The need for effective regulatory functions to regulate their ecosystem and to ensure compliance by industry participants were also identified by respondents from four of the agencies as their

purposes. However, challenges such as lack of awareness of agencies' activities as well as the need to build capacities of agencies' stakeholders, whilst generally categorised as core purposes for the agency's existence are not visible across their publicised mission and vision statements. One reason for this could be that the agencies do not consider them officially as being part of their missions, though they have been mentioned by stakeholders.

7.3 PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INTERVIEW RESPONSES ON ROUTES – OBJECTIVES

7.3.1 Presentation of Interview Responses on the Objectives of the Agencies

When the internal participants were asked about the various agencies' objectives, verbatim responses from AR4-I and BR3-I relating to LSMEPB and NITDA respectively, were as follows:

Referring to LSMEPB's objectives, respondent AR4-I notes that: "The Ministry was set up to ensure effective and efficient resource allocation, resource generation, resource re-allocation, and resource management for the State. That is actually the core reason why the Ministry was set up, and that could actually have been from our movement away from the normal harmonised, incremental budgeting to what we practice today, which is program-based budgeting."

Respondent BR3-I also notes about NITDA's objectives: "So, I think, from the sort of foundational documents, what is clear was that there was a need to initiate a plan for the digitalisation of Nigeria's government and society."

Table 7.2 contains the most frequently occurring keywords and phrases extracted from responses given by all the internal respondents on the agencies' objectives.

Table 7.2: Summarised Responses on the Objectives of the Agencies

AGENCY	INTERNAL
LSMEPB	1. For gatekeeping government policies for project prioritisation, and act as think tank for the state (5) 2. To enable economic development of the state as Lagos is central economy in Nigeria (3) 3. To monitor state initiatives for reporting budget and project performance to excos (3) 4. To liaise with development partners, to aid and coordinate planning and overseeing responsibility of alignment of MDAs with state development plan (3) 5. To enable long range strategies and for resource mobilisation, allocation, and management (3)
NITDA	1. To regulate and set standards of the use of IT (7) 2. To plan national digitalisation and drive Nigeria to the digital space and to enable other sectors for a digital economy (5) 3. To establish Nigeria as IT savvy and for capacity building and skill acquisition & training in emerging technologies (4) 4. To implement national ICT Policy and ensure compliance in the ICT ecosystem (3) 5. To enable the increase in digital production and development of IT services and inclusiveness (3)
NCC	1. To have independent regulatory agency that sets standards and monitors compliance (6) 2. To issue licenses (3), To fast track the growth of telecoms infrastructure as a backbone for national development (3) 3. To attract foreign investments and liberalise telecoms market (3) 4. To ensure the accessibility, availability, affordability of telecoms service (3)
BOI	1. To provide financial support to industries (manufacturing by providing financial support to micro-small- medium enterprises, and as well as large corporates (5) 2. To enable the industrialisation of the Nigerian economy (3)
FIRS	1. To collect revenue centrally for government and account for them (6) 2. To remit tax to the government for the development of the economy (3)

To provide context to Table 7.2, refer to the second row where NITDA's internal respondents stated that its objectives are to regulate and set standards of the use of IT, to enable national digitisation through planning of the digital space and the building of capacity of citizens. In the case of BOI, in the fourth row, the internal respondents stated that the BOI was set up to provide entrepreneurs with financial support to enable the industrialisation of the Nigerian economy. Whilst FIRS' internal respondents identified the two main objectives as the collection of tax, and remittance of revenue to government for the development of the economy. Other responses regarding the objectives of the agencies are noted in Table 7.2 above.

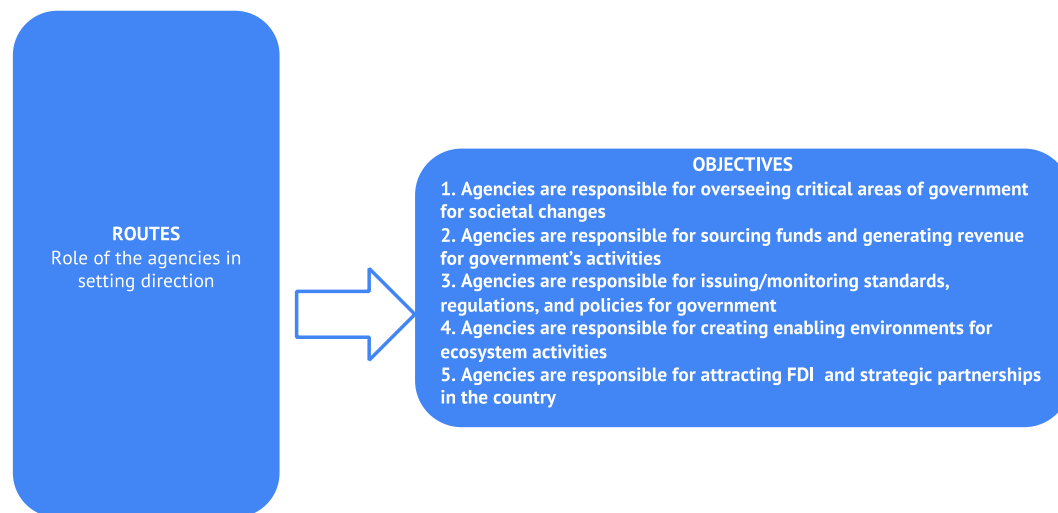
7.3.2 Analysis of Interview Responses on the Objectives of the Agencies

In assessing the responses provided on the objectives, the areas of responsibilities which were extracted from the agencies' websites and captured on the fourth column of Tables 5.2, 5.4, and 5.6, were used for comparison. Although there were differences in the published core areas of responsibilities under each of the agencies' websites from the provided responses by the study participants, there were no objectives omitted by the respondents. Instead, the responses provided by the study participants exceeded the information found on the websites. This means that the internal respondents had detailed understanding of the objectives and the roles of their respective agencies.

In line with Mintzberg's (1983) emphasis on setting clear targets, the alignment between the internal respondents' responses and the published agencies' objectives confirms clarity of objectives. However, it is difficult to assess the extent with which these objectives are passed down the hierarchy as lower-level staff were not part of the research.

Figure 7.2 below illustrates the summarised responses on the objectives for all the agencies. To start off with, the respondents indicated that their agencies were responsible for overseeing critical areas of the economy and society for the government such as budget control, technology development, employment creation, innovation, and compliance with regulations and policies.

Figure 7.2: ROAR FRAMEWORK- LINKING THE RESPONSES TO ROUTES' OBJECTIVES



Source: Developed and Compiled by author

Objective 3 is about the fact that these agencies play key strategic roles for the government by issuing standards, policies, and regulations for their ecosystems to create enabling environments for stakeholders to engage in their activities. Lastly, the respondents mentioned the fact that these agencies play significant roles in attracting foreign investments both directly and indirectly. This happens directly through investments and strategic partnerships, and indirectly, through enabling policies and environments.

7.4 PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INTERVIEW RESPONSES ON ROUTES – STRATEGIES

7.4.1 Presentation of Responses on the Strategies of the Agencies

While internal respondents were asked about the core strategic focus areas of their respective agencies over the years, the external ones were asked to assess how strategic the respective agencies were in the way they operated. The responses of two respondents – internal CR7-I and external AR9-E regarding the strategies employed by the NCC and LSMEPB respectively have been transcribed verbatim below.

Referring to NCC's strategies, respondent CR7-I notes: "Okay so, typically NCC, every five years or so, we have the strategic management plan, the current one would expire in 2024. And it normally states what the strategic objectives of the organization is. Currently I think, seven plus or so, which currently drives our activities, I can't remember, but in terms of building infrastructure, in terms of ensuring that we are having partnerships with other regulators, and in other government agencies, all of that."

Respondent AR9-E also notes this about LSMEPB: "Very, very strategic. You know, remember I explained earlier that the position of the ministry is like a hub and the spoke. Visualizing a bicycle tire, you see where the hub is in the centre and the spokes are connected from the nail to the centre, to the hub. So, what this simply means is the ministry is a strategic hub that controls the budget and the planning of the execution of the programs as well as fund provision, either internal funds or external funding."

Table 7.3 below highlights the most recurring keywords and phrases extracted from responses given by all the internal and external respondents on the strategic focus areas of the agencies.

Table 7.3: Summarised Responses on Agencies' Strategies

AGENCY	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
LSMEPB	1. Policy formulation and strategy, budgeting and planning, documentation of plans, program-based budget, medium- and long-term planning (4) 2. Mandate mapping and prioritisation of state needs, resource allocation, infrastructure development (3)	1. Helicopter view of the state's economy and is the state strategic hub (3) 2. In charge of strategic planning and budgeting (3) 3. Ensure MDAs align with the state's mission and coordination of state's activities (3)
NITDA	1. Standardisation, regulation and development & regulation of IT (6) 2. Provision of government web platforms, training and skills acquisition and learning academy and centres across the country (4) 3. Digital innovation support for emerging technologies, digital infrastructure provision and creation of two special purpose vehicles: National Artificial Intelligence and Robotic Centre and Digital Innovation Centre (3)	1. Provision of an overarching policy framework and overarching strategic think tank in its understanding of the ecosystem and industry partners and in areas such as cloud policy and artificial intelligence policy (4) 2. Regulatory role to develop the digital economy (3)

AGENCY	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
	4. Strategic roadmap (STRAP) – National Digital Economic Policy and Strategy with 7 strategic pillars – Developmental Regulations, Digital Literacy and Skills, Digital Innovation and Entrepreneurship, Promotion of Indigenous Content, Digital Transformation, Cybersecurity, Emerging Technologies (3)	
NCC	1. Technology neutrality to ensure availability, accessibility, and affordability of quality telecommunication services (4) 2. Strategic management plan, that enables building of Infrastructure through partnership with other regulators and stakeholders to develop the market (4) 3. Growth of the Industry, enable free exit and entry for operations, attracting investment opportunities, and creating a level playing field for investors (3) 4. Telecom Consumer Parliament and Town Hall meetings and creation of Consumer Affairs Department to create an avenue for consumer feedback (3)	1. Strategic planning sessions and engagement sessions held with ecosystem to balance implementing government policy with industry (4) 2. Drive growth by meeting operators' and customers' needs and by implementing proactive practices such as launching of 5G (3)
BOI	1. Focus on manufacturing and industrialisation to enable local production and import substitution (4) 2. Restructure the institution's efficiency of operation to enable its return to profitability, and recruitment of quality people and improved pay scale (4) 3. Provide loans and funding support to service large, medium, and small enterprises to enable job creation and align with Nigeria's development plan (3) 4. Focus on Agriculture and solid minerals (3)	1. Innovative in addressing development issues, and is a major player in driving development in Nigeria by offering cheap loans (3) 2. Partnerships with state governments, credit-rating agencies and working with international banks and other partners to implement projects that impact the grass-root (3)1.
FIRS	1. Creating awareness on tax collection and educating the public on new tax laws to increase income tax collection (6) 2. Focus on modernising, digitising, and reforming the tax system (3) 3. Training and capacity building of the ecosystem and staff for improvement of agency (3)	1. Focus on technological development to enable the improvement in tax collection process (3) 2. Shift from just collecting taxes to strategic engagement with stakeholders to ensure that the agency is providing services that will help taxpayers to voluntarily comply with the tax laws (3)

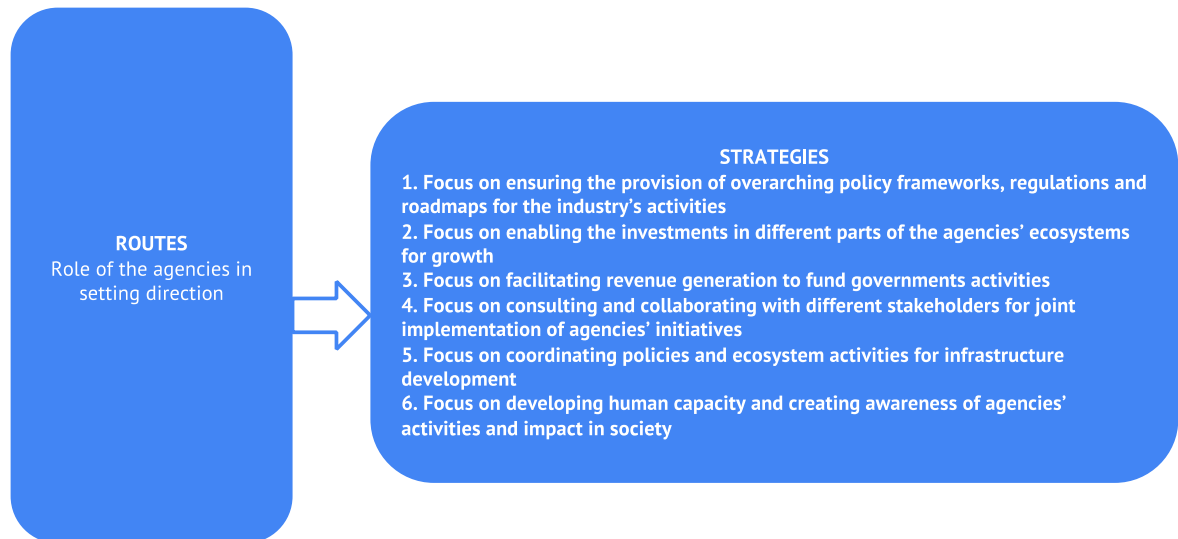
To provide context to Table 7.3, refer to the first row where the most recurring strategic areas of focus as noted by the LSMEPB's internal respondents were revealed as its role in policy formulation and strategy, budgeting, planning, and efficient prioritisation of needs. Also, the external respondents rated the agency as being extremely strategic. The most recurring response amongst external respondents was on the agency's ability to oversee various aspects of Lagos state's economy while also providing strategic direction for the state and ensuring the MDAs plans align with the states. For NITDA, the most recurring strategic areas of focus, per the internal respondents, were revealed as the agency's role in providing regulation and standardisation for the industry. NITDA's external respondents mostly stated that whilst the agency was somewhat strategic, it had some room for improvement. According to the external respondents, most recurring response amongst was on the agency's role in providing overarching policy framework and regulation for the ecosystem.

For NCC, the most recurring strategic areas of focus as provided by NCC's internal respondents were revealed as the agency's role in ensuring availability, accessibility, and affordability of quality telecom service. Most of the external respondents stated that there was room for improvement in terms of strategic ability of the agency, whilst one respondent declared that they thought that the agency was more tactical than strategic and needs to move beyond being a licensing agency. Nevertheless, the most popular response by the external respondents was that the agency held strategic planning and engagement sessions with the ecosystem. Other responses regarding the strategies of the agencies are noted in Table 7.3 above.

7.4.2 Analysis of Interview Responses on the Strategies of the Agencies

Figure 7.3 below illustrates the overall summarised information for all the agencies. Respondents' answers revealed that all the agencies have strategies that can be summarised under six main headings for their various ecosystems. Per Mintzberg (1983) strategies are used to effectively define the position of organisations within their operating environments. This is evident in the responses analysed herein.

Figure 7.3: ROAR FRAMEWORK- Linking the Responses to Routes' Strategies



Source: Developed and Compiled by author

A clear way to show how strategy is used to respond to their environment is the use of ecosystem meetings, town hall forums, and strategic planning sessions by some of the agencies. This is evident in the case of NCC (see Table 7.3), where internal respondents highlighted periodic initiatives such as the *Telecom Consumer Parliament*, town hall meetings, and the establishment of the *Consumer Affairs Department* as mechanisms for gathering consumer feedback. Meanwhile, external respondents referred to the agency's *Strategic Planning and Engagement Sessions* with stakeholders across the ecosystem, aimed at balancing the implementation of government policy with industry needs.

7.5 FINDINGS IN RELATION TO THE FIRST SUB-RESEARCH QUESTION – ROUTES

In examining the role public organisations play in solving societal problems, the analysis of the interview responses on the agencies' purpose, objectives and strategies, reveal the significant roles played by the agencies in solving societal problems relating to their ecosystems. These agencies' purposes are clearly understood by their stakeholders; their objectives are aligned to the areas they want

their stakeholders to focus on; and their strategies map out the directions that enable solving of relevant societal problems.

In summary, the aligned responses from both internal and external interview respondents reveal that the interviewees are aware of the agencies' roles in solving societal challenges and influencing societal outcomes per Krasner et al's (1984) argument specifically around the autonomous state actor who oversees decision making regarding the country's policy. The analysis of the responses reveals that to solve societal problems, the agencies act in entrepreneurial capacities by performing market-shaping roles such as setting directions, aiding investments, and facilitating stakeholder and sectoral collaborations for their ecosystems (Mazzucato, 2013). Their responses also support the theorised market-shaping perspective as the government agencies assess national or sub-national limitations such as the limited infrastructure, population challenges, unemployment, and limited innovation in their focus areas. For instance, NCC organises Telecom Consumer Parliament, Town Hall meetings, and also set up the Consumer Affairs Department to create an avenue for consumer feedback and facilitate collaboration across the sector. Also, NITDA holds strategic roadmap (STRAP) sessions for the National Digital Economic Policy and Strategy that is anchored on 7 strategic pillars – Developmental Regulations, Digital Literacy and Skills, Digital Innovation and Entrepreneurship, Promotion of Indigenous Content, Digital Transformation, Cybersecurity, and Emerging Technologies. These pillars provide the industry with directions to steer their individual businesses and activities.

Analysis of the findings also reveals that they additionally take on market-fixing roles by setting guidelines and regulations for their ecosystems to address certain gaps as policy implementing arms of governments – not necessarily based on perceived failures of the government as suggested by Friedman (1970) and Buchanan et al (1980). For instance, the NCC sets guidelines for the implementation of tariffs by the telecommunication operators and the FIRS provides tax rates for corporation tax.

Finally, the agencies strategically coordinate activities of their ecosystems to oversee the solving of relevant societal problems as well as to collaborate with their stakeholders in co-creating solutions that benefit the society. For instance, BOI

partners with state governments, credit-rating agencies, international banks, and others to implement projects that impact the grass-root.

7.6 SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to present and analyse the findings from the interview sessions carried out to address the first sub-research question under 'Routes' of the ROAR framework: *What roles do public organisations play in solving societal problems?* This was done by examining interview questions relating to the various agencies' purpose, objectives and strategies. Here, the problems that led to the creation of the agencies or tied to the purpose of the agencies were identified. While each agency had its unique challenges or purposes, specific areas of alignment across all agencies were identified. The objectives and the strategies employed were also identified based on responses from the respondents. Across each section covering purposes, objectives, and strategies, a few verbatim responses were first presented to provide context into how keyword groupings were made. These were then analysed through content analysis of the agencies' websites – specifically their missions, visions, and core areas of responsibilities as presented in chapter 5 – to assess areas of convergence or divergence.

Additionally, the most recurring responses across all agencies were isolated to serve as the capabilities identified. Specifically, in terms of the strategies, six main areas were identified including the provision of overarching policy frameworks, enabling the investments, facilitating revenue generation, consulting, and collaborating with different stakeholders, coordinating policies for infrastructure development, developing human capacity, and creating awareness of agencies' activities.

Finally, the findings in relationship with the first sub-research question reveal that the agencies play both market-shaping and market-fixing roles in solving their relevant societal problems and that the agencies work collaboratively with stakeholders to implement solutions that benefit the country.

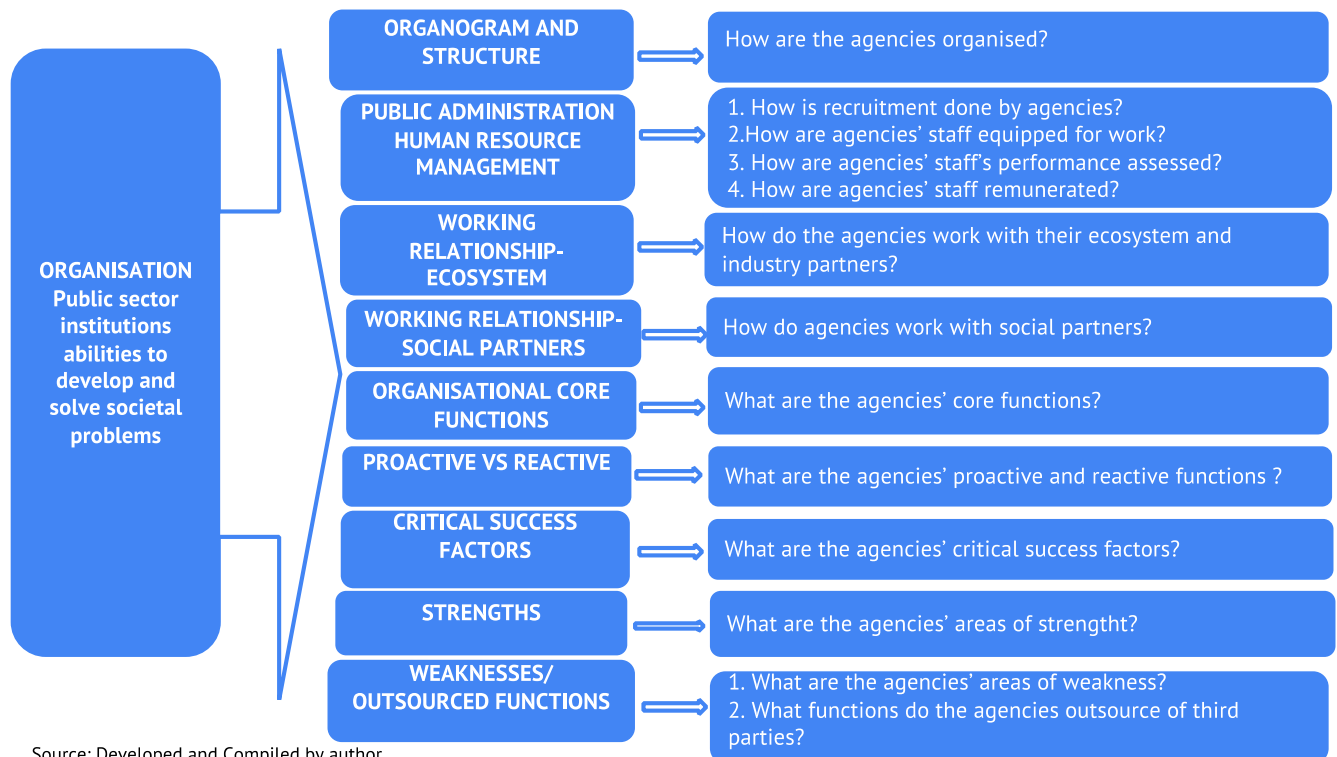
CHAPTER 8: PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INSIGHTS ON ORGANISATIONS – FACTORS THAT ENABLE PUBLIC ORGANISATIONS TO SOLVE SOCIETAL PROBLEMS FOR CITIZENS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and analyses responses on the ‘Organisations’ part of the ROAR framework to answer the second sub-research question: *How do these public organisations build, deploy and sustain the relevant dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems for citizens?* This question examines the internal characteristics of the public agencies that contribute to the building, deploying and sustaining of dynamic capabilities.

Just as in Chapter 7, for each corresponding interview question under this sub-research question, actual quotations from a couple of respondents are first highlighted to provide the reader with a sense of what was said during the interviews in the beginning of sections 8.2 to 8.10. As previously discussed in chapter 4, for the purpose of this study, ‘Organisations’ is explored through the second sub-research question by investigating, and asking respondents interview questions on nine factors about the agencies summarised in the middle column of Figure 8.1 below: organogram and structure, public administration human resource management, working relationship with ecosystem, working relationship with social partners, organisational core functions, proactive vs reactive work, critical success factors, strengths, weaknesses, and outsourced roles.

Figure 8.1: ROAR FRAMEWORK – LINKING THE RESPONSES TO ORGANISATIONS



The corresponding interview questions under each 'Organisations' factor considered are highlighted on the third column of Figure 8.1 and presented and analysed in the following sections in sub-sections 8.2.1, 8.3.1, 8.4.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.9.1, and 8.10.1. Subsequently, analysis is done in section in sub-sections 8.2.2, 8.3.2, 8.4.2, 8.5.2, 8.6.2, 8.7.2, 8.8.2, 8.9.2, and 8.10.2 and then the findings in relation to the second research question are discussed in section 8.11 before the chapter summary in section 8.12.

8.2 PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INTERVIEW RESPONSES ON ORGANISATIONS - STRUCTURE

8.2.1 Presentation of Interview Responses on the Structure of the Agencies

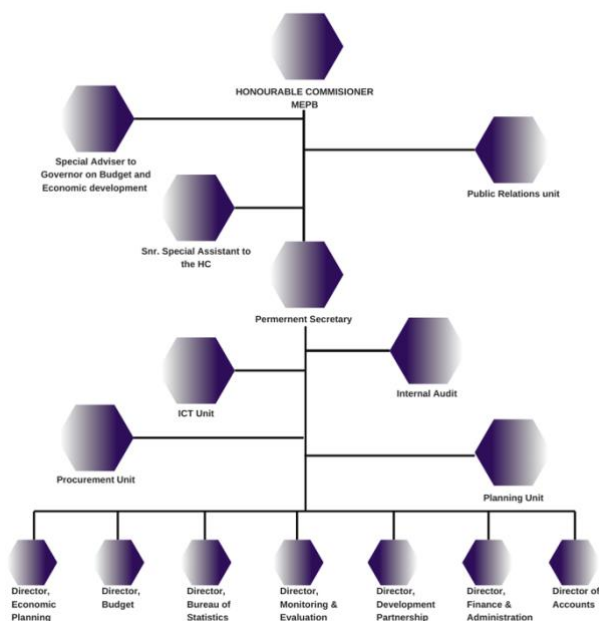
Whilst all agencies' internal respondents were asked to describe the structure of their organisations, organograms for four of the five agencies were obtained through a review of online documents and websites. The organogram for the remaining agency was developed based on input from a director and a review of the latest annual report. This section on structure is important because it provides the foundation and context

for the assessment of the nature, administrative systems, and activities of all the organisations being studied.

The Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning and Budget (LSMEPB)

Figure 8.2 below reveals that LSMEPB is headed by the Honourable Commissioner, who is a political appointee that reports to the Lagos State Governor. The commissioner is supported by two advisers who are also political appointees. The Permanent Secretary (PS), who is a career civil servant and the highest-ranking civil servant in this ministry reports directly to the commissioner in the ministry. The next reporting line are directors who all report to the PS. These details have been visually presented below.

Figure 8.2: The Organogram of the Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning and Budget



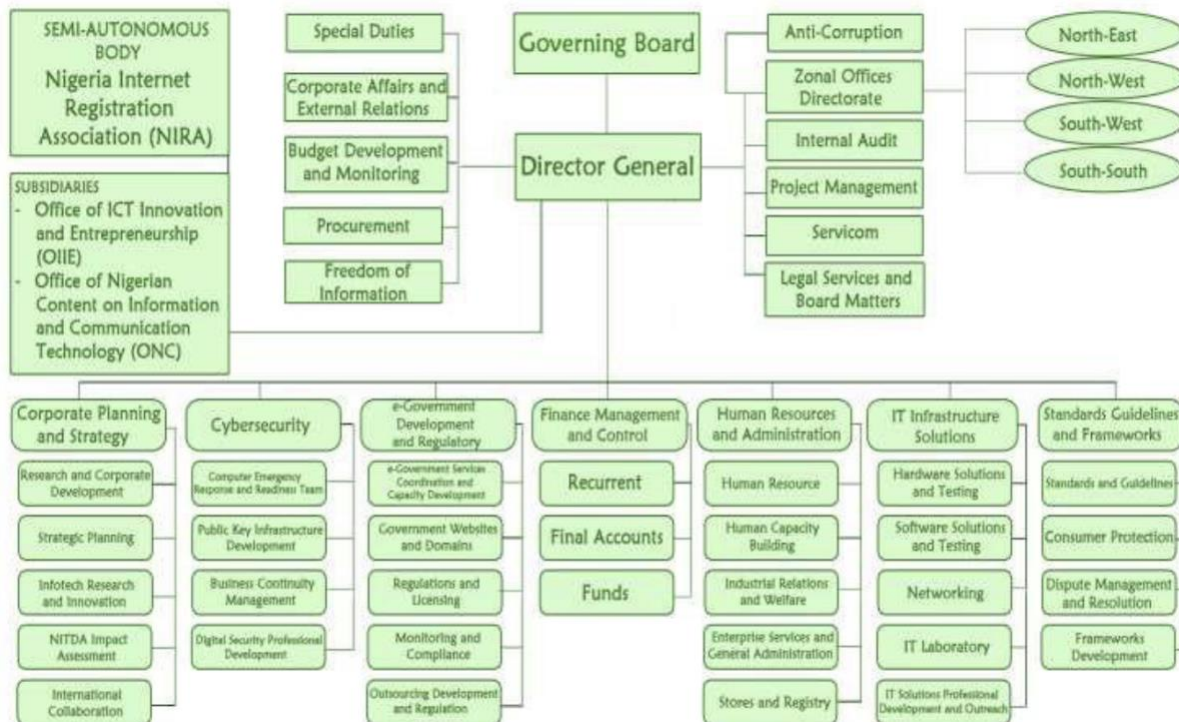
Source: lagosmepb.org

As can be seen in Figure 8.2 above, there are seven directors heading seven departments: Economic Planning, Budget, Accounts, Administration and Human Resources, Bureau of Statistics, Monitoring and Evaluation, and the Development Partnership Departments. There are also supporting units, headed by directors,: Internal Audit, ICT, Procurement and Planning.

National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA)

NITDA is headed by a Director General (DG) who reports to the governing board and the Minister of Communications, Information and Digital Economy. It has nine departments and eleven units as shown in Figure 8.3 below.

Figure 8.3: The Organogram of the National Information Technology Development Agency



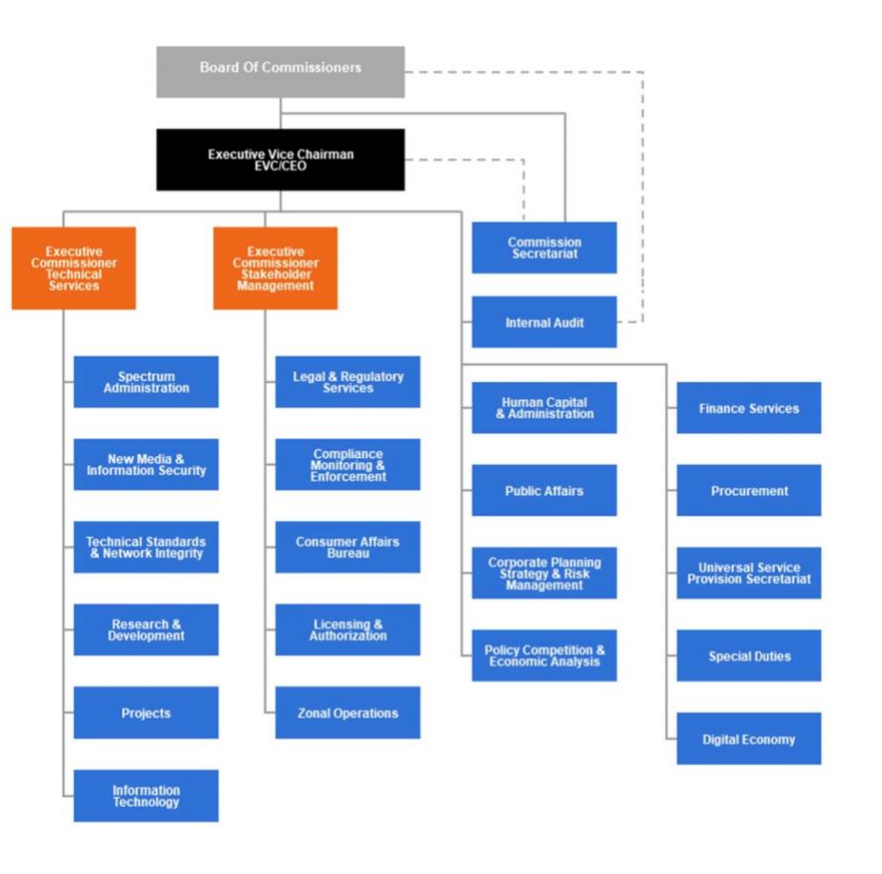
Source: NITDA.org.ng

Figure 8.3 above shows that the departments, all headed by directors are Human Resources and Administration, IT Infrastructure Solutions, Cyber Security, Standard Guidelines and Frameworks, Finance Management and Control, Corporate Planning and Strategy, e-Government Development and Regulation, the Digital Economy Development, Research and Development, and Digital Literacy & Capacity Development. The sub-units are depicted on the organogram as well as the semi-autonomous body – Nigeria Internet Registration Association (NIRA), and the two subsidiaries – Office of ICT Innovation and Entrepreneurship (OIIE) and Office of Nigerian Content on Information and Communication Technology (ONC).

The Nigerian Communications Commission (NCC)

The NCC is headed by the Executive Vice Chairman (EVC), who reports to the board of commissioners and the Minister of Communications, Information and Digital Economy as shown in Figure 8.4 below.

Figure 8.4: The Organogram of the Nigerian Communications Commission



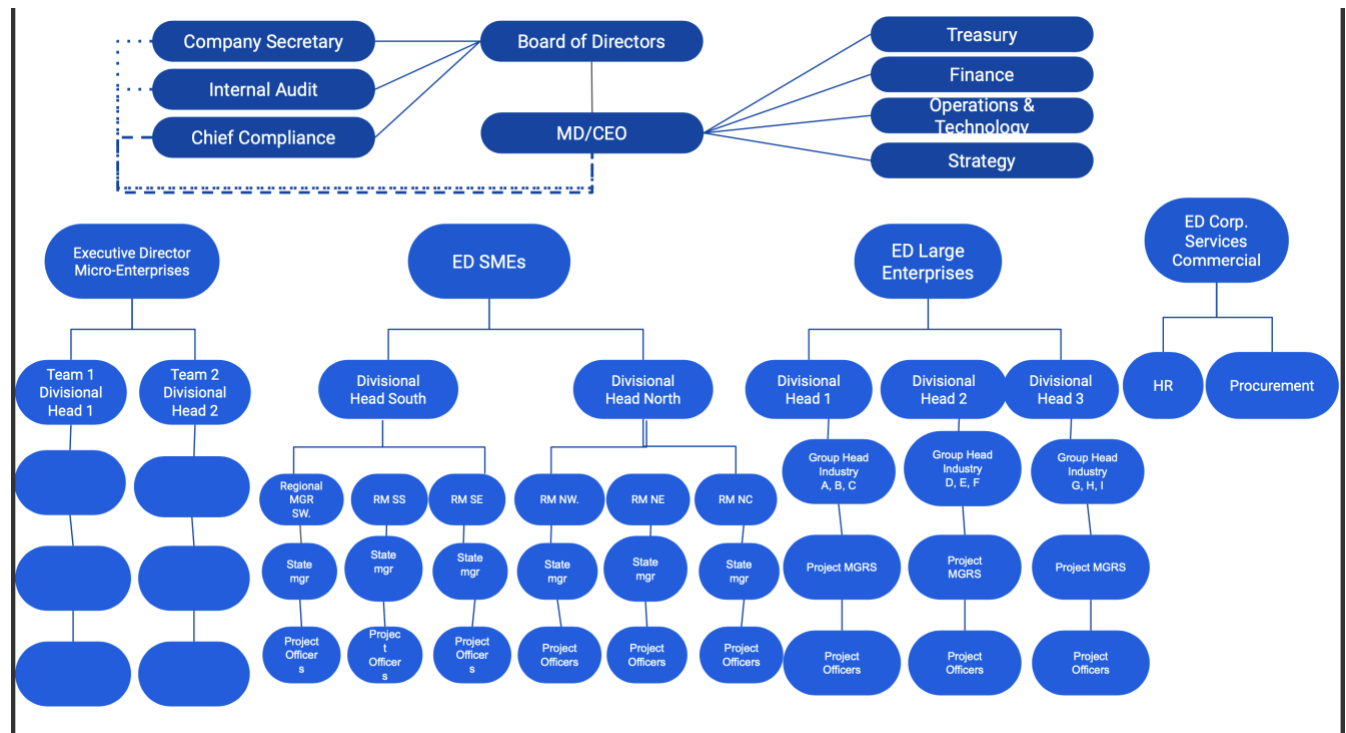
Source: ncc.gov.ng

The Executive Commissioners for Technical Services and Stakeholder Management report directly to the EVC, heading various sub-units covering key aspects of the organisation. Some of these sub-units include Spectrum Administration, New Media & Information Security, Research & Development, Legal & Regulatory Services, Compliance, Monitoring, & Enforcement, Zonal Operations, amongst others. Other departments that report directly to the EVC and Board of Commissioners include Finance Services, Procurement, amongst others.

The Bank of Industry (BOI)

The BOI is headed by the MD/CEO, who reports to the Board of Directors as shown in Figure 8.5 below. Down the reporting line are Executive Directors covering BOI's core functions all with their various lines of activities as detailed below.

Figure 8.5: The Organogram of the Bank of Industry



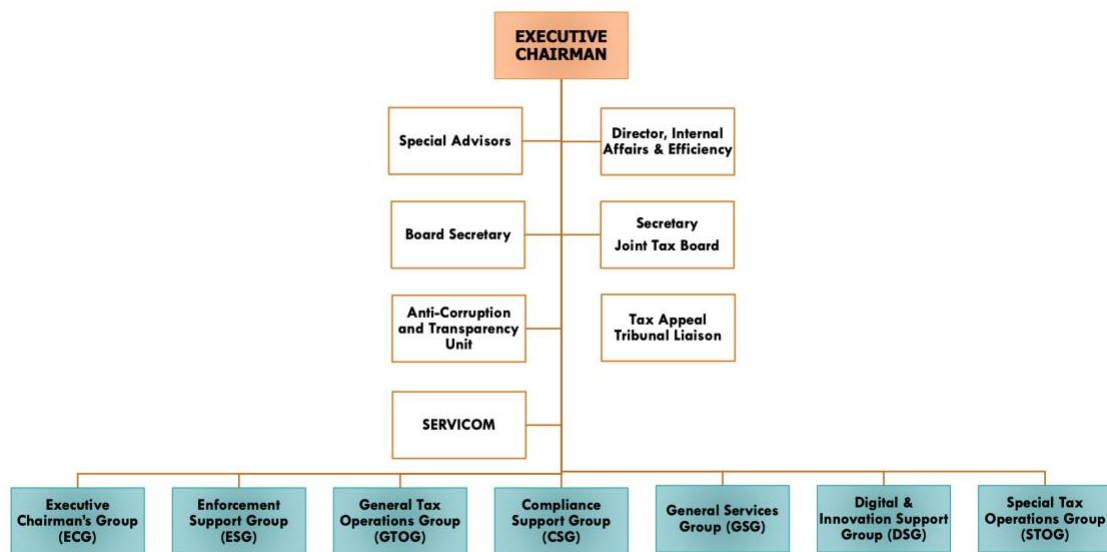
Source: Author in consultation with annual reports and a BOI director

The BOI's core functions are divided into Micro-Enterprise (ME), Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs), Large Enterprises (LE), Corporate Services and Commercial (CSC), which are all headed by Directors that report to the MD/CEO. These departments are further divided into sub-groups depending on the span of their activities being per region/state (SME department) or per industry (the LE department) or per team (the ME department) or per function – HR and Procurement (CSC department). In addition to these core functions there are the support departments that report to the Board with dotted reporting lines to the MD/CEO (Company Secretariat, Internal Audit and Compliance) and there are those who report directly to the MD/CEO (Treasury, Finance, Strategy and Operations and Technology).

Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS)

Figure 8.6 illustrates the structure of the FIRS. The Executive Chairman heads the FIRS Board, the Management Board and the Joint Tax Board, broken out to cover Special Advisors, Board Secretary, Anti-Corruption and Transparency Unit, SERVICOM, Director, Internal Affairs & Efficiency, Secretary Joint Tax Board, and Tax Appeal Tribunal Liaison, aptly visualised in Figure 8.6 below.

Figure 8.6: The Organogram of the Federal Inland Revenue Service



Source: firs.gov.ng

The next level below the Executive Chairman are different coordinating directors heading different groups. The first group is the Executive Chairman's Group (ECG) with directors from the following departments reporting – Planning, Research and Statistics, Chairman's office, Communication and liaison, and Procurement. The second group is Enforcement Support Group with directors heading the Tax Investigation, Risk Management, Legal Advisory and Litigation, and Debt Management and Enforcement. The remaining groups – General Tax Operations Group (GTOG), Compliance Support Group (CSG), General Service Group (GSG), Digital and Innovation Support Group (DSG), and Special Tax Operations Group (STOG) – and they all have different departments headed by directors as their direct reports.

8.2.2 Analysis of the Structure of the Agencies

All the five agencies are led by heads who play the roles of MD/CEO, overseeing their activities and ensuring effective pursuit of their missions and alignment with board mandates (Mintzberg, 1983). A detailed review of the five agencies' organograms shows that they all have a divisional structure per Mintzberg (1983) as discussed in section 4.3.2.1. This means that there are standardised outputs required from each level and the middle line serves as the main part of the structure. An assessment of each organisational structure shows that the organograms illustrate clearly defined spreads of departments and units, reflecting the decentralised nature of the agencies. Also, as mentioned by the internal respondents, despite the existence of different departments, there were several instances for cross-functional collaboration and learning.

8.3 PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INTERVIEW RESPONSES ON ORGANISATIONS - PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT (PAHRM)

The next set of interview questions under the second sub-research question addresses the human resource management of these agencies and were only put to the internal respondents because they have first-hand knowledge of the inner workings of their agencies. This section contains the responses provided by respondents on four components under the PAHRM: recruitment, equipping staff for work, performance assessment, and remuneration.

8.3.1 Presentation of Interview Responses on the PAHRM of the Agencies

8.3.1.1 Presenting interview responses on Recruitment

When the internal participants were asked about where and how their staff were mostly recruited, respondents AR1-I and BR3- I verbatim responses relating to LSMEPB and NITDA respectively, were as follows:

On LSMEPB's recruitment, respondent AR1-I notes: "It's centrally; you see the civil service commission is the only agency that has power to recruit for the public service

constitutionally. So, if we need anything we write for dispensation that we will need this number or, of this calibre, the criteria, we send it to the civil service commission, then they now place an advert online.”

Respondent BR3-I also notes that: “NITDA recruits on its own when it has vacancies, it needs to follow certain rules, broad public service rules for advertising, federal character, and all that type of stuff but it that has the free rein to declare vacancies, and types of vacancies if they so wish to.”

Table 8.1 below highlights the most recurring keywords and phrases extracted from the responses provided and their frequency by the internal respondents on the recruitment of staff in their agencies.

Table 8.1: Summarised Responses on Agencies’ Recruitment Policies

AGENCY	RECRUITMENT POLICY
LSMEPB	1. Civil service commission (7) 2. Act as consultants during recruitment of staff (2)
NITDA	1. Direct recruitment from private sector and different sources as NITDA Enabling Act allows Headhunting away from civil service commission (5) 2. Dynamic nature of IT sector requires specialised and diverse experience, so have personnel pool of professionals (2) 3. Expected to comply with the quota system for ‘federal character’ representation (1) 4. Concerns about increasing political interference during recruitment (1)
NCC	1. Headhunting and deliberate sourcing from across board including private sector (5) 2. Private sector standard with employment exams before recruitment (2) 3. Recruit up to level 14 – that is principal manager-Principal Manager Level and not above (1) 4. Recruit Fresh graduates with NYSC (1) 5. Expected to comply with the quota system for ‘federal character’ representation (1) 6. Concerns about increasing political interference during recruitment (1)
BOI	1. Across board, private sector from all sectors and local and international experiences, Law firms, Audit firms, Competitive process Based on merit – All sectors, foreign banks (4) 2. Commercial banks (3) 3. Recent graduates from NYSC (2)
FIRS	1. Private sector, before 2004/2007 – Head of Service or from the Civil Service Commission or from other government organisation (4) 2. After 2007 – Free reign to determine human resource needs (4) 3. Advertisement – Across board and Industry (4) 4. Expected to comply with the quota system for ‘federal character’ representation (1) 5. Concerns about increasing political interference during recruitment (1)

As presented in Table 8.1 above, interviews from the different agencies' respondents revealed that while the LSMEPB relies solely on the civil service commission for recruitment as indicated by all their internal respondents, the other four agencies' top response is the fact that they all have been granted autonomy to recruit Nigerian citizens by themselves from different sources, and across all skills and industries of the private sector such as banking, technology, law, and consulting. In the case of LSMEPB that relies on the civil service for its recruitment, the respondents indicated that the hiring managers from that agency are present at the interview sessions, acting as consultants during the recruitment exercises for quality control. Furthermore, respondents from NITDA and the NCC indicated that their agencies also used talent head-hunters for searching for personnel to fill critical roles. The respondents also indicated that their agencies' recruitment criteria always include the condition that the candidates must be graduates with their NYSC certification. Also, although the agencies' respondents indicated that the recruitment processes involve candidates taking and passing tests before they are hired, respondents from three of the agencies reported that they are also required to comply with the quota system for 'federal character' representation in their organisations. Finally, whilst some respondents revealed that staff are recruited following the publishing of vacancy advertisements online or print media with indicated criteria such as the requirement of the Nigeria Youth Service Corp (NYSC) certification, two of these agencies' respondents raised concerns about increasing political interference in the recruitment process. Other responses regarding recruitment policies are noted in the Table 8.1 above.

8.3.1.2 Presenting interview responses on Equipping Staff for Work

When the respondents were asked about how staff of the agencies were equipped for work, verbatim responses of CR6-I and ER2-I relating to NCC, and FIRS respectively were presented as follows:

Referring to how NCC equips its staff for work, respondent CR6-I notes: "If there is anything that NCC does well, it is training, international and local, every officer, from the newly intakes, that is the fresh graduate that come in. You know that this industry, is an industry where you have technology, you have new things happening all the time. So, the training is to bring people up to speed with current track, and development."

Respondent ER2-I also notes that in FIRS: “There is a department for training; we call it training school, training school, so we have a full department that organise training for staff especially on taxation, they train them on that. Then, again, the other staff that are not really tax officers, they send them for training, some go abroad for training, some go to other organisations for training.”

The most recurring keywords and phrases extracted from responses given by respondents on how agencies equipped their staff have been presented below in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2: Summarised Responses on Agencies’ Equipping Staff For Work

AGENCY	EQUIPPING STAFF FOR WORK
LSMEPB	1. Job description determines training needs and training scheduled centrally (3) 2. Training outcomes are monitored afterwards (2) 3. In-house training and orientation for new staff (2) 4. Quizzes and reports after training and transfer of knowledge to non-attendees of training, expected (2) 5. Partnership with training institutions locally or internationally and capacity building by funding agencies like the World Bank (2)
NITDA	1. Job description determines training needs (4) 2. External training mostly (3) 3. Invests highly in training staff (3) 4. Balance score card system, and performance management system determine training needs (2) 5. Collaboration with organisations; outsourcing of training to organisations like Lagos Business School and collaboration with firms like CISCO (2) 6. Scholarship provided for further studies and qualifications (2) 7. Technical and ICT training provided (1) 8. Emotional Intelligence training (1) 9. Engagement of consultants for training (1)
NCC	1. Invests highly in training staff (5) 2. External training mostly (5) 3. Job description determines training needs (3) 4. International training and conferences (2) 5. Collaboration with institutions for trainings (2), 6. Scholarship provided for further studies and qualifications (2)
BOI	1. External training mostly (4) 2. Job description determines training needs (3) 3. Human capital development (1)
FIRS	1. Most trainings done in-house training school (3) 2. Job description determines training needs (2) 3. Capacity development and foreign travel (2)

According to all the respondents, the primary way of equipping staff for their jobs is through training. All the internal respondents indicated that training is a critical activity for their agencies, although LSMEPB indicated that training needs are validated

centrally by the civil service system. Some respondents also stated that their staff training needs are based on their job descriptions, balance score card performances, and performance appraisal assessments on the areas that require training. They also indicated mostly that that trainings can be in the form of staff being required to attend their agencies' in-house training schools, or to have them attend outsourced trainings. Furthermore, the FIRS indicated that their retired staff are formerly engaged as part of the faculty of their in-house training school. Additionally, the respondents revealed that staff of all the agencies are given the opportunity to attend conferences locally and internationally, while participants from two of the agencies indicated that their agencies encourage and provide scholarships to long-tenured staff to further their education and acquire more academic qualifications. Finally, the respondents mentioned that their agencies also partner with training institutes like the Lagos Business School, and funding agencies like the World Bank to provide training for their staff. Other responses regarding policies for equipping agencies' staff are noted in the Table 8.2 above.

8.3.1.3 Presenting interview responses on Performance Assessment

When the internal respondents were asked about how performance was assessed in their agencies, verbatim responses of AR4-I and BR4-I from LSMEPB and NITDA respectively were presented as follows:

To explain how LSMEPB handles performance assessment, respondent AR4-I notes that: "The assessment of people's performance is done through staff performance and development evaluation approach. We call it 'SPADEA'. 'SPADEA' is type of a performance evaluation."

Respondent BR4-I also explains that in NITDA: "We have the performance management system, and the performance management system is to help make that measure and monitor and evaluate staff performance. And it uses the balanced scorecard approach, you know, to ensure that staff of the organisation are evaluated from an all-encompassing perspective."

As shown in Table 8.3 below, all the participants responded that their agencies implement performance appraisals, noting that the evaluations are based on clearly

defined Key Performance Indicators (KPIs). This was the most popular response regarding assessment of performance for all the agencies.

Table 8.3: Summarised Responses on Agencies' Performance Assessment

AGENCY	PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENT
LSMEPB	1. Staff performance and development evaluation approach (SPADEA) is implemented (7) 2. Performance appraisal done twice a year and evaluations are done based on KPIs (3)
NITDA	1. Performance management system and Balance scorecard approach using periodic appraisals (6) 2. Quarterly performance assessment for Staff of the quarter (5) 3. Standard guidelines and framework used to assess performance, Periodic exam for promotions (5)
NCC	1. Performance Appraisal process Evaluations are done based on KPI/ Balanced score card (5) 2. Competitive promotion system based on exams (2)
BOI	1. Evaluations are done based on KPIs (4) 2. Quizzes and Exams also used for promotions (2)
FIRS	1. Evaluations are done based on KPIs (4) 2. Monitoring dashboard and continuous performances assessment (2)

Some other responses presented in Table 8.3 above are discussed here. The respondents all mentioned the importance of the balance score card system that allows the agencies to assign the organisation-wide targets and deliverables down the chain of command to different departments, units, teams, and individuals. Also, according to the respondents, the performance management system is used to monitor staff performance on a monthly, quarterly, and on an annual basis for their continuous assessment. Some respondents also explained that their agencies used examinations and tests for promotions following the attainment of the required KPI scores for the relevant position. Other responses regarding agencies' performance assessment policies are noted in the Table 8.3 above.

8.3.1.4 Presenting interview responses on Remuneration

When the internal respondents were asked about the remuneration system in their agencies, verbatim responses of BR3-I and CR12-I from NITDA and NCC respectively were presented as follows:

Respondent BR3-I notes this about NITDA: "So, within the civil service benchmark, I will say it's fair. It's commensurate to the skill and learning required to work in an

agency of that nature. It's, I would say it's in the top percentile, maybe 10/15% of public service remuneration structure or a compensation structure."

Respondent CR12-I of the NCC also notes that: "Honestly the NCC has a very good and robust incentive and reward system, even the remuneration package is above average and better than many organisations, it is actually among the best paying organisation in Nigeria."

The most frequently occurring keywords extracted from responses given by respondents on remuneration have been presented below in Table 8.4 for clarity and ease of presentation.

Table 8.4: Summarised Responses on Agencies' Remuneration

AGENCY	REMUNERATION POLICY
LSMEPB	1. Poor pay – based on civil service pay (3) 2. Rewards exceed just salaries as have other perks (free use of govt. hospitals, insurance rebate, rebate for buying govt. land, job security, staff recognition, cash and gifts awards periodically to recognise performing staff exposure, training, passionate people asides financial benefits (5)
NITDA	1. Okay based on Nigerian standards also certificate of recognition given for innovation to staff of the quarter (3) 2. Civil service benchmark – good, commensurate to the skill and learning required, Incentivise people with a lot of travel, global conferences (3) 3. Rewards are determined by performance (2) 4. Rewards exceed just salaries (2) 5. Previously underpaid now encouraging pay and people are happier (2)
NCC	1. Not like typical civil service package, good and robust incentives provided (3) 2. Attractive and adequate reward system and remuneration (3) 3. Rewards exceed just salaries as incentivise people with quarterly allowances, mortgages, and other perks that are comparable to private sector, global conferences, travels etc (3) 4. Performance based rewards (2)
BOI	1. Poor reward system in 2001 to 2011 but attractive and competitive remuneration in the last 13 years (5) 2. Exposure to trainings home and abroad, staff bonus and incentive schemes and perks like housing mortgage, performance-based rewards system, Increased number of prospective employees (4)
FIRS	1. Adequate remuneration and bonuses and better than civil service (4) 2. FIRS Act 2007 gave administrative autonomy and financial autonomy, so agency had more funds due to revenue from 4% of non-oil taxes collected so pay more attractive (2)

To provide context to Table 8.4, see the first row where LSMEPB's respondents indicated that because their pay adheres to the standard civil service pay structure,

their remuneration is poor. However, the respondents acknowledged the importance of their staff recognition system and indicated that it played a significant role in motivating their staff to look beyond their payment packages. The LSMEPB's respondents also highlighted that staff recognition schemes are constantly implemented, ranging from staff of the month, quarter, and year on their notice boards as well as the provision of gifts and plaques to the relevant staff. They also acknowledged other perks of working with the public service which includes free health care at government hospitals, rebate for buying land, and job security (as staff cannot be sacked easily). The respondents commented that their staff were happy to work late because they felt motivated to do so given the open-door policy created by the agency head encouraging them to contribute their quotas to the agency's goal and be innovative. The other four agencies also provided their staff with incentives and perks to augment the salaries including bonuses, staff recognitions, insurance benefits, and international travel opportunities for training and conferences. See Table 8.4 above for other responses regarding the agencies' remuneration.

8.3.2 Analysis of Interview Responses on the PAHRM of the Agencies

As previously noted, the predominant system of bureaucracy in the Nigerian public sector is the inherited Weberian system which is characterised to cut across the hierarchical structure, functional specialty, management by rules and a meritocratic recruitment system (Weber, 1919). While the structure has been analysed in 8.2.2 above, this section assesses the surveyed agencies along other Weberian factors.

Firstly, functional specialty has to do with the extent to which organisational resources, in this case human resources, are effectively deployed towards the attainment of organisational goals. When it comes to equipping staff for their job, these agencies place emphasis on continuous training based on their staff job descriptions, needs and performance appraisal reports as shown in section 8.3.1.2 and Table 8.2. The agencies all seek out world-class trainings for their staff by making it possible for their staff to attend international conferences and trainings as well as providing them with opportunities to expand their professional qualifications. The number of professional staff interviewed in this study as discussed in section 6.4 confirms the level of qualification of the agencies' staff.

Typically, new staff are provided with on-boarding training materials to familiarise themselves with the agencies' mandates, while existing staff are re-trained by attending local or international courses or programmes. The importance of job shadowing, especially of consultants who are engaged to fill capacity gap, is also an essential part of capacity building for these agencies. Also, in most cases, trained staff are required to share their learnings which helps build their organisations' efficiency and capabilities.

Secondly, management by rules assesses the extent of communicated requirements and how staff are held accountable to them. The effectiveness of the performance management system (PMS) is dependent on there being a target or standards set by the leadership of the agencies to be used to benchmark and assess actual performance (Olaopa, 2012a).

Thirdly, in ensuring a meritocratic recruitment system, the results presented in section 8.3.1.1 and Table 8.1 on the recruitment policies and practices of the agencies reveal that the majority of the respondents stated that their organisations ensure that they have the best candidates for vacant roles. They do this by recruiting beyond the civil service commission; they also have a range of criteria such as the need for staff to be graduates with NYSC certification, passing of recruitment examinations, and adherence to the 'federal character' quota policy, which is a requirement in the public service that is meant to ensure equality and to prevent dominance by one or a few ethnic or religious groups (Demarest, Langer and Ukiwo, 2020). However, some respondents in three agencies highlighted increasing political interference in the recruitment process. This aligns with arguments by Morgan et al (2019) and Olowu (2014), mentioned in section 3.3.3.1, that the recruitment and staff assessment processes in some Nigerian public organisations lack objectivity because of nepotism arising from to a high patronage-based system of administration.

Finally, analysis of the remuneration of the staff of these agencies discussed in section 8.3.1.4 and shown in Table 8.4 shows that all the agencies' respondents acknowledged that their staff remuneration system were tied to their PMS like training requirements. Also, the respondents recognise the fact that staff motivation was key

to the delivering of the agencies' set targets, which explains why all five agencies had in place other means such as staff recognition schemes, foreign travel for conferences and trainings, and scholarship schemes and mortgages, just to name a few.

8.4 PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INTERVIEW RESPONSES ON ORGANISATIONS – EXTERNAL WORKING RELATIONSHIP WITH ECOSYSTEM

8.4.1 Presentation of Interview Responses on the Working Relationship with Agencies' Ecosystems

This section summarises the third set of interview responses from the external participants that considers the working relationships between the agencies and their ecosystems. The external participants were asked to explain how their agencies worked with their ecosystem and industry partners. This is an important element of the research because collaboration falls under connecting dynamic capabilities discussed in section 3.3.6. To this end, verbatim responses from respondents BR9-E and CR4-E representing NITDA and NCC respectively, have been presented below.

Respondent BR9-E notes the following about NITDA: "I have been in several sessions with NITDA where you know we have different types of stakeholders, you have the private sector, you have development partners, you have civil society organisations, you have public sector right. So, with that what they are trying to do is to ensure that you know, when these policies are issued first of all, there is no, erm, push back, because if you bring people to the table to have a conversation right, to contribute to success I think it accelerates process and much quicker than doing otherwise."

Respondent CR4-E also notes this for the NCC: "Well, I would say it's a somewhat collaborative relationship. And I use somewhat you know, in some sense because as a regulator, of course, they have the right to decide what they feel is good for the sector ultimately. And sometimes they may not necessarily accept with the input of the sector. But collaborative in the sense that in most instances, the norm is that when new regulations or standards or guidelines are being developed, there's an engagement with the sector to basically get the fill of the sector or the ecosystem or

industry participants to understand whether that regulation or guideline or intervention that they want to make is good for the sector.”

The most recurring keywords and phrases extracted from responses given by the respondents on their agencies working relationship with their ecosystems have been presented in Table 8.5 below. The table reveals that responses varied in terms of the specific work being done by the relevant agency, although there were some areas of similarities.

Table 8.5: Summarised Responses on Agencies’ Ecosystem Working Relationship

AGENCY	WORKING WITH ECOSYSTEM
LSMEPB	1. Financial/Funding support for other agencies from state grants or loans (3) 2. Review of initial proposals for the next year budget and collation of list of projects that need support for the Medium-Term Sector, Strategy development Plan (2) 3. Provision of template for other agencies to submit their plan (2) 4. Provision of a timetable for ministries to adhere to (2) 5. Hosting of meetings and workshop groups and technical groups (2)
NITDA	1. Policy road map review and engagement sessions (5) 2. Host interactive sessions, social media engagements, twitter space sessions (4) 3. Broadcast commission, review of stakeholders’ complaints, stakeholder, and ecosystem engagement (4) 4. Innovative ecosystem engagement to keeping up with the Evolving environment (2)
NCC	1. Approvals of marketing promotions, tariff plans, numbering applications (3) 2. Collaborative relationships and consultation process for policy developments (2) 3. Stakeholder engagement forums and industry working groups to discuss technology development (2)
BOI	1. By providing support to different sectors including the creative sector through sponsorship and loans (4) 2. Collaboration with different organisations such as the Nigerian Export Promotion Council, ITF, SMEDAN and the local NGOs, and the Collaboration with local NGOs- G.E.E.P – Government Economic Empowerment Program and partnership with different state governments (4) 3. Monitoring and evaluation of businesses (2)
FIRS	1. Interaction with partners, extensive consultation, and stakeholder and ecosystem engagement (5) 2. Technological innovation (4) 3. Open line of communication and consultation with ecosystem for policy reforms (3) 4. Submission of tax filings periodically (2)

For instance, the top response from the LSMEPB respondents is the facilitation of funding provided by the agency to enable the work of the other ministries, departments, and agencies (MDAs). According to the respondents, the agency interacts with MDAs in its ecosystem by asking for information to be submitted in templates provided, by

providing timetables for the ecosystem, and by hosting working meetings to develop budgets and plans that align with the state. In the case of the NCC, their respondents highlighted the various means of engagement with the ecosystem for approvals, policy developments and to discuss technology development. Finally, the FIRS' respondents indicated that the agency had an open line of communication and extensive consultation with its ecosystem for variety of reasons such as technology innovation and policy reforms. The other responses are illustrated in Table 8.5 above.

8.4.2 Analysis of Interview Responses on the Working Relationship – Ecosystem of the Agencies

The responses from the external stakeholders provide insights regarding how the agencies connect with stakeholders by working collaboratively with them to solve ecosystem problems (Kattel, 2022). The interactions and the relationships between these five agencies and their ecosystems serve as evidence on how influential these public institutions are in directing their ecosystems for positive societal outcomes (Nair, 2018). In assessing the nature of the relationship between the public institutions and their ecosystems, the responses reveal that the agencies play a central role in their respective industries as figureheads – either by providing functional value services, such as FIRS ensuring seamless taxation and LSMEPB performing budgetary duties for other Lagos State ministries; or by promoting public causes, such as BOI offering development finance, NCC expanding communication access, and NITDA developing Information Technology infrastructure. These responsibilities require that they provide financing, set policies, address complaints, and seek out ways to develop the sectors they play in. Hence, while there exist other stakeholders like social partners which will be covered in section 8.5 below, there are those who report to sub-national governments, federal ministries, or governing boards who are direct stakeholders. Nevertheless, the agencies' largest group of stakeholders are those to whom they provide direct value to. Summarily, failure to proactively put in place these interactive gateways for stakeholder management could completely affect societal outcomes. Proactive and reactive work will be analysed in detail in 8.7.

8.5 PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INTERVIEW RESPONSES ON ORGANISATIONS – WORKING RELATIONSHIP WITH SOCIAL PARTNERS

8.5.1 Presentation of Interview Responses on the Working Relationship – Social Partners

When participants were asked about the working relationships with social partners, verbatim responses of respondent CR4-E of the NCC and ER9-E of FIRS were the following.

Referring to the NCC's relationship with its social partners, respondent CR4-E notes, "There is collaboration with law enforcements, which is very critical. For example, they have this emergency response where they have emergency centres across different state of the federation, which were built with their support – they built the centres and then operators are meant to basically provide some sort of connectivity to those centres to enable people in different locations you dial a specific short code to reach an emergency centre."

Respondent ER9-E also notes this about FIRS: "Yes indeed they are very clearly active in that space, we have the west Africa tax administrators, the African Tax Administrators Forum they collaborate a lot, with the international partners, not just within Africa. But at the United Nations level, and also at the OECD level."

The most recurring keywords and phrases extracted from responses given by the external respondents on the relationship the agencies have with its social partners are presented below in Table 8.6.

Table 8.6: Summarised Responses on Agencies' Working Relationship with Social Partners

AGENCY	WORKING RELATIONSHIP WITH SOCIAL PARTNERS
LSMEPB	1. Agency oversees collaborations with international agencies for funding (3) 2. Its Department for Partnership partners with civil society International NGOs and development agencies and World Bank; Interface with agencies on behalf of MDAs and facilitate discussions (3) 3. It collaborated with different NGOs, MDAs and private sector during the Covid-19 crisis for coordinated state-wide responses (2)
NITDA	1. Ministry of Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Management and Social Development on SDGs had collaborated with NITDA (2) 2. Digitisation support provided by NITDA to other agencies for procurement (2) 3. Collaboration with private technology companies for tech skills development Trainings and capacity building across the country (2)
NCC	1. Capacity building in technology is done through its subsidiary, Digital Bridge Institute (DBI) (2) 2. Consultation with different groups and institutions such as the Central Bank to solve problems such as financial inclusion for the country (2) 3. Set up industry working groups for development of sector and discussions on technology (2)
BOI	1. Collaboration with different businesses, provision of financial support and worked with over 200 local companies and up to 15 different MDAs for social projects (4) 2. Enters different collaborative relationships with agencies such as Nigerian Export Promotion Council, Collaboration with ITF and SMEDAN (3) 3. Partnership with different states, Collaboration with the NGOs – G.E.E.P - Government Economic Empowerment Program, Growth Platform and the social investment program (3)
FIRS	1. Collaboration with MDAs and states inland revenue (2) 2. Consultative sessions with industry representatives and meetings with civil rights groups, partners, other stakeholders (2) 3. Meetings with customers and stakeholders (2) 4. Engagement with professional bodies such as the Oil Producers Trade Sector (OPTS), Chartered Institute of Taxation of Nigeria (2)

Some of the collated responses are discussed here. For instance, the LSMEPB's respondents indicated that its agency collaborates with international funding agencies and NGOs on behalf of the state's MDAs and that the agency was instrumental in coordinating the state's responses during the Covid-19 pandemic. Another example relates to the BOI collaborating with MDAs, other public agencies, and NGOs for social projects in different parts of the country. Finally, according to respondents, the FIRS extensively collaborates with other MDAs, state governments, professional bodies and international agencies for education and awareness creation. Additional responses are illustrated in Table 8.6 above.

8.5.2 Analysis of Interview Responses on the Working Relationship – Social Partners

According to the external respondents, all the agencies demonstrated collaborative capabilities with different social partners. One could also argue that the agencies cannot effectively meet their needs without working with social partners as these partnerships play important roles in the provision of social services to citizens (Michael, 2004). The partnerships with other institutions take place at the community, state, regional and national levels. For instance, these agencies partnered with other MDAs (Ministries, Departments and Agencies) for different reasons that align with their functions. Some examples cited were the provision of budgetary and strategy guidance, assistance with the procurement of technology, supporting the implementation of social initiatives, facilitation of capacity building of the ecosystem and citizens, as well as the enlightenment and creation of awareness on societal issues relating to the role of the agencies to stakeholders.

Additionally, the external respondents indicated that their various agencies collaborated with local and international NGOs and development agencies to implement social causes initiatives and with private organisations to jointly implement social interventions in the form of CSR, participation in conferences organised by the agencies, or the facilitation of technology and technical skills/ capacity building trainings. Finally, the respondents indicated that their agencies engage in partnerships with professional institutes and industry bodies for formulation of policies, enlightenment of the public, and resolution of consumer issues.

8.6 PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INTERVIEW RESPONSES ON ORGANISATIONS – ORGANISATIONAL CORE FUNCTIONS

8.6.1 Presentation of Interview Responses on the Agencies' Core Functions

A clear understanding of the agencies core functions and routines is foundational for exploring the dynamic capabilities found within the organisations. The responses obtained from participants, BR8-I from NITDA and DR9-I from BOI on the core functions have been transcribed verbatim below.

Respondent BR8-I reveals that in NITDA: “The main or the primary function of the government, or rather NITDA right, as a regulator is enablement. And how do you enable these outcomes right. Also, continuous research in terms of what is happening within Nigeria, what are the issues, what are the problems and how can NITDA address these issues as the regulator of the sector and what is attainable across other countries in the globe.”

Respondent ER6-I also notes this about the FIRS’ core functions: “The work that FIRS does is to collect, to account for what has been, erm, to assess, you have to assess first before you collect, so they assess, they collect and account for the money that has been collected to government.”

The most recurring keywords and phrases extracted from responses given by all the internal and external respondents on the core functions of at least three participants from the internal and external respondents’ perspectives are summarised per agency in Table 8.7 below.

Table 8.7: Summarised Responses on Agencies’ Core Functions

AGENCY	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
LSMEPB	1. Facilitating medium term sector strategy, strategic and economic planning and alignment of state's development plan (7) 2. Monitoring and evaluation and impact assessment (5) 3. Budget framework and support (4) 4. Transparency of governance and ensuring policy development (3) 5. Obtaining external resource support (3) 6. Stakeholder engagement and citizen participation and peer review (3)	1. Economic Planning and Budget allocation across Lagos state govt agencies (5) 2. Strategic ministry for planning and development of the state and in charge of drawing up Lagos state's 30 years development plan (3) 3. Provide funding support through approvals and sourcing of funds (3) 4. Ensure government agenda are met and support agencies to refine their KPIs to align with LASG plans (3)
NITDA	1. Regulatory and policy development and standard guidelines and framework for national goal congruence (6) 2. Stakeholder engagement and ensuring transparency and accountability in operations to ensure ISO certified feedback mechanism (4) 3. Sector strategic road map development (Medium Term) (3)	1. For the development of the Nigerian Technology and ICT sector to Nigerian Digital Economy to grow the contribution of the tech sector to Nigeria's GDP (5) 2. Policy development, regulations, and creation of standard guidelines and frameworks (3) 3. Digital skilling, trainings and support for young people and entrepreneurs (3)

AGENCY	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
	- Research and monitoring and Evaluation (3) - Supporting digital and youth innovation across the country (3) - Overseeing public procurement process of IT technology (3)	Clearing house for public service entities interaction with technologies and ensure standardisation of IT space (3)
NCC	- Standard guidelines and framework, policy implementation and regulatory function for national goal congruence (5) - Strategic planning – the previous 8-point agenda and the current 5-point strategic plan and strategic management (4) - Feedback mechanism with information portal and Communication of needs (3)	- Independent regulatory function for Telecommunications Companies (TELCOS) (5) - Issue licenses and create new license categories (3) - Work collaboratively with the ecosystem to promote digital access power the economy and attract investors (3)
BOI	- Understanding each sector's needs and providing support, proactively seeking out entrepreneurs for funding support (4) - Collaboration with Enterprise Development agencies and partners to source funds (3) - Monitoring of businesses and risk management of funds (3)	- Financial support and supply of capital for businesses (5) - Support industrial development and allocation of resources to different industries (4) - Provide cheap loans with friendly interest rates (3)
FIRS	- Assess/collect/account for tax by operating a self-assessment system for taxpayers enabled by technology (3) - Collaboration of different departments and different stakeholders such as Joint Tax Board (3) - Standards, guidelines and frameworks and regulatory processes (3)	- Ensure increased contribution of tax revenue and collection to the GDP and help cover budget deficit (3) - Collaboration for Tax education and awareness by providing companies with support and improved tax collection (3) - Tax administration and interface with the government and private sector (3)

For example, the top responses from the LSMEPB internal respondents are all related to the role of the agency in the areas of strategy, economic planning and budgeting, monitoring and evaluation, and impact assessment on behalf of Lagos state. All other activities revolve around these core functions to ensure transparency for the benefit of the citizens of the state. Similarly, the external respondents mostly mentioned the fact that the ministry was the strategic arm of the state responsible for economic planning, budget allocation and provision of funding for Lagos state's projects. For NITDA, the internal respondents' most popular responses are centred around the policy development, standard setting and regulatory functions played by the agency. They further acknowledged NITDA's stakeholder engagement role that ensures transparency and accountability of the agency's activities. As for the external

respondents, on the other hand, the most popular responses relate to the role of NITDA in the development of the ICT sector to contribute to the emergence of a Nigerian digital economy.

As for FIRS' internal respondents, they mostly stated that the core functions of the agency are for assessing, collecting, and accounting for tax collections on behalf of the government. Also, the external respondents predominantly discussed the role the FIRS plays in ensuring increased contribution of tax revenue as contribution to the GDP through increased education and awareness activities. The remaining collated responses can be found in Table 8.7 above.

8.6.2 Analysis of Interview Responses on the Agencies' Core Functions

Essentially, the responses regarding the core functions of these agencies illustrate their various roles in implementing infrastructure for the government. It also shows the agencies' capacities in implementing government policies (Skocpol and Finegold, 1982; Fukuyama, 2004), to plan and lead key ecosystem participants to act to meet desired changes and outcomes for the country (Migdal, 1988). Thus, infrastructure power of the state, as defined in chapter 3.2.3 of chapter 3, is relevant here and will be further considered when analysing the areas of strengths highlighted by the respondents in section 8.9.

8.7 PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INTERVIEW RESPONSES ON ORGANISATIONS – PROACTIVE VS REACTIVE WORK

8.7.1 Presentation of Interview Responses on the Agencies' Proactive vs Reactive Work

When the internal participants were asked about the various agencies' proactive and reactive work, verbatim responses from two internal respondents BR11-I and ER5-I from NITDA and FIRS respectively, were as follows:

Respondent BR11-I explains the following of NITDA: "So, for us working in a proactive way, like I mentioned earlier, us working in the Computer Emergency Readiness and Response team. That is one of our proactive things that we have put in place. We are

not waiting for anyone to report to us that my website, that's for MDAs that my website has been hacked. I am getting this number of our tasks daily. We are being proactive every day. That team runs 24/7 and monitors every threat that is happening within Nigerian cyber space. So, we are very proactive in terms of that."

Respondent ER5-I also notes this about FIRS: "I think the proactive side is even the area where I actually want to talk more. Because every year FIRS, they start the year with a retreat to look at the last year and to see also the lapses from the previous years and how they can now address it in the current year and then look forward to what is in it they need to address."

Table 8.8 below illustrates that each of the agencies are considered as working in proactive manners by the internal respondents with over 70% proactive split across board.

Table 8.8: Summarised Responses on Agencies' Proactive and Reactive Work

AGENCY	PROACTIVE WORK	REACTIVE WORK	SPLIT (100%)
LSMEPB	1. Budgetary support (2) 2. Strategic planning (2) 3. Goal orientation (2) 4. Standard guidelines and framework setting (2) 5. Monitoring and evaluation (2) 6. Adoption of integrated information management system (2)	1. Feedback process, following up on emerging issues and reactions after monitoring and evaluation exercises (5)	73%:27%
NITDA	1. Regulatory function (3) 2. Cyber security (2) 3. Monitoring and evaluation (2) 4. Risk management, Technological Investment (2) 5. Stakeholder engagement and management (2) 6. Strategic road mapping and planning (2) 7. Creation of management systems (2)	1. Responding to issues that come from regulation/ Standard guidelines and framework (4)	75%:25%
NCC	1. Setting the laws, rules, the act, regulations, guidelines and policy frameworks (5) 2. compliance monitoring and test drives (3)	1. Responding to the reactions to laws, policies and regulations (2) 2. Issuing of penalties to defaulters (2)	71%:29%

AGENCY	PROACTIVE WORK	REACTIVE WORK	SPLIT (100%)
BOI	1. Setting loan policies (2) 2. Reviews and assessments of loan portfolios (2) 3. Resource mobilisation (2) 4. Automated processes for business continuity (2) 5. Monitoring and evaluation (2)	1. Plan ahead so very little need to be reactive with processes (5)	83%:17%
FIRS	1. Policy developments, organisation of retreats and planning sessions (5) 2. Self-assessment processing (2)	1. Tax compliance investigations (6) 2. Follow up work (6)	72%:28%

As shown in Table 8.8, the internal respondents for LSMEPB listed out activities such as budget support, strategic planning, standard settings, monitoring and evaluation and the adoption of integrated information management system as being the areas of work that are proactive for the agency. They further mentioned that the feedback process and reaction of the agency following monitoring and evaluation are reactive. Consequently, the aggregate split according to respondents is 73% proactive and 27% reactive. NITDA's internal respondents listed out functions relating to setting regulations, cyber security monitoring, stakeholder engagement and management, strategic road mapping and planning, and creation of management systems as functions that are proactive; whilst activities that relate to the agency responding to issues from these activities and the various feedback mechanisms are reactive. Consequently, the respondents ascribe 75% to the proactive work of the NITDA and 25% to reactive work. In the case of NCC's internal respondents, they predominantly mentioned the setting of laws, rules, regulations, guidelines, and policy frameworks as proactive whilst mentioning compliance monitoring work and drive tests as also proactive. They further described the NCC's reactive roles as their responses to stakeholders reaction to regulations and laws and the issuing of penalties for non-compliance to defaulters. The resultant split from the respondents is 71% proactive and 29% reactive.

BOI's internal respondents predominantly mentioned that the agency was mostly proactive with little reactivity because they planned ahead. According to the respondents, the agency sets loan policies, conducts reviews and assessment of its loan portfolios, mobilises resources, automate its processes and conducts monitoring

and evaluation proactively. Consequently, the split between the proactive and reactive work of the agencies was 83% : 17%. Finally, the FIRS' internal respondents mostly mentioned the policy development role of the agency through retreats. They further elaborated that the tax compliance investigations that arose from tax filings and the follow up work that emerge following the investigation. Thus, the FIRS work is 72% proactive and 28% reactive, according to the respondents. The other responses are illustrated in Table 6m above.

8.7.2 Analysis of Interview Responses on the Agencies' Proactive vs Reactive Work

As mentioned in 8.7.1 above and illustrated in Table 8.8, most of the respondents indicated that their agencies worked in a predominantly proactive manner with an aggregate value to be 75%. This is a significant result as it confirms the importance of these agencies possessing good sensing dynamic capabilities that enable them to predict societal gaps ahead of time. The largest ratio gap was 90% to 10% for one respondent each in LSMEPB, NITDA, NCC, and BOI; while the shortest gap was 60% to 40% for one respondent each in LSMEPB, NITDA, NCC and FIRS. There was only one respondent in NCC that gave a response of 50-50 spread amongst all the respondents. This reveals that the agencies are aware of the roles they play within their ecosystems and are proactively championing their causes. More specifically, the internal respondents of this study who happen to be leaders of these agencies, believe that in order to be successful at their set objectives, they need to be in the driver's seat.

These responses, together with the analysis of responses done in sections 8.8.2, 8.9.2, and 8.10.2 also help the exploration of the internal and external competencies that are available in addressing rapidly changing environments or the degree dynamic capabilities of the agencies.

8.8 PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INTERVIEW RESPONSES ON ORGANISATIONS – CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS

8.8.1 Presentation of Interview Responses on the Agencies' Critical Success Factors

When asked about the agencies' critical success factors to give an indication on what the agencies consider as clear markers of performance and progress toward their mandates, verbatim responses of respondents AR2-I of LSMEPB and DR4-I of BOI were as follows:

Speaking on LSMEPB, respondent AR2-I notes: "We are thinkers; it is our job to think. We are strategists, So, we don't look at things from short term only. We see the tomorrow from today and that means we are just ahead. Right? And we are policy initiators or designers. And we listen to the people also in all our consultations and engagement with the people in the building of the budget. So, it gives us a big edge."

Respondent DR4-I also notes this about BOI: "Well, the critical success factor was that BOI knows what it was mandated to do from day one and BOI was run as a business. Much more of the service enterprise other than just giving loans to people. We are running like commercial banks in ensuring that when we give you loan, you can pay. But we give more than that in that we don't make it too strenuous for you."

The most recurring keywords and phrases extracted from responses given by respondents on the agencies critical success factors have been highlighted in Table 8.9 below. Here, only responses mentioned by three or more participants are discussed.

Table 8.9: Summarised Responses on Agencies' Critical Success Factors

AGENCY	CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS
LSMEPB	1. Existence of required technical skills and academic qualifications such as financial and accounting skills (6) 2. Existence of open-door policy with communication, and listening skills, positive team players and people management skills (5) 3. Existence of analytical, proactive, and critical thinking skills (5) 4. Existence of ICT skills across the agency (3) 5. Existence of innovation and continuous learning environment (3)
NITDA	1. People first, Innovation, Professionalism (PIP) and Open-door policy (6) 2. Received National Productivity Award as best service agency; high velocity organisation effective operation and turnaround time, flat horizontal structure (6) 3. Existence of a competitive performance management, training, and reward system (5) 4. Agency is highly specialised with core competency in ICT skills 5. Strategic leadership and shared vision approach (3)
NCC	1. Strategic recruitment, strategic management of agency earning award of best agency with great working environment, tools, and incentives (4) 2. Pool of professionals (4) 3. Strong core values and principles and integrity (3) 4. Workshops and conferences, and trainings (3)
BOI	1. Good working environment and tools for staff with access to training (4) 2. Strong core values – Service, Professionalism, Initiative, Resourcefulness, Integrity, and Timeliness (SPIRIT) (3)
FIRS	1. Integrity and transparency and strong core values (3) 2. Capacity development and training and effective reward system (3) 3. Technology driven and automated processes (3)

The top keywords in the responses provided by six of the LSMEPB internal respondents are ICT skills, innovation, team playing abilities, and positive resilient attitudes, communication skills, technical skills, analytical and critical skills, people management skills, open-door policy and listening skills. For NITDA, six of the internal respondents mentioned people first, innovation and professionalism (PIP) and open-door policy and the fact that they had a flat organisation structure and that they were a high velocity organisation that received a presidential award for productivity in 2022. Additionally, the following factors were mentioned by three different respondents: competitive reward system, innovation, professionalism, highly competent in ICT, strategic leadership and shared vision approach, and performance management system linked to their training and reward system. Similarly, four of the NCC's respondents mentioned the fact that they had a pool of professionals, and that the agency recruited strategically and paid extremely well were critical success factors. Also, respondents from the BOI, stated that the agency had strong core values: service, professionalism, initiative, resourcefulness, integrity, and timeliness (SPIRIT and three

of the FIRS' respondents mentioned integrity and transparency as strong core values that were critical for their agency. The other responses are captured in Table 8.9.

8.8.2 Analysis of Interview Responses on the Agencies' Critical Success Factors

According to Spanó et al. (2024), there are certain critical success factors such as leadership, governance and legal frameworks that are important for the thriving of dynamic capabilities. The respondents identified some common factors that are critical. The first factor highlighted is the importance of the agencies possessing domain knowledge and skills that are linked to their core focus areas such as budget skills, ICT skills, tax skills, banking and finance skills, technical skills. This is evidenced by the strong academic qualifications possessed by the personnel as well as the emphasis on continuous improvement and a learning environment that provided them with access to training and innovation for staff. The second factor worth noting is the importance of strong core values such as integrity, transparency and open-door policy, clear communication systems and professionalism, which the respondents mentioned as existing in their agencies. The third factor is the importance of strong leadership and systems – such as robust organisational, governance and human resources management frameworks and flexible procedures.

8.9 PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INTERVIEW RESPONSES ON ORGANISATIONS – AGENCIES' STRENGTHS

8.9.1 Presentation of Interview Responses on the Agencies' Strengths

When the internal participants were asked to describe their agencies' areas of strength, the verbatim responses of respondents BR4-I and ER11-E from NITDA and FIRS respectively were as follows.

Respondent BR4-I of NITDA notes: "So, as far as I'm concerned, I think we have done very well in addressing almost about 98% of the content of the existing NITDA act. We've been able to do that either in the area of regulation of IT or in the area of development. But that is not to say that there is no room for improvement, you know, like they say the biggest room in this world is a room for improvement. If you ask me

maybe in the area of improvements we may, I want to improve in the area of err... how will I put it, improving our engagement with our stakeholders.”

Respondent ER11-E also explains this about FIRS: “I think uhm one of the things they do very well is how they have embraced technology. You know there was a lot of uhm resistance at first, but I think everybody has now embraced it and realised that’s the way to go. So, I give them a lot of credit for doing that you know, even right now, the only process that is still pending on their technology platform system is the audit and investigation process you know, from registration, to filing to payment that is technology enabled. Uhm secondly, in terms of what they can do better, I would say knowledge – huge knowledge gap and that is also one of the biggest issues in Nigeria. Talent is a problem you know; the good ones are leaving the country. So, ensuring that they have that pipeline of talent coming through the system for me, is something that they need to worry about.”

The most recurring keywords and phrases extracted from the responses given by respondents on the strengths of their agencies are summarised below in Table 8.10. In this section, only responses mentioned by three or more participants are highlighted.

Table 8.10: Summarised Responses on Agencies’ Strengths

AGENCY	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
LSMEPB	1. Budgetary support, strategic and economic planning (4) 2. Stakeholder engagement (3) 3. Hold successful Ehingbeti economic summits (3)	1. Good engagement and working relationships with other agencies, ecosystem, and MDAs to participate in interactive sessions (5) 2. Strategic planning, budgeting processes and the 2050 Lagos state plan (3) 3. 90% resolution of issues raised from the Ehingbeti economic summits (3) 4. Sourcing funds for the state (3)
NITDA	1. Researching and responding to market and industry trends through enactment of relevant law, and funding of activities within the ecosystems (4) 2. IT regulation, policy frameworks, guidelines, and standards development (4)	1. Good visioning in the innovation ecosystem and enabling the growing of local content in the IT space (3) 2. Collaboration and relating well with the ecosystem (3) 3. Open and Inclusive nature – not bureaucratic and nimble and

AGENCY	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
	3. Capacity development, trainings, and support of entrepreneurs and trainings (3)	dynamic in nature and is swift in responding to issues (3)
NCC	1. Regulatory function – Setting standard guidelines and framework (4) 2. Effective communication with stakeholders (4) 3. Consumer Affairs – protection (3), 4. Transparency in operations and licenses procedures (3) 5. Professionalism (3)	1. Licensing and setting regulations (5) 2. Opening the market and driving competition and attracting players to the market and selling the potential of the Nigerian market (3) 3. Revenue generation and well-funded agency (3) 4. Open-door policy and engagement with stakeholders (3)
BOI	1. Making profit and positive financial performance (3) 2. Supporting and funding local businesses (3)	1. Providing financial and business support (3) 2. Accessibility and communication with relationship managers (3)
FIRS	1. Tax collection and revenue generation (3) 2. Data Centric Automation/Digital innovation (3) 3. Professional and well-trained workforce (2)	1. Use of technology is used widely even beyond filing of tax returns for emails, meetings etc (5) 2. Consultation – when draft regulation is issued, they expose it to taxpayers, consultants, and sensitise stakeholders (3)

As can be observed in Table 8.10's first row above, LSMEPB's internal respondents stated that the agency's strengths include its abilities in budget, strategic and economic planning, and its ability in the area of stakeholder engagement. Its external respondents outlined three areas – the interactivity of engagement sessions, the strategic planning process for the 2050 Lagos state plan, and good working relationship with its stakeholders. In the case of NITDA, four of its internal respondents noted that the agency's ability to research industry trends to respond appropriately, its ability to enable the emergence of local content in the IT space, and their collaboration and good working relationships with their ecosystems are key areas of strength. The NCC's internal respondents highlight the agency's regulatory function and communication with stakeholders as major strengths. Similarly, its external respondents noted that the agency's efforts in opening the market to drive competition and generate revenue are key strengths. As for the internal respondents of the BOI, they mentioned the profitability and positive performance of the agency as a major strength, whilst the external respondents noted the provision of financial and business support as key strengths of the agency. Finally, FIRS' internal respondents claimed that the tax collection ability and the data and digital innovation at the agency are strengths. Similarly, the external respondents noted the strength the FIRS has in the

use of technology as well as the consultative processes for reviewing and enacting new regulations.

8.9.2 Analysis of Interview Responses on the Agencies' Strengths

Whilst the internal respondents mentioned areas of strengths that were unique to the various agencies' functionality, the responses can be categorised under six key areas. The first is revenue generation which cuts across budgeting activities, revenue collection from ecosystem members in the form of levies, taxes, or fees, as well as the repayment of loans by borrowers. The second is the development of their agencies' ecosystems strategy, road map, and economic planning activities. The third involves the agencies' ability to appropriately set regulations and develop policies for their ecosystems. The fourth is that the agencies engage in stakeholder engagement and management through conferences, workshops, and forums. The fifth point mentioned by respondents in four out of the five agencies is that their workforce was professional. The sixth point was that the agencies invested in the training and capacity building of their staff.

The external respondents also highlighted unique areas of strength for each of the agencies; just like the internal stakeholders' responses, there are similarities of the areas of strength of the agencies across the board. The first area is that the respondents highlighted their agencies' ability to conduct strategic and long-term planning. The second area is that the agencies often collaborate with their ecosystem members to resolve issues. The third is that the respondents acknowledged that their agencies generally did their core function of setting regulations, policies, and guidelines for the ecosystem actively. The fourth is that the agencies were good at sensitising and managing stakeholders. The fifth is that the agencies provided adequate financial and business support when needed in the form of loans or access to funds for two agencies and business support through consultative processes instituted by the agencies. The sixth is that the agencies have open communication channels that are accessible to the ecosystem thereby promoting inclusiveness in their policies and the way they work with the ecosystems. Finally, the respondents acknowledged the increasing use and incorporation of technology as part of the agencies' processes have enabled their work.

8.10 PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INTERVIEW RESPONSES ON ORGANISATIONS – AGENCIES’ WEAKNESSES AND OUTSOURCED FUNCTIONS

8.10.1 Presentation of Responses on the Agencies’ Weaknesses and Outsourced Functions

Internal and external respondents were asked to describe the areas that the agencies’ needed improvements on. Additionally, the internal respondents were asked to provide information on the service areas that their agencies got outside organisations to perform on their behalf. Participants AR1-I of LSMEPB and DR3-I of BOI in response to these questions have been transcribed verbatim and presented below.

Referring to LSMEPB, respondent AR1-I explained that: “There are some intervention partners that necessitated a type of support that we need consultants to work with us. Now what do I mean? Say for example the World Bank is supporting us on our budget reforms for example, they will ask us for whatever support we need, whoever we feel can assist us to speed up the process, so we will be the ones to say okay, we’ll like to work with A, B and C.”

Respondent DR3-I also notes that for BOI: “Parts of our IT services are outsourced especially when it comes to data protection. Probably where they keep their secondary data repository. So, that is outsourced. I’m also aware that some other jobs like cleaning, driver support services are outsourced to other service providers. In terms of our operations credits, we have the business development service providers. it’s not 100% outsourced. We also take application directly from customers, but this other service provider tool can also look for customers too and then process the credits and send to us for approval.”

The most frequently occurring keywords by respondents on agencies’ weaknesses and outsourced functions have been highlighted below in Table 8.11 for clarity and ease of presentation. In this section some responses mentioned by three or more participants are discussed.

Table 8.11: Summarised Responses on Agencies' Weaknesses and Outsourced Functions

AGENCY	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL	OUTSOURCED FUNCTIONS
LSMEPB	1. Capacity building of staff in the Economic Intelligence Unit capacity (3)	1. Need to strengthen the Economic Intelligence Unit to facilitate generation of useful statistics and data to assess impact (3),	1. Monitoring and Evaluation of high value projects (4)
NITDA	1. Digital innovation (3) 2. Stakeholder engagement (3)	1. Help encourage and develop digital innovation and technology (3) 2. Challenge of following through and implementation (3) 3. Need a research institute and need to improve on their research capabilities (3) 4. Improve on stakeholder engagements with ecosystem actors (3)	1. Partnership with training institutions for things like Blockchain and Coursera, CISCO, developmental partners, World Bank (3) 2. Contractors engaged for security and cleaning (3)
NCC	1. Regulatory function (4)	1. Need to be more strategic, have lighter touch regulations, and reduce approval process (5) 2. Need to focus more on consumer rights, delivering value and less on revenue generation (3) 3. Lost its independence so need to be more autonomous with no political interference (3) Need to engage with ecosystem more collaboratively	1. Facility management, security, and drivers (3) 2. Reviews, cost and market studies, and auditing process (3)
BOI	1. Need to be more digitally innovative and have more automation (3)	2. Need to lower entry barrier for other industries like creative industry to widen net for financial support and accessibility of funds (5)	1. ICT management (3) 2. Legal services, valuation services, procurement, and marketing communication (3)

AGENCY	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL	OUTSOURCED FUNCTIONS
FIRS	1. Collaboration and engagement with stakeholders (3)	1. Need to be more innovative to beyond focusing on current taxpayers by capturing informal sector to widen tax net (6) 2. Need to improve technology for data analytic and audit tools across offices (4) 3. Need to improve on stakeholders' engagement and hasten dispute resolution time (3)	1. Some technical training conducted by retired and ex-staff (3) 2. IT management and training (3)

To start off with, for the LSMEPB, three respondents each from the internal and external participants stated that the agency's economic intelligence unit needed strengthening to facilitate the generation of useful statistics and data to assess impact of initiatives in the state. When considering the outsourced areas of the agency's work, three internal respondents attested that the agency outsourced the monitoring and evaluation of high-value projects to companies with the relevant expertise.

For NITDA, three of its internal respondents stated that the agency needed to be better in the area of digital innovation and stakeholder engagement. The external respondents, whilst also mentioning the need to encourage and develop digital innovation added the challenge of following through and implementation as an area the agency needed to improve. Additionally, the internal respondents indicated that NITDA outsourced their training functions by partnering with institutions like the IMF, The World Bank and technology skills training companies like Coursera.

In the case of NCC, four internal respondents mentioned its regulatory function as an area that required improvement, whilst the external interviewees also mentioned the need for more 'strategic' and 'lighter touch' regulations. Also, the external respondents indicated that the increased political interference in the decisions of the NCC was an area of concern that is affecting the NCC's independence. The internal respondent went further to add that the areas where they mostly outsourced were the security, drivers, and facility management functions.

BOI's internal respondents mentioned its top weakness as the need to improve its digital innovation, whilst five of the external respondents stated that the agency needed to reduce the barrier of entry to enable many more industries benefit from fundings. Also, the outsourced area, according to internal respondents is ICT management. Finally, three of the FIRS' internal respondents mentioned that they needed to improve in the area of collaboration, whilst all of the external participants stated overwhelmingly that the agency needed to improve in widening the tax net. The internal respondents went further to state that though a lot of their training was done in-house, the teaching faculty were made up of former retired staff. Other weaknesses and outsourced areas have been captured in Table 8.11

8.10.2 Analysis of Interview Responses on the Agencies' Weaknesses and Outsourced Functions

The areas for improvement presented in section 8.10.1 and Table 8.11 by respondents were quite specific to each agency. Nevertheless, when considering outsourced functions, it was established that generally the agencies did not subcontract their core functions. However, the core functions were outsourced when they needed to upscale projects such as to cover more geographic areas for inspection, monitoring, and evaluation of specialised projects; also, for when they require more specialised expertise such as technical verification for job completed or verification of land collateral documents provided for loans. According to the respondents, the other areas that the various agencies outsourced services were project management, training for their staff and skills, capacity building for the ecosystems, events, retreats and conferences management, facility management, fleet management, cleaning, and security services.

8.11 FINDINGS IN RELATION TO THE SECOND SUB-RESEARCH QUESTION – ORGANISATIONS

Examining how these public organisations build, deploy and sustain the relevant dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems for citizens required the assessment of the nine factors discussed in sections 8.2 to 8.10 above namely: organogram and structure, public administration, human resource management, working relationship

with ecosystem, working relationship with social partners, organisational core functions, proactive vs reactive work, critical success factors, strengths, weaknesses, and outsourced roles. The links between these factors and the second sub-research question is discussed here.

The first characteristic revealed is the ways the Weberian system is evident within the agencies on the basis of key features such as a hierarchical structure, functional specialty, management by rules and a meritocratic recruitment system (Weber, 1919). Also, the decentralised organisation structure that exist in these agencies allows for speed in problem solving and the possibility for staff to communicate their inputs to their leaders making them feel part of the decision-making process (Robbins and Judge, 2013). This implies that the structures are only simple or complex to the extent that they allow for velocity to enable the achievement of organisational objectives. However, though there exists separate departments, there were cross-functional learnings and collaboration across units. This aligns with the arguments by scholars that advocate flexible structures for effective running of public organisations (Christensen and Lægreid, 2014). It is pertinent to note that while it is equally possible for agencies that are successful to have very similar organograms as there is a myriad of variables that could affect the success or failure of a public sector agency in its mandate, it is still important to spotlight the organisational structures as the foundation upon which some level of efficiency and effectiveness occurs.

The existence of a robust public administration human resource management (PAHRM) system is the second characteristic that comprise: recruitment, equipping staff for work, performance management system (PMS), and remuneration. To start off with, though recruitment is mostly done meritocratically by these agencies, there were concerns raised regarding cases of increasing political interference and nepotism, which they claim may begin to affect the quality of candidates being recruited. This is flagged as an inhibitor of dynamic capabilities later in section 11.3.1 of Chapter 11. Nevertheless, whilst highlighting these areas of demerit that are found in the selected successful organisations, it is pertinent to note that this study's main focus is to explore the role played by dynamic capabilities in the selected agencies

and not to investigate the incidents of nepotism in the recruitment and performance appraisal processes of these agencies or less effective organisations.

The next factor is training, and it is provided in a variety of ways – in-house, external, and on-the-job to ensure that staff's capacity is built to a high standard. The transfer of 'know-hows' and 'know-whys' by trained staff enable the entrenchment of capabilities in the agencies' systems (Zollo and Winter, 2002). Thus, the learnings from the trainings that occur at different levels of these agencies enables the accumulation of the collective pool of knowledge and skills that build highly competent, capable organisations (Marengo, 1992). The importance of training for the building of dynamic capabilities is also supported by arguments by Kattel and Mazzucato (2020,2021) who posit that public organisations need to have in place capacity to adapt and learn, and capacity to facilitate inter- and intra-governmental learning and coordination at different levels of government in order to align their mission objectives with emerging societal needs.

The implementation of robust PMSs is another important factor under the PAHRM. It allows these agencies to ensure that the various organisations' capabilities are sustainable as their staff are being held accountable for the job they do. When it comes to performance assessment within these agencies, as presented in section 8.3.1.3 and Table 8.3, it was noted that all of them had in place performance appraisals and evaluations that are based on clearly defined KPIs and organisational balanced score cards. When it comes to final factor under PAHRM, staff remuneration, the research showed that the agencies employed other means of rewarding staff such as foreign trainings and provision of mortgage and loans which were vital to motivating them to meet their agencies' goals.

The third characteristic is the interactions and the relationships between these five agencies and their ecosystems. Examining this factor indicates that they proactively create systems to manage these stakeholders and ensure that their needs, to the extent of their various scopes, are met. Analysis of their interview responses reveal that such systems are put in place based on a need to correctly assess situations, map out challenges, and define clear structures for value provision. The system here

could be the provision of a clear template for other agencies to submit their plans alongside a timetable for ministries to adhere to as noted in Table 8.5 for LSMEPB. It could also take the form of consultation for policy developments, reviewing stakeholders' complaints, or setting stakeholder engagement forums as a precursor to creating policies or reforms.

The fourth characteristic is the fact that the various agencies have interactions and collaborations with social partners. This is an indication that the government, through these public institutions is interested in working with different partners for positive social outcomes (Nair, 2018). The collaboration of the agencies with both private sector and social partners allows co-creation of value to take place at different levels of society.

The fifth characteristic studied is the agencies core functions which demonstrate the different roles in implementing infrastructure for the government as market-shaping and market-fixing actors. For instance, BOI's collaboration with Enterprise Development agencies and partners to source funds to loan businesses and FIRS collaborating with different accounting firms and tax authorities to provide for tax education and awareness to companies for improved tax collection are illustrations of their roles as market-shaping agencies. Whilst NITDA, NCC and FIRS roles in setting standard guidelines and frameworks, implementing policies and regulations for national goal congruence are examples of market-fixing roles.

The sixth characteristic examined is the fact that these agencies' internal respondents indicated that their organisations work mostly in a proactive manner. This aligns with the argument that for any strategic leadership to be goal-oriented and yield the required outcomes, it needs to be innovative, pre-emptive, and most importantly, proactive (Argungu, 2004; Ishola, 2021).

The seventh characteristic evaluated is the existence of domain knowledge, technical skills, and core values – such as integrity and professionalism – as critical for the thriving of dynamic capabilities. The existence of robust leadership and systems such as reliable performance management systems that reward staff with training and good

remuneration packages are also critical and contribute to the building, thriving and sustaining of dynamic capabilities per Spanó et al (2024). This point was highlighted by respondents from NITDA who mentioned that the current agency head had influenced the transformation of the agency into a 'high-velocity agency' which translated into them receiving a national award from the president for being the most productive agency in the country in 2022.

The eighth characteristic is the different identified unique strengths possessed by these agencies. These strengths plus the critical success factors are further classified into categories of dynamic capabilities and revisited in Table 11.1 in Section 11.3.

Finally, in examining the positive characteristics of these agencies, it was important to also consider their common areas of improvements. One observation is the perceived need to further expand certain practices already in place such as their stakeholder management tactics and their use of digital technology. In other words, they are conscious that more can be done even in areas where they have done well in the past once again birthing the perceived need for agencies to break their own records. On one hand, their need to improve data gathering and research practices also reveals the increasing need for data-led policy formulation and the challenges that can ensue as a result of a lack of it. The weakness around political interference can also be analysed here. Hood and Dixon's (2013) emphasis on the need for managerial autonomy also plays out here as agencies cited political interference as a weakness. While complete autonomy may not be attained as all the agencies work towards the overall good of the citizens, country or economy, it is important for democratic governments to create systems that allow their public institutions to act on their research-based understanding of the needs of their core stakeholders and ecosystem without undue interference. Finally, the challenge around failure to follow through on plans and strategies takes us back to the fact that dynamic capabilities cannot be fully assessed in government without clear evaluation of the agencies' outputs and outcomes.

8.12 SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to present and analyse the findings from the interview sessions carried out to address the second sub-research question under 'Organisations' of the ROAR framework: *How do these public organisations build, deploy and sustain the relevant dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems for citizens?* This was done by examining interview questions relating to nine factors to enable the mapping of the various agencies' characteristics: organogram and structure, public administration human resource management, working relationship with ecosystem, working relationship with social partners, organisational core functions, proactive vs reactive work, critical success factors, strengths, weaknesses, and outsourced roles. Their organisational structures were presented in a bid to conceptualise the flow of their operational tasks. Respondents were asked to state where and how their staff were mostly recruited, their strategies around equipping staff for work, the nature of their core functions, amongst others. These different characteristics of the agencies provided perspectives on how they are organised for solving their peculiar problems. The resulting dynamic capabilities have been classified and discussed in Chapter 11.

To aid understanding of the insights obtained, verbatim responses were first presented to provide context into how keyword groupings were made before being analysed using relevant conceptual and theoretical frameworks. This chapter revealed that all of the agencies are predominantly proactive in pursuing their mandates and solving the challenges for which they are set up as much as 75% of the time. They are also deliberate about evaluating performance based on clearly defined Key Performance Indicators (KPIs), working with their ecosystems, and increasing their knowledge. Additionally, given their strengths in section 8.9.2, which includes their ability to generate revenue and set policies, it can be inferred that they are indeed capable of solving the problems.

Finally, the findings in relationship with the second sub-research question reveal that although the agencies have some strong characteristics that contribute to the building, deploying and sustaining of dynamic capabilities, the weakness around political

interference and nepotism can derail these positive characteristics and potentially inhibit the thriving of dynamic capabilities.

CHAPTER 9: PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INSIGHTS ON ASSESSMENT – EVALUATION OF PUBLIC SECTOR INSTITUTIONS’ ACHIEVEMENTS AND OUTPUTS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

Both this chapter and the next present and analyse responses on the third sub-research question: *How do these public sector dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value?* While this focuses on responses on the ‘Assessment’ part of the ROAR framework, while Chapter 10 assesses the “Risks and Rewards” component of the framework. This chapter evaluates the outputs and performance of the agencies by asking respondents interview questions on their agencies’ achievements between 1999 and 2023, while Chapter 10 explores the public value created by the agencies.

As was done for Chapters 7 and 8, the actual quotations from a few respondents are first highlighted to provide a sense of what was said in response to the interview questions posed in section 9.2. Afterwards, the responses are summarised based on the most frequently occurring keywords and themes for ease of presentation in Table 9.1 and then some of these collated responses are highlighted in the proceeding texts and in Venn diagrams – Figures 9.1, 9.2, 9.3, 9.4, and 9.5 per agency. Subsequently, further analyses are done in section 9.3 and the findings in relation to the third research question are discussed in section 9.4 before the chapter summary in section 9.5.

9.2 PRESENTING THE INTERVIEW RESPONSES ON ASSESSMENT OF THE AGENCIES

In response to the question on their agencies’ achievements, internal respondent CR6-I’s and external respondent ER4-E’s verbatim responses relating to the NCC and FIRS, respectively, were as follows:

Respondent CR6-I speaking about NCC notes that: “Well, I will say, the licensing of the digital mobile licences and the conducting of the auction is an achievement. These were acknowledged world-wide that the processes were very transparent, because before then, a number of African countries had tried to auction their spectrum and a lot of them ended in dispute in the court, because of the kind of processes that were used. So, Nigeria that time, was one of the success stories in terms of the auction process. The auction process was very transparent, and we had little or no interference from government of the day at that time. There was actually no interference.”

Referring to FIRS, respondent ER4-E explains: “Oh yeah, the technology. Yeah, I mean obviously what that has done is that the FIRS has deployed technology. So, what we’ve seen is that a lot of companies are able to catch up with the FIRS, because you need to file your returns online. A lot of companies are also investing in technology and what that does, of course, is that it has boosted technology even in Nigeria. We are talking about tools that are locally developed, not just tools that are brought in from the US.”

Table 9.1 below summarises the most recurring responses given by the internal respondents on the achievements and by the external respondents on the outputs identified in the agencies over the years.

Table 9.1: Summarised Responses on Agencies’ Achievements and Outputs

AGENCIES	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
LSMEPB	1. Improved budgeting and long-term planning system (5) 2. Increased automation and improved digitisation/ICT (3) 3. Integrated fund-raising approach (3) 4. Development of social and wealth creation programs (3) 5. Increased budget size that is centrally controlled (3) 6. Improved work culture and staff capacity (3) 7. Annual Ehingbeti economic summit with wide reach and over 92% execution rate (3)	1. Implementation of infrastructure and projects across the state such as schools, roads, hospitals, and provision of micro-credit for small businesses (4) 2. Implementation of Ehingbeti Economic Summit resolutions (3) 3. Robust development plans for the state and ensure MDAs plans align with the state’s priorities (2) 4. Improved budgeting process and budget size (2)

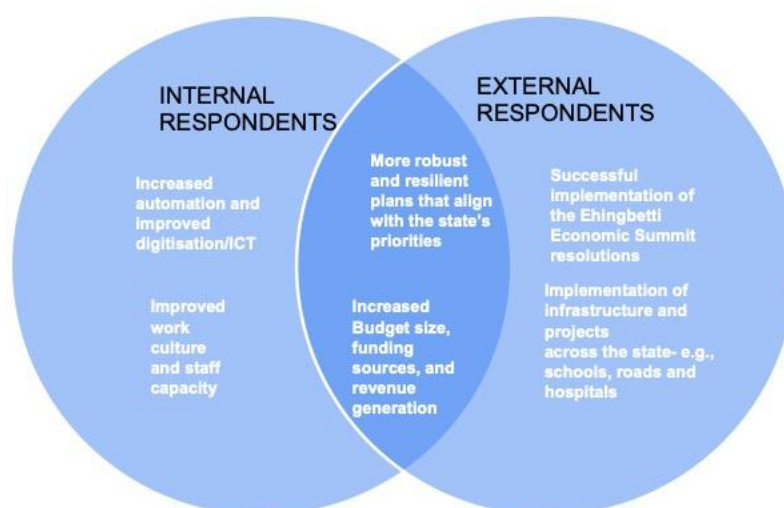
AGENCIES	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
NITDA	1. Provision of nationwide digital training and capacity building projects (7) 2. Provision of regulations such as data protection regulation (5) 3. Facilitate access to big data for solutions provision and digital transformation (e.g., identity management, digitising agriculture sector, infrastructure support, business and SME support) (4) 4. Increased employment and business opportunities, youth support and mentorship and learning centres (4) 5. Reduction in bureaucracies and transformed to high velocity agency, and honour of National Productivity Order of Merit Award by the president (2) 6. National digital economy strategy and policy document (2)	1. Policies and regulations (4) 2. Public institutions procurement of digital services, digital literacy and cyber security education (3) 3. Provision of basic computer tools and projects across the country (2) 4. Public internet access (2)
NCC	1. Transparent licence and auction processes – 3G, 4G and 5G (4) 2. Mobile access and penetration-Availability, accessibility, and affordability of telecommunications (3) 3. Growth In different sectors including Fintech, banking, education, health (2) 4. Improved regulatory processes and regulations (2)	1. Emergence of successful industry players (3) 2. Regulations and legislations and policies (2) 3. Development of successful industry players (2) 4. Growth in other sectors such as Fintech (2) 5. Significant revenue generation from annual operating levies (AOL) (2)
BOI	1. Provided loan support to entrepreneurs at low rate and emergence of successful companies (5) 2. Raising and mobilisation of funds through international collaborations and partnerships (3) 3. Job creation and employment (3) 4. De-risking of certain areas in the economy by provision of support to the movie industry and developing the local manufacturing, development of the food and beverage sector and made-in-Nigeria automobile (3)	1. Affordable loans and grants to businesses (5) 2. Agency staff provide advisory services (2) 3. Implemented awareness campaigns and advertisements on TV (2)
FIRS	1. Increased citizen participation in tax payment and Increased revenue generated to be used to build infrastructure (4) 2. Increased awareness on the need to pay tax (3) 3. Increased productivity from computerised environment and digitised operations (3)	1. Technology – in-house developed Tax Pro Max for filing (6) 2. Updated tax laws, tax education, tax offices (3) 3. Holding online meetings and webinars and trainings using social media platforms (2)

9.2.1 Assessment: LSMEPB's Achievements and Outputs

To start off with, Table 9.1 shows that the LSMEPB's internal respondents mostly mentioned the improved budgeting and long-term planning system as an achievement of the agency. On the other hand, the external respondents cited the implementation of infrastructure across the state as a direct output that arose from LSMEPB.

To further fragment the summarised responses, Figure 9.1 below shows that LSMEPB's internal respondents identified two unique achievements. The first being that there has been increased automation and digitisation within the agency. The second point highlighted was the fact that there has been improved work culture and staff capacity resulting in transformational changes within the agency. Similarly, the external respondents highlighted two main outputs. Firstly, that the agency had successfully rolled out and implemented recommendations from the economic summit, *Ehingbeti*, over the years. Secondly, the external respondents stated that the agency's activities have led to the implementation of infrastructure such as schools, roads, and hospitals across Lagos state.

Figure 9.1: ROAR FRAMEWORK- ANALYSING RESPONSES ON ASSESSMENT OF LSMEPB'S ACHIEVEMENTS AND OUTPUTS



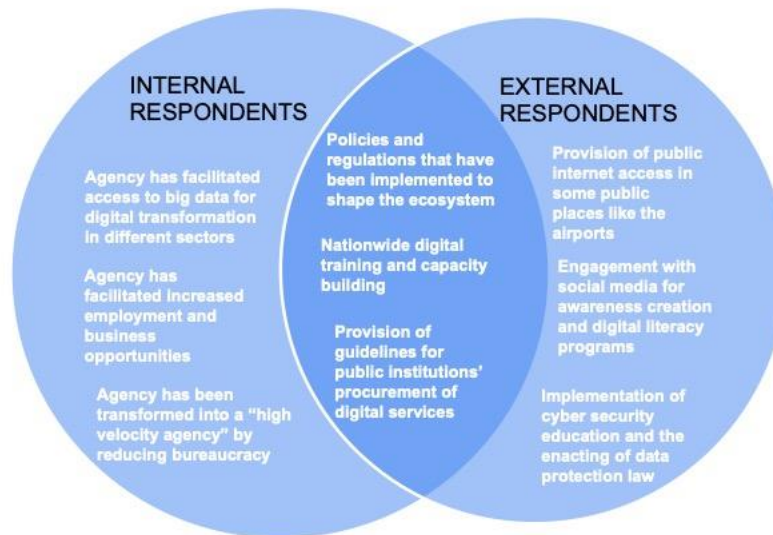
Source: Developed and Compiled by author

Figure 9.1, however, illustrates that both internal and external respondents acknowledged the fact that the agency is responsible for the emergence of more robust and resilient plans for its ecosystem that align with the state's priorities. Both also attested to the fact that there has been increased budget size, revenue generation and borrowing capacity, more access to variety of funding sources, as well as improved budgeting and planning systems as achievements associated with LSMEPB.

9.2.2 Assessment: Agency NITDA's Achievements and Outputs

Per the second row of Table 9.1, according to NITDA's internal respondents, the provision of nationwide digital training is a major achievement, whilst the external interviewees referred to the policies and regulations as their top output. Figure 9.2 below summarises the responses from the internal respondents on the achievements of NITDA over the years and the outputs identified by its external stakeholders. Firstly, the internal participants stated that the agency had facilitated access to big data that enabled digital transformation and solutions in different sectors such as identity management, the agriculture sector, infrastructure support, and small and medium enterprise (SME) support. Secondly, the agency has facilitated increased employment and business opportunities owing to the support provided to the youth through mentorship programmes and learning centres. Thirdly, there has been a reduction in bureaucracies as the agency has been transformed into a 'high velocity agency' resulting in it receiving the National Productivity Order of Merit award by the President in 2022.

Figure 9.2: ROAR FRAMEWORK- ANALYSING RESPONSES ON ASSESSMENT OF NITDA'S ACHIEVEMENTS AND OUTPUTS



Source: Developed and Compiled by author

Also illustrated in Figure 9.2, the first output noted by the external respondents is that the agency had enabled the provision of public internet access in some public places like airports. The second point is that the agency had engaged with social media for awareness creation and digital literacy programs. Thirdly, the external respondents indicated that the agency's implementation of cybersecurity education and the enacting of data protection law has been well received in the ecosystem.

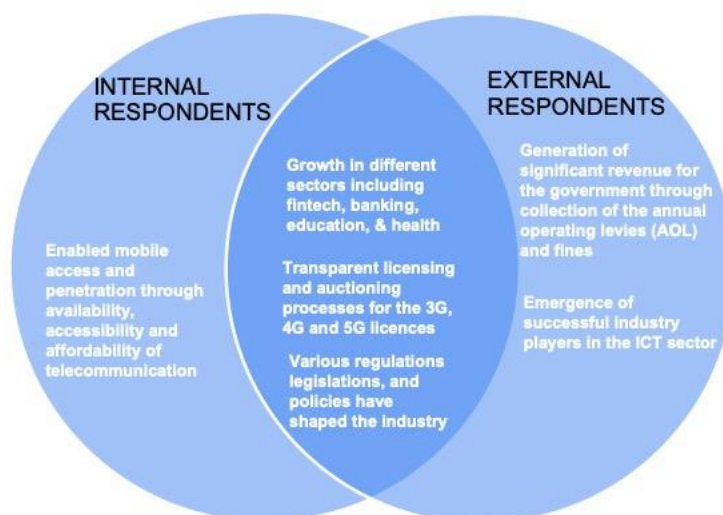
Jointly, the internal and external respondents highlight the fact that the policies and regulations that have been implemented by the agency have helped shape the ecosystem. They both cited the data protection Act that led to the formation of the new commission, the Nigeria Data Protection Commission. Secondly, they both attested to the fact that the building and provision of basic computer tools and projects across the country have enabled digital training, capacity building/development, and data protection regulation. Thirdly, the respondents agreed that the agency's provision of guidelines for public institutions' procurement of digital services helped save the government money.

9.2.3 Assessment: NCC's Achievements and Outputs

Referring to the third row of Table 9.1, NCC's internal respondents stated that the transparent licensing processes were the top achievement of the agency. Conversely, the external respondents indicated that the emergence of successful industry players are NCC's top output.

As shown in Figure 9.3 below, the internal respondents primarily identified the fact that NCC's activities enabled the telecommunication industry to provide mobile communication and penetration by ensuring availability, accessibility, and affordability of telecommunications services and products. On the other hand, the external respondents first acknowledged the fact that the agency generated significant revenue for the government through collection of the annual operating levies (AOL) and fines from telecommunication operators. The external participants go further to state that the emergence of successful industry players in the telecom sector is a major output for the agency.

Figure 9.3: ROAR FRAMEWORK – ANALYSING RESPONSES ON ASSESSMENT OF NCC'S ACHIEVEMENTS AND OUTPUTS



Source: Developed and Compiled by author

Per Figure 9.3, the first common response regarding NCC's achievements and outputs given by both internal and external interviewees is that the agency has enabled growth

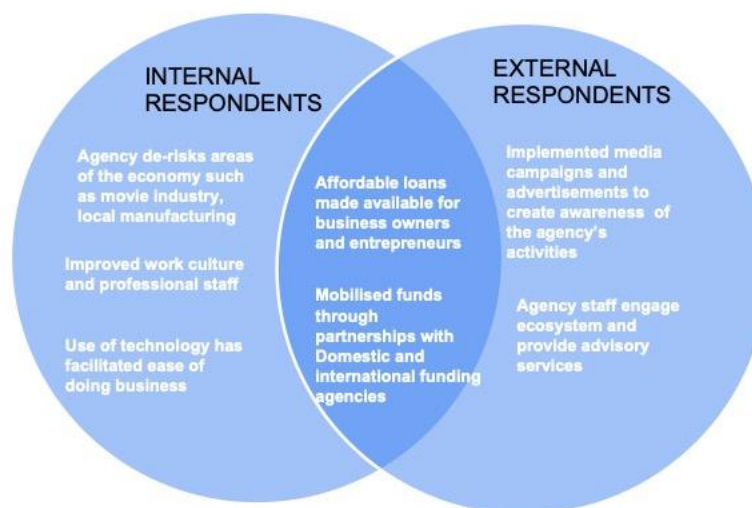
in different sectors including fintech, banking, education, agriculture, security, and health. Also, that the agency, in collaboration with the National Identity Management Commission enabled the issuance of national identification numbers for citizens. Secondly, they both acknowledged that the agency ran a transparent licensing and auctioning process for the 3G, 4G and 5G licences. Finally, according to both respondents, the agency's regulatory processes was benchmarked in Africa; they also note that the agency has been identified as one of the leading regulators in Africa because of its successful and transparent processes.

9.2.4 Assessment: BOI's Achievements and Outputs

In the case of BOI on the fourth row of Table 9.1, both the internal and external respondents indicated the provision of low-rate loans to entrepreneurs, which has led to the emergence of successful businesses, as the top achievement.

Figure 9.4 below summarises the responses by both the internal and external respondents on BOI's achievements and outputs. The first point noted by the internal respondents is the fact that the agency continues to de-risk certain areas in the economy by supporting sectors such as the movie industry, local manufacturing, automobile industry, and the food and beverage sector. Secondly, the internal respondents noted that the agency had been transformed because of the work culture and the high level of professionalism of its staff. Thirdly, the internal respondents revealed that the introduction and wide use of technology along different parts of its processes is a major achievement for the agency.

Figure 9.4: ROAR FRAMEWORK- ANALYSING RESPONSES ON ASSESSMENT OF BOI'S ACHIEVEMENTS AND OUTPUTS



Source: Developed and Compiled by author

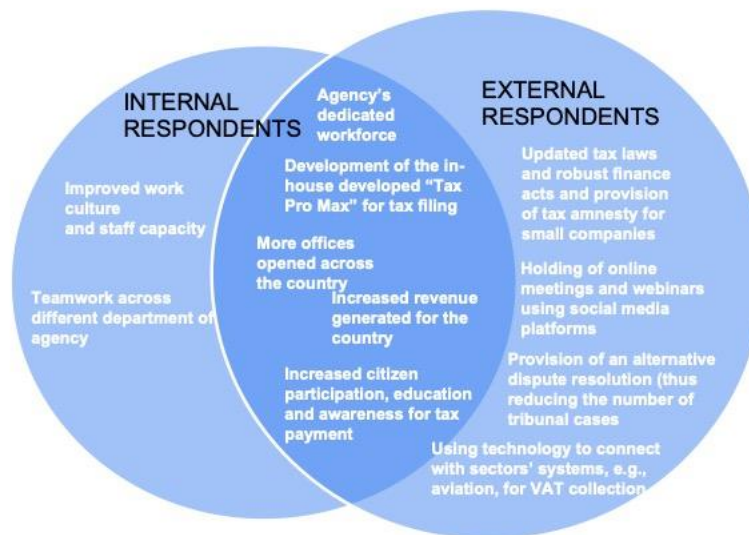
Conversely, the external respondents per Figure 9.4 mentioned the fact that the agency had launched several media campaigns and advertisements that have gone out to create awareness for the general public on the agency's activities. They also acknowledged the role of the agency's staff in providing advisory services for the ecosystem to enable their businesses to thrive. Nevertheless, both the internal and external respondents noted that the agency successfully made available loans and grants for business owners and entrepreneurs at affordable rates. They also attested to the fact that the agency continues to successfully raise and mobilise funds through partnerships with international funding agencies to enable the provision of affordable loans for entrepreneurs.

9.2.5 Assessment: FIRS' Achievements and Outputs

As for the FIRS per the fifth row of Table 9.1, its internal respondents stated that there had been an increase in revenue available to build infrastructure in the country as a result of collections from citizens as the agency's top achievement. The external respondents on the other hand, indicated that the agency in-house development of technology to enable the easy filing of taxes was the top achievement.

Per Figure 9.5 below, the internal respondents noted the improved work culture and staff capacity as major achievements for the agency. Additionally, they acknowledged the fact that the different departments worked collaboratively on different assignments as one team, thereby reducing the likelihood of duplication of efforts. On their own part, the external respondents first remarked on the updated tax laws and robust finance acts as major outputs from the agency. The second output is the holding of online meetings and webinars using social media platforms.

Figure 9.5: ROAR FRAMEWORK – ANALYSING RESPONSES ON ASSESSMENT OF FIRS’ ACHIEVEMENTS AND OUTPUTS



Source: Developed and Compiled by author

Figure 9.5 shows the third output to be the provision of an alternative dispute resolution system, which has led to the reduction of the number of tribunal cases. The fourth output acknowledged by the external respondents is that the agency's use of technology has enabled it commence integration into certain sectors like the aviation industry's systems for the calculation and prompt collection of VAT.

When considering the information provided by both internal and external respondents, Figure 9.5 reveals several key insights. Firstly, both groups acknowledged the high level of dedication demonstrated by the agency's professional workforce. Secondly, respondents highlighted the development of the in-house *Tax Pro Max* platform, which enables businesses to file and pay taxes more efficiently. Thirdly, the widespread

presence of tax offices across the country was mentioned, ensuring that businesses have convenient access to tax services. Fourthly, the agency's efforts have led to increased citizen participation in tax payment and greater awareness of tax obligations, driven by capacity-building sessions and public awareness campaigns. This improvement in awareness was further supported by tax education initiatives, including training programs and the promotion of university tax clubs. Fifthly, these efforts have contributed to increased revenue collection, which supports national infrastructure development.

9.3 ANALYSING THE INTERVIEW RESPONSES ON ASSESSMENT: ACHIEVEMENTS AND OUTPUTS OF THE AGENCIES

In general, section 8.3.1.3 in Chapter 8 discussed the use of key performance indicators to assess the performance of staff. Also, the respondents mentioned in section 8.6.1 that the agencies' core functions involve monitoring and evaluation of the activities of that take place in their various ecosystems.

Regarding the achievements of these agencies, respondents' feedback highlights their infrastructural power – defined by Mann (1984) as the ability to implement physical, organisational, and administrative systems and structures, either directly or indirectly through their ecosystems, to enable government to manage citizens, maintain social cohesion, and generate sustainable revenue. Some examples of the physical infrastructure structures enabled by these agencies are LSMEPB facilitating the implementation of key infrastructure and projects such as the building of schools, roads and hospitals; NITDA providing digital labs across the country, and BOI and FIRS using of in-house technology for more efficiency of their work for both internal and external stakeholders.

In terms of organisational infrastructure, examples include the implementation of policies and regulations by NITDA and the NCC to shape the ICT and telecommunications industries, while also enabling growth in related sectors such as banking, health, and education. Another example is the mobilisation of funds by BOI through partnerships with domestic and international funding agencies to provide

loans to businesses. Additionally, examples of administrative infrastructure include increased automation and enhanced digitisation/ICT at the LSMEPB, which have improved operational efficiency; the transformation of NITDA into a 'high-velocity agency' through reduced bureaucracy; and improved revenue assessment mechanisms – such as tax collection by the FIRS, annual operating levies by the NCC, and better loan recovery by the BOI – all of which have contributed to higher revenue generation by these agencies.

9.4 FINDINGS IN RELATION TO THE THIRD SUB-RESEARCH QUESTION – ASSESSMENT

To assess how dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value, it was first necessary to identify and analyse the achievements and outputs of the case agencies, as outlined in Sections 9.2 and 9.3. The analysis revealed the infrastructure power of these agencies by illustrating their ability to either directly or indirectly implement physical, organisational, and administrative systems and structures for the benefit of the country. Some examples have been illustrated in Section 9.3.

Furthermore, towards assessing the third sub-research question, this study revisits Laaksonen and Peltoniemi's (2018) approach. While it is best suited for the private sector, the study recognises its applicability in a public-sector context. As noted in section 3.4.2.2 where four categories were identified to aid the measuring and operationalising of dynamic capabilities such as managers' evaluations on performance of firm, financial data and performance, company's experience, actions and performance over the years, as well as managers' or employees' experience, actions, and performance, it was noted that the results of these enquiries reveal the existence of capabilities within a firm that produce positive performance and outcomes. Findings from internal and external stakeholders confirm that the achievements of the agencies align with Laaksonen and Peltoniemi's emphasis on value creation, stakeholder engagement, and outcome-oriented performance. These results indicate the presence of dynamic capabilities that support positive organisational performance and the delivery of tangible outcomes.

However, to fully answer the third sub-research question, the analysis needs to extend beyond the achievements identified in this chapter. The next step, explored in Chapter 10, involves tracing the public value created by examining a series of interview questions on the problems solved by the agencies, how they were solved, the effects of the agencies' outputs on their ecosystems, and the social values created by the different agencies.

9.5 SUMMARY

This chapter aimed to present and analyse respondents' feedback on the outputs and achievements of the agencies over the years, focusing on the 'Assessment' component of the ROAR framework towards answering the third sub-research question: *How do these public sector dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value?*. To this end, respondents were asked how they assess the performance of the agencies, with each agency highlighting its own distinct activities in pursuit of its stated objectives. Direct quotations from selected respondents were included to illustrate their perspectives and the feedback, gathered from both internal and external participants, was then summarised in Table 9.1, together with the frequency of each response by an agency. Corresponding Venn diagrams (Figures 9.1 to 9.5) were used to visualise overlapping and divergent assessments. These diagrams revealed a broad alignment in views between internal and external respondents, while also highlighting a few unique perspectives specific to each group.

The analysis of these findings, presented in Section 9.3, revealed the range of physical, organisational, and administrative infrastructures implemented by the agencies.

Finally, the findings in relationship with the third sub-research question reveal that, though the agencies' achievements were identified as illustrations of infrastructure power of the public organisations, the findings from Chapter 10 are critical to completely answering the third sub-research question.

CHAPTER 10: PRESENTING AND ANALYSING INSIGHTS ON RISKS AND REWARDS OF THE PUBLIC SECTOR INSTITUTIONS

10.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and analyses responses on the ‘Risks and Rewards’ component of the ROAR framework to completely answer the third sub-research question: *How do these public sector dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value?* For the purpose of this study, the agencies’ ‘Risks and Rewards’ will be explored by sequentially asking respondents a series of interview questions on the problems solved by the agencies, how they were solved, the effects of the agencies’ outputs on their ecosystems, and the social values created by the different agencies. The roles played by the agencies equate to the risks taken; while the rewards are represented by the value created.

10.2 PRESENTING THE INTERVIEW RESPONSES RELATING TO RISK AND REWARDS

This section summarises the interview responses provided by the external respondents to map out the social value created by the various agencies. To start off with, the narratives provided by two external respondents, AR6-E from LSMEPB and CR2-E from NCC are presented verbatim to provide a sense of how the participants answered the series of questions to trace the social value created to the identified solved problems. Subsequently, sections 10.2.1 to 10.2.5 accompanied by Figures 10.1 to 10.5 illustrate the collated summarised presentation of the problems identified in each ecosystem, how they were solved, and the link between their resolutions and the effects they have on the ecosystem, as well as the values created by the ecosystem participant organisations.

Respondent AR6-E's narrative on LSMEPB

Solved Problem

"If you ask me, so from history, I think it's always been around lack of planning that was rampant in Nigeria. If you remember the first time it was set up was 1999 when we went back to democratic rule under the current president as the executive governor of Lagos State. He set up that ministry because one thing was clear: planning was lacking, budgeting was lacking under the military rule, and they needed to put that structure together for the government. So, yes in solving societal problem, a better structure around planning and budgeting to make sure the government is able to provide solutions across many societal issues"

How LSMEPB Solved Problem

I think it has been able to help streamline a lot of things, and I think one for me is the budgeting process; annual budgeting process, because if you understand that everybody can build pies in the sky about what they want to do every year, but by the time you sit in front of Economic Planning and Budgeting team, and they will understand priority areas so there is a lot of budget trimming. I think that's very important in terms of success when you think about it from that angle, when you think about it from helping, sometimes bringing a lot of stakeholders to the table and explaining government's priorities and helping them align with government's priorities. I think it has been one thing that has helped Lagos State government demonstrate a lot around transparency about issues, willingness to discuss and listen and provide results as required from the side of government, because very clearly government needs every player. It's never going to be government alone. Government can be big on enabling environment, but they are going to need every other sector, every other player to do their own bit. But if the government is not listening, you're going to have those issues. I think MEPB has done a lot in making sure that happens. And I think that has really helped Lagos State. And I think most other States are now copying that in the sense that you want to have those dialogues, you want to make sure that people are able to contribute, and you are able to demonstrate that you are able to provide the results that they need to be able to do their own bit from the side of government."

Effect of LSMEPB's Output

"The development plan is one definitely. But there's something else – resolution from Ehingbeti. And the idea is that every resolution by the next Ehingbeti must have been implemented – the government must have done their own part of that deliverable. So, I think this is always very credible – as it is tracked. So, for example, if in 2021 Ehingbeti had 95 resolutions, the government can say we've done 90 and maybe we are left with 5. The tracking of those outputs to make sure that the results are there that it was not just a talk shop.

Social Value Created

"So, I think for us, it's how they've actually been able to critically help us with a number of partnerships, for example, GIZ and that's the German – they facilitated that for us very quickly and we were able to sign a global agreement at State level. GIZ doesn't work with only us, they work with other government ministries but that was a critical deliverable that MEPB came on board and made sure that it was delivered quickly. And for us to gain other partnerships with 'Big Green Philanthropy' in the UK. We've actually also facilitated the signing of that MOU. And for us again, we've always defended our budget and I think to a large extent MSMEs have always been prioritized because they are the engine of growth for the Lagos State government and for job creation."

Respondent CR2-E's narrative on NCC

Solved problem and how the problem was solved

"I'm sure you've heard this a million times, we had only 500,000 phone lines in 2001. I can't remember the population then but there was a big problem at the time. At that time, we had a monopoly NITEL, which was the state-owned telecom operator, so the Government realised that they needed to improve the sector, attract more investment so that the sector can grow, you know, and get more players. So, that was the key focus then – how do you get more investment into this sector to multiply, build enough infrastructure, so that more and more Nigerians and more people can actually be able to use basic telecom services, that was it at that time. So, to that extent, today, you have over 120 million lines. Tele-density is probably close to 100% to that extent, I

think NCC has achieved a great milestone, which we've seen the industry transform. In less than 15 years, we got the right players into the market, they injected capital, and they built companies that we Nigerians and a lot of us were involved in that, we grew the industry and Nigeria has been better off for it as well as basic telecom services are concerned. So, I think to that extent the NCC will continue to be a shining light by transforming an industry, you know, and it was done pretty quickly between like 2001, in 10 years, the whole industry was actually buzzing. So that was quite an achievement and I think it's not a small achievement, though it's easy to overlook it. I mean, look at what is happening to electricity, nothing has been happening there for 18 years. So, you must give the NCC some kudos, or at least the government some kudos for what they've been able to achieve. So that was then, I think, now, it's really about, how do you ensure that we build enough broadband infrastructure such that a lot more Nigerians, a lot more people in the populace can now be connected to and enable them, you know, improve their lives economically, socially, and the likes. So, I think that's the kind of new challenge, the new frontiers of challenges that I think the NCC has."

Effect of NCCs Output and Social value created

"I think that the biggest impact has been in terms of you know, I mean, if you think about economic and social life in this country since 2001. So, just having communications available to us has been quite significant in terms of just having a functional phone. 20 years ago, it was a luxury, and I think it's easy for us to forget, but today anybody can go by the roadside and get a functional line and actually start communicating.

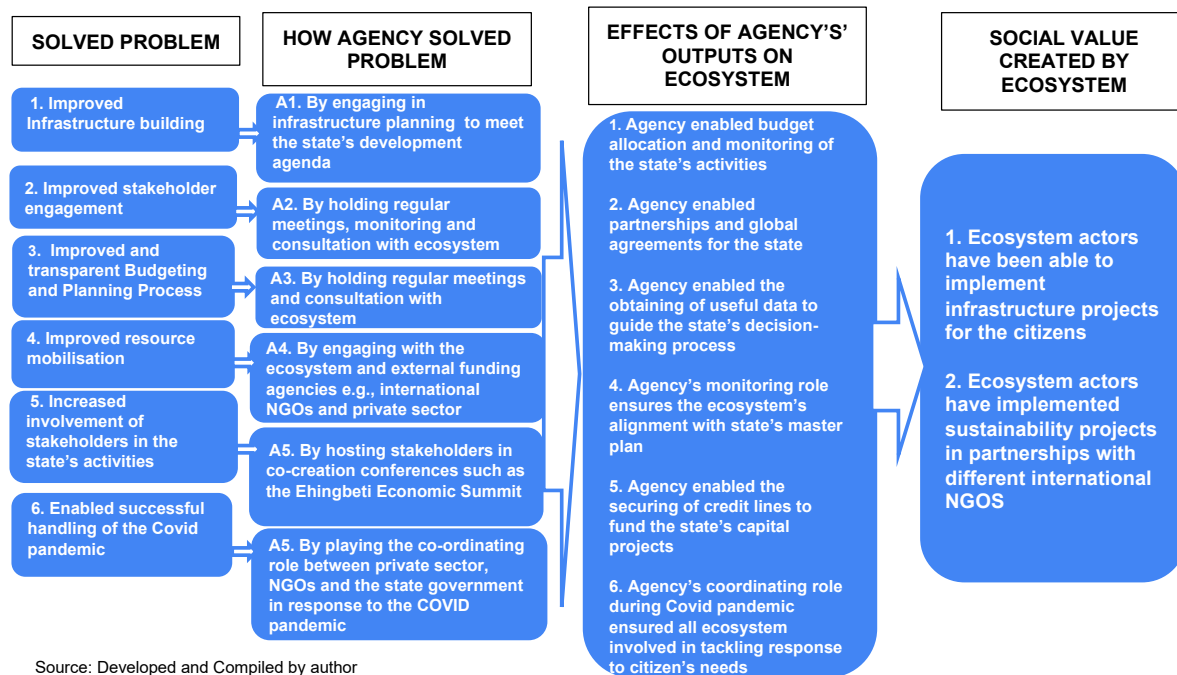
So, the power of communication is significant - and I don't even want to talk about what the digital side has done - and all is just huge in terms of being able to unlock economic opportunities. Everybody is now doing business online, people are interacting. I'm talking to you on Zoom, I sit on a couple of boards, and I attend only one board meeting physically, you know. It's all over the world. People are getting things done online. It's difficult to quantify, it's significant. It's significant. Just getting a communication system working and an industry like this working, we can always talk about it can be better, yeah, that's life, there's always improvement but I think today,

where Nigeria is in terms of just access to communications and what communication technology enables people to do in their everyday social and economic life is, it's just massive, it's a great story, and again, I think just so we don't, and I try to draw parallels, because sometimes we can easily forget how much this industry has achieved. So, I think it's a great story about how an industry can work if you have the right kind of focus. Government has put in the right kind of focus, getting the regulatory agency to work, attracting the right kind of investment, you know, and in parallel again, actually, you look at the power industry, they have been liberalised since 2005, and you can see there is almost no improvement. So, I think there's a lot to be to be happy about. There's a lot to celebrate about. I think sometimes the industry and the NCC does not get enough credit and I think that it's something worth trumpeting."

10.2.1 Risk and Rewards – Tracing LSMEPB Social Value

The first two columns of Figure 10.1 depict six major problems mentioned by the external respondents in LSMEPB's ecosystem and how they were solved by LSMEPB's activities. For instance, the infrastructure gap in the state which respondents note is being solved by LSMEPB's engagement in long-range infrastructure planning that align with the state's development agenda and the production of the Lagos state development plan. The fourth problem solved is the improvement of resource mobilisation. This problem was solved by the agency engaging with its ecosystem and external funding agencies such as private sector organisations and international NGOs.

Figure 10.1: ROAR FRAMEWORK- RESPONSES ON RISK AND REWARDS- TRACING LSMEPB'S SOCIAL VALUE



The effects of the activities of LSMEPB on the ecosystem is summarised in the third column of Figure 10.1. For example, respondents noted that the agency facilitates budget allocation and activity monitoring, enables partnerships and global agreements with international agencies, and plays a strategic oversight role – described by one respondent as a 'strategic policeman' – to ensure alignment with the state's master plan.

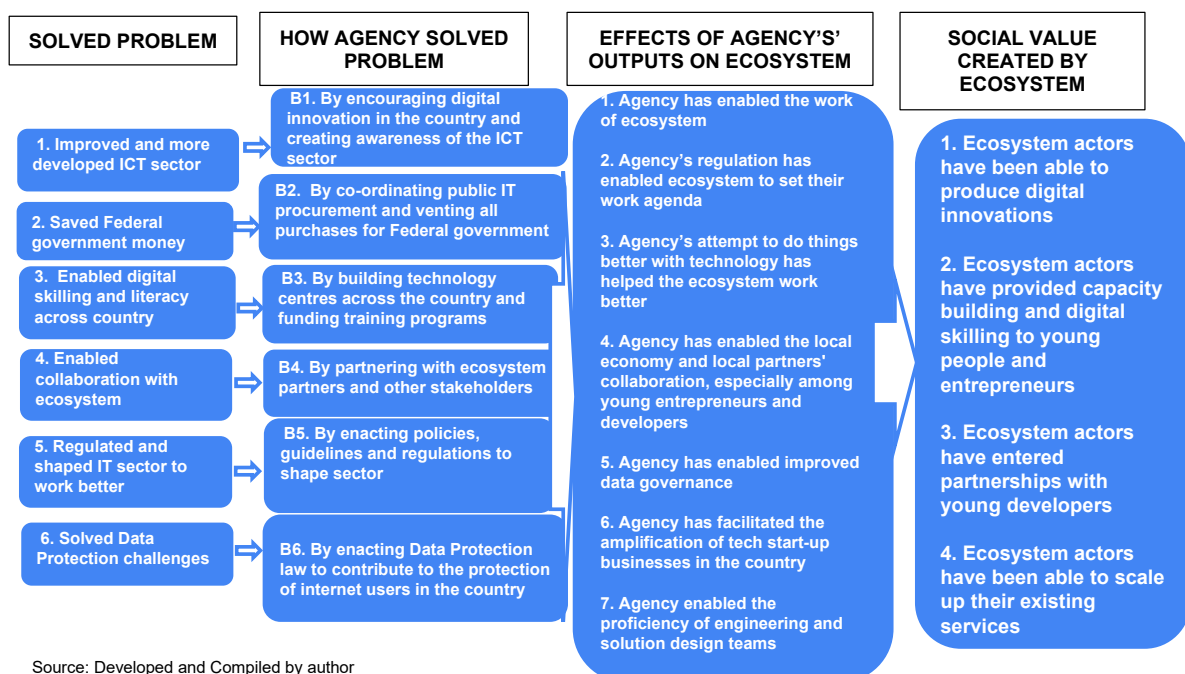
Finally, the fourth column of Figure 10.1 contains the summary of the social value created by the ecosystem participants due to LSMEPB's activities. The respondents first stated that they have been able to implement infrastructure projects for the citizens. Secondly, the respondents declared that they were able to implement sustainability and environmentally friendly projects in partnerships with funders like the UK and German governments.

10.2.2 Risk and Rewards – Tracing NITDA'S Social Value

The first two columns of Figure 10.2 outlines six major problems mentioned by the external respondents in NITDA's ecosystem and how they were solved by NITDA's activities. For example, the activities of NITDA resulted in the development of the ICT

sector by promoting digital services and creating awareness about the potential of ICT. Another example relates to the third problem in Figure 10.2, which states that the agency enabled digital skilling and literacy across the country by building technology centres across the country and by holding capacity workshops for the citizenry. The respondents also noted that NITDA has enabled collaboration with the ecosystem by partnering with ecosystem partners and stakeholders to roll out initiatives across the country.

Figure 10.2: ROAR FRAMEWORK – RESPONSES ON RISK AND REWARDS – TRACING NITDA’S SOCIAL VALUE



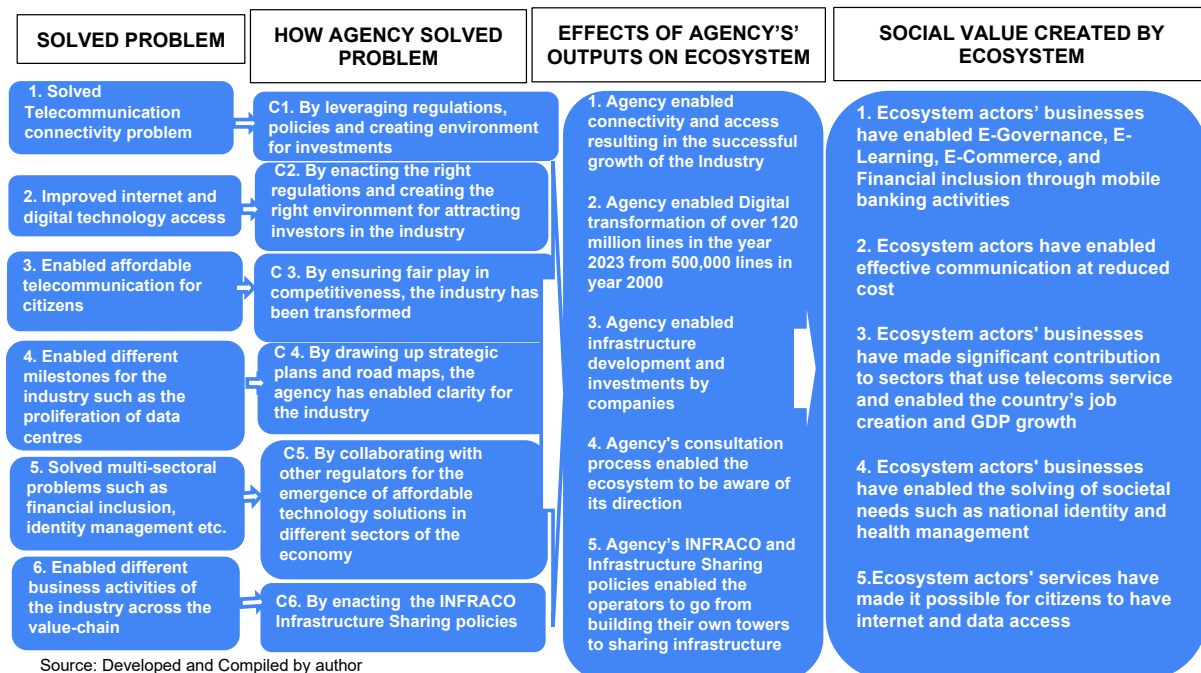
When considering the impact of NITDA’s activities on the ecosystem, as shown in the third column of Figure 10.2, respondents highlighted that the agency’s improved access has supported the ecosystem’s functions and that its focus on technology has enhanced overall efficiency. Additionally, respondents noted that NITDA has played a key role in strengthening tech start-ups and boosting the expertise of local engineering and solution design teams working as IT engineers and technology solution designers across the country.

Consequently, the respondents identified four major value areas depicted on the last column of Figure 10.2. Firstly, the respondents stated that they have been able to produce digital innovations through collaborations with other private sector participants. Secondly, the respondents have provided capacity building and digital skilling to young people and entrepreneurs. Thirdly, the respondents indicated that they have entered into partnerships with young developers for the development of the country's digital economy. Fourthly, the respondents stated that they have been able to scale up existing services for their customers resulting in technology uptake and expansion.

10.2.3 Risk and Rewards – Tracing NCC'S Social Value

Figure 10.3 illustrates six main problems mentioned by the external respondents in NCC's ecosystem and how they were solved by NCC's activities as identified by the external respondents. For instance, respondents indicated that NCC contributed to solving connectivity problems in the country which has resulted in the building and improvement of telecoms infrastructure. This was done by NCC leveraging regulations, policies, and guidelines to create a conducive environment for investments and growth in the industry. Additionally, respondents noted that the agency has made telecommunications more affordable by effectively managing the industry and promoting fair competition. They also highlighted the agency's collaborative efforts with regulators across multiple sectors, which have helped solve cross-sector challenges such as identity management and financial inclusion through the development of innovative technology solutions.

Figure 10.3: ROAR FRAMEWORK- RESPONSES ON RISK AND REWARDS – TRACING NCC’S SOCIAL VALUE



The respondents identified five major effects on the ecosystem on the third column of Figure 10.3. For example, the respondents stated that the agency’s activities have enabled connectivity and access resulting in the successful growth of the industry with over 120 million mobile telephone lines in 2023 from less than 500,000 lines in 2000. Also, the agency is acknowledged to have enabled infrastructure development and investments by companies and the consultation processes employed before the passing of regulations have helped prepare stakeholders better for upcoming policies.

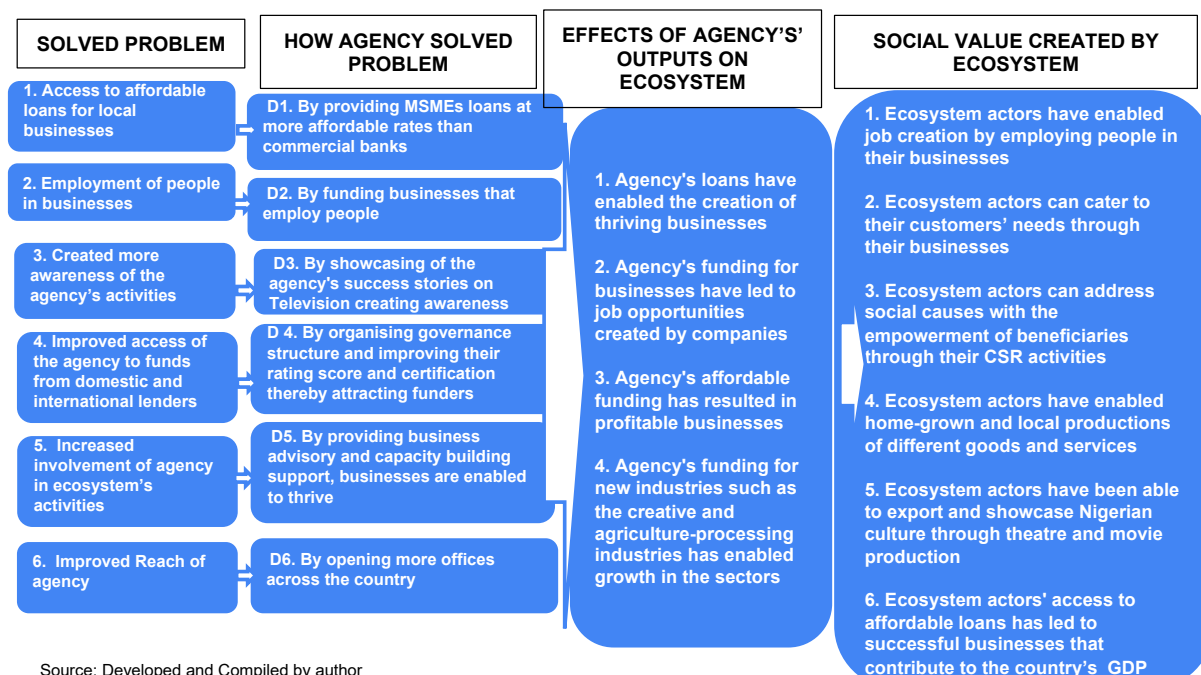
Consequently, as shown in the last column of Figure 10.3, there are five major areas identified as value created by the ecosystem due to the activities of NCC. To start off with, respondents stated that their businesses have enabled growth in several sectors that use telecoms services, e-governance, e-learning and e-commerce. The respondents stated that their businesses have impacted on the transformation of the banking sector and enabled financial inclusion through mobile banking activities. Secondly, the respondents reported that their activities have enabled effective communication and reduced cost of communication for customers. Thirdly, respondents declared that their businesses have facilitated job creation and made significant contribution to the country’s GDP. Fourthly, the respondents stated that

their businesses have enabled the solving of societal needs such as national identity management, traffic and health problems in the country. Fifthly, the respondents indicated that their services have made it possible for citizens to have internet and data access.

10.2.4 Risk and Rewards – Tracing BOI's Social Value

The first two columns of Figure 10.4 highlight six major problems identified by external respondents within the BOI ecosystem and how the agency's activities addressed them. For instance, respondents emphasised that the provision of affordable loans has helped overcome funding challenges for entrepreneurs, with the agency's success reflected in the number of micro, small, and medium enterprises it has supported over the years. Additionally, respondents noted that BOI has gained greater access to funds from international lenders by improving its governance structure and credit rating to attract investors. The agency has also strengthened its role within the ecosystem by offering business advisory services and capacity-building support, enabling businesses to thrive.

Figure 10.4: ROAR FRAMEWORK- ROAR FRAMEWORK – RESPONSES ON RISK AND REWARDS- TRACING BOI'S SOCIAL VALUE



The third column of Figure 10.4 reveals four major effects on the ecosystem. For example, respondents noted that the agency's loans and grants have facilitated the

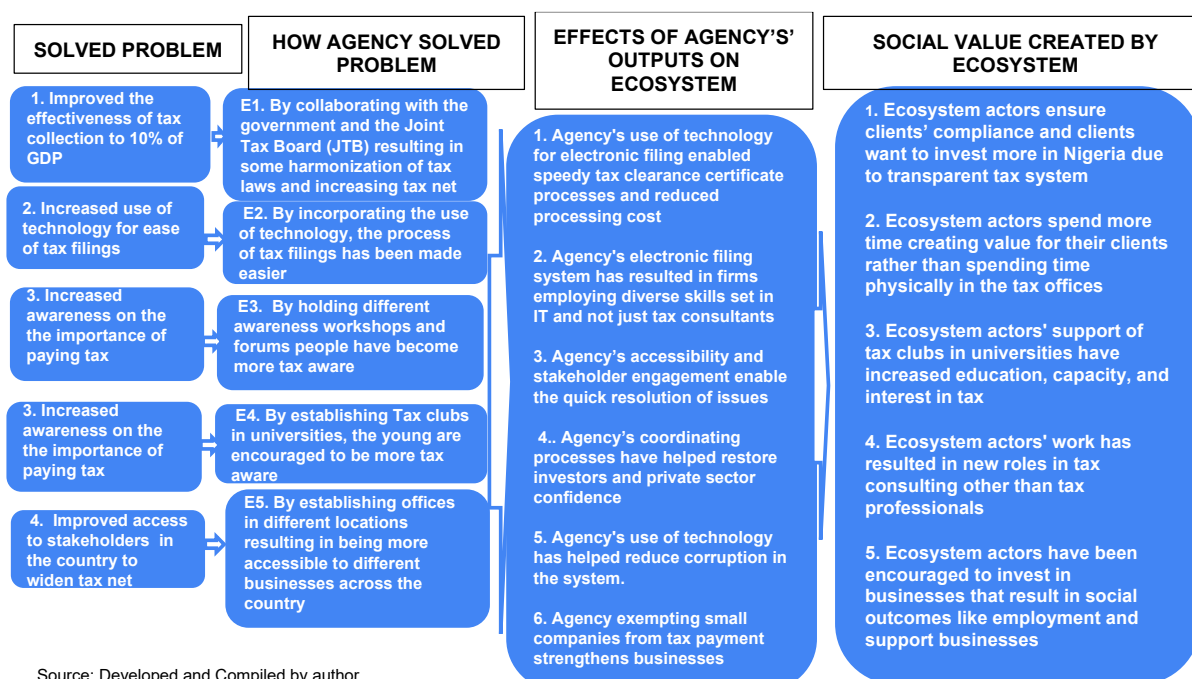
creation of thriving, profitable businesses nationwide and have provided entrepreneurs with opportunities to generate jobs – particularly in emerging sectors like the creative and agriculture-processing industries, which previously had limited access to funding.

Consequently, respondents identified six main areas of value created by the ecosystem, as shown in the fourth column of Figure 10.4. Firstly, respondents within the BOI ecosystem noted that they have facilitated job creation by employing people in their businesses. Secondly, they emphasised their ability to meet customers' needs through their various businesses. Thirdly, involvement with BOI has enabled respondents to address social causes by empowering beneficiaries through corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities. Fourthly, respondents highlighted BOI's role in promoting home-grown and locally produced goods and services. Fifthly, funding provided to the agriculture-processing and creative industries has supported the promotion of Nigerian culture through the export of packaged food products, as well as theatre and film productions. Finally, the provision of affordable loans has contributed to the growth of successful businesses that add to the country's GDP.

10.2.5 Risks and Rewards: Tracing FIRS' Social Value

The first two columns of Figure 10.5 highlight five major problems identified by external respondents within the FIRS ecosystem and how the agency addressed them. For example, respondents noted that FIRS' efforts significantly improved tax collection efficiency, raising the tax-to-GDP ratio from under 6% to 10% in 2023. However, they also suggested that the agency should leverage the Joint Tax Board (JTB) platform to better capture the informal sector within the tax net. Additionally, respondents praised FIRS for simplifying tax filing through the adoption of technology. The agency was also recognised for increasing public awareness about the importance of tax compliance by organising various workshops and forums.

Figure 10.5: ROAR FRAMEWORK- RESPONSES ON RISK AND REWARDS – TRACING FIRS’ SOCIAL VALUE



The respondents identified six key effects on Agency E’s ecosystem, as illustrated in Figure 10.5. For example, the introduction of technology for electronic filing has accelerated the processing of tax clearance certificates and reduced costs for companies, making it easier to do business. This electronic filing system has also led firms to hire a more diverse set of IT skills – not just tax consultants – and has helped restore confidence in the system among investors and the private sector.

The final column of Figure 10.5 highlights six main areas of value created within the ecosystem, as identified by respondents. Firstly, respondents noted that the agency promotes a culture of compliance with tax laws among its clients, including large multinational corporations. Secondly, transparent and favourable tax policies have encouraged increased investment in Nigeria. Thirdly, the improved tax filing system allows firms to spend more time creating value for their clients rather than visiting tax offices in person. Fourthly, respondents’ support for tax clubs in universities has boosted education, capacity, and interest in taxation, attracting fresh talent who become advocates for compliance. Fifthly, the automation of the tax filing system has created new roles in tax consulting beyond traditional tax professionals. Finally, the

passing of the Petroleum Industry Bill has stimulated investment, resulting in positive social outcomes such as employment generation and business support.

10.3 ANALYSING THE INTERVIEW RESPONSES ON RISKS AND REWARDS

This section contains the analysis of the risks and rewards of the agencies, following the presentation of the interview responses given by the external respondents in section 10.2 above. These responses enabled the exploration of the possible linkages between the agencies' roles and activities as well as the social value created by the ecosystem partners because of the agencies' activities. Furthermore, as discussed in section 4.5.2 of chapter 4, for the purpose of this study, the roles played by the agencies are considered as the risks they have taken. Also, the responses on the social value the ecosystems created because of the activities of the relevant agencies is considered equivalent to the public value created by the agencies themselves.

10.3.1 Analysing The Risks Taken By The Agencies

Table 10.1 was collated for the analysis of the 'Risks' aspect of the ROAR framework for these agencies. The first column of Table 10.1 below has been lifted from Figure 7.1 in Chapter 7 that summarises the summarised six main purposes, which align with the main problems solved by the agencies. The second column of Table 10.1 contains the collated and summarised problems solved for all the agencies taken from Figures 10.1, 10.2, 10.3, 10.4, and 10.5, whilst the third column contains the cross-referenced responses given by the respondents on how the problems were solved per agencies. For example, considering the first purpose on the first row – the need to solve the infrastructure gaps in the various agencies' ecosystems, the respondents indicated that the agencies contributed to building infrastructure for the sector. The different responses were provided on how each agency solved the infrastructure problem. Here, LSMEPB's role involved their engaging in infrastructure planning to meet the state's development agenda. NITDA encouraged digital innovation in the country by creating awareness. The NCC drew up strategic roadmaps to enable the industry to collaborate with other regulators for technology solutions in different sectors of the economy. The BOI provided MSMEs affordable loans for their businesses to solve infrastructure

problem and open more offices to increase their reach. The FIRS collaborated with the Joint Tax Board to ensure tax harmonisation for the widening of the tax net for increased collection and opened more offices to increase tax collection so that collected tax revenue can enable government build infrastructure.

Table 10.1: Analysing The Agencies' Risks

PURPOSE	OUTCOME FROM PROBLEM SOLVED	HOW AGENCIES SOLVED PROBLEM
1. To solve infrastructure gaps in agencies' ecosystems for accessibility, affordability, and availability	1. Agencies contributed to sectoral development and the building of infrastructure	1. By engaging in infrastructure planning to meet state's development agenda (A1). 2. By encouraging digital innovation in the country and creating awareness of sector (B1). 3. By drawing up strategic plans and road maps, the agency has enabled clarity for the industry (C4). 4. By collaborating with other regulators for the emergence of affordable technology solutions in different sectors of the economy (C5). 5. By enacting the INFRACO policy for sharing infrastructure (C6). 6. By providing MSMEs loans at more affordable rates than commercial banks (D1). 7. By opening more offices across the country (D6). 8. By collaborating with the government and the Joint Tax Board (JTB) resulting in some harmonisation of tax laws and increasing tax net (E1). 9. By establishing offices in different locations resulting in being more accessible to different businesses across the country (E5)
2. To solve societal inequality and unemployment problems within agencies' ecosystems	1. Agencies contributed to solving employment and inequality within ecosystem	1. By co-ordinating role between private sector, NGOs and the state government in response to the COVID pandemic (A5). 2. By building technology centres across the country and funding training programs (B3). 3. By funding businesses that employ people (D2).
3. To organise agencies' economic activities through structures	1. Agencies played roles in regulating and coordinating economic	1. By enacting the right regulations and creating the right environment for attracting investors in the industry (C2).

PURPOSE	OUTCOME FROM PROBLEM SOLVED	HOW AGENCIES SOLVED PROBLEM
and coordinated activities	activities within their ecosystems	2. By ensuring fair play in competitiveness, the industry has been transformed (C3). 3. By collaborating with other regulators for the emergence of affordable technology solutions in different sectors of the economy (C5).
4. To create awareness of agencies' activities	1. Improved awareness of Agencies' activities	1. By holding regular meetings and consultation with ecosystem (A2). By hosting stakeholders in co-creation conferences such as Ehingbeti Economic Summit (A4). 2. By encouraging digital innovation in the country and creating awareness of sector (B1). 3. By showcasing of agency's success stories on television creating awareness (D3). 4. By holding different awareness workshops and forums people have become more tax aware (E3). 5. By establishing tax clubs in universities, the young are encouraged to be more tax aware (E4).
5. To build stakeholders' capacity around agencies' activities	1. Agencies facilitated capacity building of ecosystem	1. By hosting stakeholders in co-creation conferences such as Ehingbeti Economic Summit (A4). 2. By building technology centres across the country and funding training programs (B3). 3. By partnering with ecosystem partners and other stakeholders (B4). By providing business advisory and capacity building support, businesses are enabled to thrive (D5).
6. To contribute to the economic development of the country	1. Enabled revenue generation for the country	1. By engaging with ecosystem and external funding agencies e.g., international NGOs and private sector (A3). 2. By co-ordinating public IT procurement and venting all purchases for Federal government (B2). 3. By collaborating with other regulators for the emergence of affordable technology solutions in different sectors of the economy (C5).

Also, considering the third purpose – the need to solve societal inequality problems, LSMEPB's respondents cited the COVID example, and the role the agency played in coordinating the activities of the state in response to the pandemic resulting in minimal casualty level. NITDA's respondents reported on the technology centres built across the country and the training programs funded for citizens to increase digital literacy, whilst the BOI is reported to have funded businesses that employed people. This same approach can be used to analyse the remaining societal gaps and purposes outlined in Table 10.1 to explore the roles played by the various agencies, which are considered to be the risks they have taken.

10.3.2 Analysing The Agencies' Rewards

To analyse the 'Rewards' aspect of the ROAR framework for these agencies, this section refers to the third and fourth columns of Figures 10.1 to 10.5 in section 10.2 which represent the effects of the roles played by the agencies on their ecosystem and the social value created by these ecosystems respectively, according to the external respondents. As discussed in section 4.5.2 of chapter 4, the public value created by the ecosystems are the long-term benefits or social value (Mazzucato, 2016) produced by the stakeholders as result of the activities of the agencies. All the participants in the LSMEPB's ecosystem are public institutions, whilst the other agencies' external respondents are all from the private sector firms. Nevertheless, the identified effects on the ecosystems and the social value created per ecosystem due to the roles played by the agencies are very sector specific thereby showing that similar actions lead to different changes in the society. For example, as shown in the third and fourth columns of Figure 10.2, NITDA's activities supported the ecosystem in several ways. Its regulatory efforts enabled the ecosystem to set strategic agendas, foster collaboration between developers and entrepreneurs, enhance data governance, and improve the proficiency of engineering and solution design teams within the country. As a result, the ecosystem generated social value by delivering digital innovations, providing digital skills training for young people, and forming partnerships with young entrepreneurs to scale their services. This same approach can be used to trace the social value created by the other agencies.

In measuring the impact of the resulting outputs of these agencies' activities, this study aligns with Bozeman's (2007) argument that public value is achieved when targets or set objectives are reached. However, the fact that value has been created due to the roles played by these government agencies in shaping their industries and ecosystems for positive societal outcomes and more inclusive societies, aligns with Mazzucato's and Ryan-Collins' (2019, 2022) attestation that public value is created collaboratively. Furthermore, Osborne et al's (2022) argument that value creation in the society is an interactive process is evident here as it involves the collaboration between the agencies, the ecosystem participants, and other different societal actors to meet the needs of citizens and societies. Thus, these public agencies create public value by working collaboratively with different sectors to achieve set goals and missions that solve societal challenges (Mazzucato, 2013).

10.4 FINDINGS IN RELATION TO THE THIRD SUB-RESEARCH QUESTION – ORGANISATIONS

Building on the findings in Chapter 9 which established that the selected agencies possess significant infrastructural power and dynamic capabilities to deliver tangible outputs, this chapter extends the assessment by tracing how those outputs translate to public value creation. Using the challenge-led framework proposed by Mazzucato (2018a, 2021) and process tracing methods (Morgan, 2016; Trampusch and Palier, 2016), the analysis links the societal gaps addressed by the agencies to the long-term social value generated within their ecosystems. This meant that the identified societal gaps that represent the agencies' purposes are linked to the outcomes and social value created by the ecosystem participants. Process tracing was employed to explore sequence of events that contribute to the creation of social value. External respondents were asked a series of questions tracing from a known point A – the identified societal gaps – to a known outcome B – the social value created by the ecosystem participants (Morgan, 2016; Trampusch and Palier, 2016). This method contributes to the opening of the 'black box of causality' to enable the answering of the third sub research question: *How do these public sector dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value?* For this study, 'smoking-gun' tests were applied to confirm connections by demonstrating that specific actions (the agencies'

interventions) led to observable effects (outcomes in the ecosystems and the resulting social value) (Collier, 2011).

The 'Risks' component of the ROAR framework (Section 10.3.1) was operationalised by mapping the problems solved by the agencies against the ways in which these problems were addressed. Whilst the 'Rewards' dimension (Section 10.3.2) was analysed through the observed effects on the agencies' ecosystems and the resulting social value, as reported by external respondents. These rewards were highly sector-specific, illustrating that similar types of intervention can yield different societal outcomes.

Finally, the findings in relation to the third sub-research question show that ecosystem participants were able to link the societal challenges addressed by each agency to the creation of long-term social value within their sectors. This perceived value – whether in improved infrastructure, enhanced industry capacity, increased inclusion, or strengthened institutional collaboration – is directly linked to the agencies' activities and interventions. Consequently, these results demonstrate that public sector dynamic capabilities can contribute to enabling public organisations to generate measurable public value through sustained collaboration with their ecosystems.

10.5 SUMMARY

This chapter aimed to present and analyse respondents' feedback on the 'Risks and Rewards' component of the ROAR framework towards answering the third sub-research question: *How do these public sector dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value?* It explores the interview responses provided by respondents on the problems solved by the agencies, how they were solved, the effects the agencies' outputs on their ecosystems and the social values created by the different agencies. Some narratives of participants were presented verbatim to offer context into how they answered the series of questions to trace the social value created to the identified solved problems before being summarised. Here, the concept of social value was revisited in practical terms to conceptualise what value means across the different agencies studied.

The process of sharing risks and rewards among social actors was analysed in Section 10.3. The roles played by the agencies are viewed as the risks they undertook, while social value encompasses both the outcomes achieved by the agencies themselves and the benefits generated by ecosystem partners as a result of the agencies' activities. The study thus offers a nuanced understanding of how agency efforts translated into both tangible and intangible benefits, highlighting the relationship between public sector risk-taking and the value created within their ecosystems.

Finally, the findings in relationship with the third sub-research question reveal that the linking of societal challenges addressed by the agencies to the value created by their ecosystems illustrates the contribution of public organisation's dynamic capabilities to the creation of public value.

CHAPTER 11: CRITICAL DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUDING REMARKS ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PUBLIC SECTOR DYNAMIC CAPABILITIES AND PUBLIC VALUE IN NIGERIA

11.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research was to explore how relevant public sector dynamic capabilities are built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria. This study focused on the executive branch of the Nigerian government which contains the public organisations that are responsible for executing government policies and providing public services. The interest in this study arose from arguments which assert that for states to develop robust economies, their governments need to build dynamic capabilities (Mazzucato and Kattel, 2020, 2021) and that sub-Saharan countries should not rely on external aids (Chang, 2008, 2010a; Moyo, 2010). It also came from the fact that despite the implementation of several developmental plans and civil service reforms since independence in 1960, Nigeria remains classified as a developing country. Thus, this chapter discusses how the study answers the main research question that asks: *How are relevant public sector dynamic capabilities built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria?* It examines the interplay between the role of the public sector and the resulting societal outcomes by exploring the connection between the dynamic capabilities of the public organisations and the creation of public value in the society for citizens in Nigeria, which ultimately births national development.

The political economy analysis in chapter 2 showed that different governments in Nigeria recognised the critical role played by the public sector in the execution of the country's development plans through the implementation of several reforms in the civil service over the years. However, the resultant effect of the various reforms is Nigeria's classification as a hesitant reformer (Adamolekun, 1999, 2005). Scholars ascribe poor performance of the Nigerian public service to factors such as focus on input process-oriented business models instead of focus on outcome-based models, gap in

capability and skills, lack of execution accountability, poor performance monitoring and reporting, poor remuneration, corruption, and weak governance structure (Olaopa, 2012b, 2019a; Olalekan, Olayinka and Omotayo, 2016). Still, some scholars insist that there are pockets of effectiveness within the Nigerian public service that facilitate the country's development (Olaopa, 2022). This assertion influenced the purposeful selection of the public organisations for this research namely: the Nigerian Communication Commission (NCC), the National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA), the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS), and the Bank of Industry (BOI) at the federal level and the Lagos State Ministry of Economic Planning and Budget (LSMEPB) at the sub-national level. Section 5.2.2 in Chapter 5 describes in detail the selection criteria for the agencies which includes the fact that they demonstrated track records in achieving transformational change and positive societal outcomes between 1999 to 2023. Also, as discussed in chapters 4 and 5, 1999 was selected as the starting year of analysis for the study because it marked the commencement of Nigeria's return to continued democratically elected political leadership with the Fourth Republic Constitution (Yagboyaju, 2011). This is critical because scholars argue that public sector's capabilities and successes are linked to a strong drive for reform by the political leadership and the civil service (Tilley *et al.*, 2015).

As previously noted, this study was employed a qualitative research approach and a case study methodology. Drawing from the main research question, the study focuses on three core components: the state of Nigeria, public sector dynamic capabilities, and societal outputs, outcomes, and public value creation. These three areas were mapped to three areas of literature discussed in Chapter 3. Also, as discussed in section 5.3.2 of Chapter 5, these three parts of the research question provided the overarching basis for formulating the three sub-research questions, which in turn enabled the framing of the three sections of the interview questions that were directed at the internal and external respondents. The interview questions were put to the participants from the five selected public agencies that were engaged in 60 in-depth interview sessions. These participants are highly credible and knowledgeable individuals from inside and outside the five agencies of study who have insights on the activities that take place within the ecosystems of the different organisations. The selection of these individuals has been discussed extensively in Chapter 5 and their

amalgamated responses have been presented and analysed in chapters 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10. The calibre of the interview participants and their relevance to the agencies are vital points to reiterate as it provides readers with assurances of the quality of the study – its validity and reliability. These respondents' responses were combined into clusters of the ROAR framework as illustrated by Figure 5.2 in Chapter 5 to address the main and sub research questions. The responses were also validated using information from analysed documents. Thus, this chapter explores the main research question by discussing the findings that were analysed using the ROAR framework. It also addresses the limitations of the study, proffers recommendations, and discusses implications of the study to the public sector and theory, then ends with concluding remarks.

11.2 USING THE ROAR FRAMEWORK TO SUMMARISE THE AGENCIES' CHARACTERISTICS

Mazzucato's (2018a) ROAR framework cuts across 'Routes' which explores the role of the state in setting direction, 'Organisations' which covers public sector organisations abilities to develop and solve societal problems, 'Assessment' which covers how public organisations are evaluated, and 'Risks and Rewards' which assesses the process of sharing risks and rewards across social actors. The analysed findings under each of the ROAR components are now discussed here to describe the agencies' characteristics as a background to understanding how public sector dynamic capabilities are built, deployed and sustained in Nigeria. This section also provides contexts for the public value created by these agencies.

11.2.1 The Agencies' Roles In Solving Societal Problems

When it comes to the roles these agencies play in solving societal problems, one major theme that emerged from the study was that whilst the agencies' published mission and vision statements were not stated as problems to be solved per Mazzucato's (2018a, 2021) challenge-led approach for mission setting, these public organisations played active roles in setting directions for their ecosystems. The missions and visions were based on the organisations' intended results. However, both the internal and external participants' aligned responses revealed that these agencies played active roles and not incidental roles as market shapers to address infrastructural gaps,

unemployment, and capacity challenges in their focus areas as Mazzucato (2018b) contends. Thus, the responses provided by both the internal and external respondents demonstrate that these organisations play entrepreneurial roles that involve setting directions for their relevant stakeholders and actors. Additionally, their activities are focussed on addressing the perceived gaps in their ecosystem in collaboration with their stakeholders. This is further buttressed by the responses provided on the agencies' objectives that demonstrate that they guide the ecosystem's activities. These objectives include the overseeing of critical functions of government for societal changes, sourcing funds, issuing standards, attracting strategic partnerships, and creating enabling environments for ecosystem activities.

The ability of these agencies to set direction with defined objectives are enabled by the existence of clear organisational structures, which was evidenced in the assessment of their organograms. An important benefit of the existence of clear structures, according to Mintzberg (1983), is for there to be clear reporting lines that are supported by clear targets for the organisation. However, the study was not able to confirm how set objectives are passed down to lower levels of staff, who were not part of the study. Nonetheless, all respondents displayed vast knowledge on the role the organisations play as there were no objectives omitted by the respondents. Rather, the responses exceeded the information found on their websites.

Another important aspect of the agencies setting directions can be seen from the insights into key strategies employed by these institutions as provided by the internal and external respondents. While each agency expectedly has its specific strategic focus areas, there were some general similarities such as the creation of policy frameworks, regulations and roadmaps for their industry's activities, enabling investments, facilitating revenue generation, stakeholder management, the continuous development of human capacity, and coordination of ecosystem activities. These roles were performed on behalf of the government in line with Mann's (1984) description of a bureaucratic state. Mintzberg (1983) emphasises on the use of strategies to effectively define the position of organisations within their operating environments. In the same vein, respondents of the agencies indeed explained that their periodic holding of stakeholders and townhall meetings as well as strategic

planning sessions are part of the main strategies used in situating themselves within their ecosystems, enabling collaborations with different actors, and ensuring the attainment of their various set goals. Accordingly, agencies by ensuring active collaboration with their ecosystems in the formulation and implementation of solutions to solve problems, ensure they are operating at higher levels of the participation ladder (Arnstein, 1969) and achieving their set development agendas (Lema *et al.*, 2018; Mugwagwa *et al.*, 2018). This active stakeholders' participation is in contrast to agencies engaging in box-ticking exercises or tokenism by just informing or consulting people before or after decisions have been taken (Arnstein, 1969).

11.2.2 The Agencies' Abilities To Solve Societal Problems

The agencies' characteristics are assessed by considering nine factors: structure, human resource management, working relationship with ecosystem, working relationship with social partners, core functions, proactive vs reactive work, critical success factors, strengths, and weaknesses, and lastly, outsourced roles. While academic qualifications were not prerequisites for the selection of participants of this study, it was interesting to discover that both internal and external respondents hold a minimum of a bachelor's degree and a significant portion have advanced degrees (master's or PhD). The respondents, within each agency's ecosystem, also have diverse professional backgrounds revealing their depth of industry understanding and dependable expertise. Also, as discussed in 11.2.1 above, the agencies' organisational structures enabled the attainment of key objectives. Mintzberg (1983) suggests a divisional structure with standardised outputs to clarify the requirement from each level, which these agencies possess. Given the existence of various units and departments, the study confirms a level of decentralisation of the agencies.

Another key characteristic possessed by these agencies is the functional specialty in effectively equipping staff for their jobs by placing emphasis on continuous learning and by investing in their staff's attendance of trainings, workshops, and conferences. These organisations also hold staff accountable to communicated rules by leveraging performance management systems (PMS), appraisals, and evaluations based on clearly defined KPIs. The fact that all these agencies implemented PMS suggests the entrenchment of NPM practices in the Nigerian public sector. Additionally, the

agencies seem to place emphasis on getting the best candidates for vacant roles as most of them recruit beyond the civil service commission to ensure they have a wide spread of candidates based on job criteria. This reaffirms the postulation that the recruiting of high calibre talented people in the public sector is critical to the development of countries (Chang, 2010b).

The findings on the agencies' structures and recruitment practices highlights the persistence of Weberianness in the selected public organisations. This confirms the fact that the predominant system of bureaucracy in the Nigerian public sector is the inherited Weberian system, albeit being classified as low by Evans and Rauch in 1999 where the correlation between Weberianness of public organisations and economic development of countries were assessed. Nevertheless, some of the other observed Weberian characteristics in the selected agencies that are examples of pockets of effectiveness in Nigeria include a formal hierarchical structure, functional specialty, management by rules and meritocratic recruitment system (Weber, 1919). Consequently, their favourable performances as public organisations align with the conclusions reached by Evans and Rauch's (1999 and 2000) studies on the correlation between Weberianness and economic development. Also, as previously mentioned, their performance management systems revealed the influence of the private-sector centric new public management (NPM) practices and decentralised organisation structures in these organisations of study. This is confirmation of the influence of the neoliberal policy environment in Nigeria that is practiced in the public sector. It also corroborates assertions by scholars that public organisations in countries like Nigeria have engaged in NPM for efficiency, effectiveness and economy of scale in their organisations (Olaopa, 2017).

Additionally, the study revealed that these agencies have systems to work with and manage their stakeholders especially when it relates to the attainment of their goals in order to correctly assess situations, map out challenges, and define clear structures for value provision. The study also demonstrated that not only do these agencies have strong organisational structures and systems in place, they are also highly embedded within their various ecosystems whilst acting independently per Evans (1995). Essentially, these agencies can be said to demonstrate, to some degree, the notion of

embedded autonomy as described by Evans (1995). This means that the organisations operate as highly competent nodal agencies by coordinating the interactions between their ecosystems and the country's development agenda (Leftwich, 1995; Chibber, 2002). It also confirms that these agencies' designs and structures support bureaucracy, by providing stable services to the citizens, and dynamic capabilities, by being agile and flexible enough to tackle emerging challenges and changes in their ecosystems (Spanó *et al.*, 2024).

Another means of solving societal problems is by their working with social partners who are indeed integral to the African context in the provision of social services to citizens. The agencies have a well-managed dependency on certain social partners to provide funding and infrastructure as well as to ensure the creation of sustainable value. Consequently, the overall working relationship of these organisations with other societal actors is extremely important. This demonstrates the existence of capacities by these agencies to direct the different societal actors in their ecosystems to do what they want them to do through planning, policies and actions to enable the achievement of the targeted change and the desired outcomes for the country (Migdal, 1988).

Each of the agencies were noted to possess certain core functions which are tied to their *raison d'être*. However, given how central these agencies are within their ecosystems or industries, they are also responsible for long term planning not just for themselves but towards supporting other agencies, ministries, sectors, and citizens at large directionally. The study also revealed that they are proactive in their approach to work. The respondents explained that their agencies worked in a predominantly proactive manner 75% of the time, emphasising a clear determination to ensure they play their roles in their various ecosystems towards building infrastructure and generating sustainable revenue for the country through their coordinated activities and interactions. It was also established that generally the agencies did not subcontract their core functions. However, core function roles were only outsourced when they needed to upscale projects such as to cover more geographic areas for inspection, monitoring, and evaluation of specialised projects; also, for when they require more

specialised expertise. This means the agencies invest in acquiring and retaining in-house core skills that are required for their functioning.

The agencies were also confirmed to have regular interactions and relationships with their ecosystem participants to facilitate the implementation of both physical and organisational infrastructure, and to aid the government in managing citizens, maintaining social cohesion, and generating revenues sustainably per Mann's (1984) definition of infrastructure power. Some respondents, however, cited political interference as a weakness as the managerial autonomy of the agencies end up being negatively impacted per Hood and Dixon (2013).

Finally, in exploring the agencies' abilities to solve societal problems, it is important to note that the respondents were also asked to consider the limitations the agencies face. Some of the responses included the agencies not following through on plans and strategies, slow speed of resolution of issues, and the need for better digital innovation as areas requiring improvements. The impact of these shortcomings is further discussed in section 11.3 below. The evaluation of the agencies' outputs is done in section 11.2.3 below.

11.2.3 The Agencies' Outputs

When assessing the outputs of the agencies, it was important to understand how the public organisations are evaluated. For this, Laaksonen and Peltoniemi's (2018) approach, which is best suited for the private sector, was used to provide context for assessment and evaluation of these agencies. They cite areas such as managers' evaluations on a firm's performance, financial data and performance, company's experience, actions and performance over the years of analysis, and managers' or employees' experience and actions. Consequently, both the internal and external respondents provided responses on their assessments of the relevant selected agencies' performances. In this regard, the respondents identified achievements that centred around improved availability, accessibility, and affordability of their core mandates for the ecosystems and the country as a whole. There were also milestones achieved such as increased digitisation, increased revenue and performance, implementation of infrastructure, and other forms of increased economic activities.

The summarised responses per agency revealed unique outputs that provided insights on how the agencies were able to attain their set objectives. Thus, these noted achievements and outputs from the agencies' activities can be used as yardsticks for assessing related public organisations in future studies.

11.2.4 The Agencies Risks And Rewards Across Ecosystems

The external participants' responses regarding the agencies' risks and rewards are presented and analysed in sections 10.2 and 10.3 respectively. The study sought to get their perspectives on the possible linkages between the roles the agencies play in solving societal challenges and the creation of social value by their ecosystems. Essentially, this study aligns with Mazzucato's (2018a, 2021) challenge-led approach to solving societal problems. It considered the reported roles played by the agencies as the risks they have taken. It also equates the stated social value created by the ecosystem participants due to the activities of the agencies as the public value the agencies created. Thus, some of the identified risks taken by the agencies include their involvement in infrastructure planning, creation of awareness of their portfolios, coordination of their stakeholders' activities, and collaboration with other stakeholders towards solving the various problems in their ecosystems.

When considering the rewards attained by the agencies and the ecosystems, the study attempted to trace the created social value reported by the external respondents to the identified societal challenges. However, the social value created per agency ecosystem is sector specific. This means that similar actions taken by the different agencies, their processes, and dynamic capabilities gave rise to sector-specific outcomes and impact. One major takeaway is the fact that social value in all the agencies' ecosystems were mostly created through collaboration between the public organisations and their stakeholders. Ultimately, these agencies were responsible for directing public value creation across their ecosystems to solve societal challenges. Thus, these agencies can be considered as being entrepreneurial public organisations per Mazzucato (2018b). This collaborative approach to solving societal challenges is expected to drive the attainment of the SDGs to enable the emergence of a sustainable Nigerian state (Nair, 2018; Sachs *et al.*, 2019). The positive interactions and working relationships between these agencies and their ecosystems that have led

to the emergence of favourable social value being created can be described as their practicing new public governance (Osborne, 2006). Furthermore, the indication that these ecosystem partners, in some cases, collaborated with their agencies in the creation of social value aligns with Mazzucato and Ryan-Collins' (2019) definition of public value creation.

11.3 ASSESSING THE AGENCIES' DYNAMIC CAPABILITIES AND CREATED PUBLIC VALUE

This section first considers how the selected public organisations build, deploy and sustain dynamic capabilities. Afterwards, it explores the creation of public value by these agencies. These two factors provided nuanced insights on the notions of public sector dynamic capabilities and public value creation in Nigeria.

11.3.1 The Agencies' Dynamic Capabilities

For the purpose of this study, the responses provided by interviewees as routines under the critical success factors and strengths have been collated and classified under three components of dynamic capabilities as defined by Kattel's (2022) study – sense-making, connecting, and shaping. These three components of dynamic capabilities have been discussed extensively in sections 3.3.6 and 4.3. These routines could be said as having mostly emerged from the agencies' ability to learn and adapt, to align their services to solve their ecosystems' challenges and meet the needs of citizens, and to regulate their ecosystems' data and digital platforms (Mazzucato and Kattel, 2020, 2021). Essentially, all the responses illustrated the agencies' capabilities that enabled them to achieve their set long-term goals for their ecosystems (Kattel, 2022).

Additionally, conducting a qualitative analysis of the responses given by the internal senior respondents using Gullmark's (2021) study, revealed that the agencies are low-routinised or strategic for a range of reasons including their ability to move with the pace of development globally or in the sectors they play in. Others include their consciousness of the need for technological advancements, global or sectoral changes, effective systems for listening, clear communication channels, and strategic

management systems, amongst others. However, as lower-level staff were not part of the study, it is difficult to assess the extent to which their operations possess highly routinised and operational dynamic capabilities as described by Gullmark (2021).

Table 11.1 presents a taxonomy of dynamic capabilities found in these five public agencies, using Kattel's (2022) definitions. To start off with, the first row of Table 11.1 itemises responses provided by participants that align with sense-making. Some of these routines are the use of technical and analytical skills required for the agencies' roles and routines used to automate their processes using technology, strategic planning and budgeting processes, and researching processes.

Table 11.1: Identification and Classification of Agencies' Dynamic Capabilities – Sense-Making, Connecting, and Shaping

Categories of Dynamic Capabilities	Dynamic Capabilities –Critical Success Factors and Strengths
Sense-Making: Routines that enable analysis of outputs and outcomes, assessment, information-gathering, appraisal, and processing	1. Use of technical skills such as financial and accounting skills for agencies' activities. 2. Use of analytical, proactive, and critical thinking skills for the agencies' activities. 3. Use of technology, ICT, and automated processes for the agencies' activities. 4. Use of a competitive performance management and reward system for monitoring staff activities. 5. Provision of budgetary, strategic, and economic planning support for the ecosystem. 6. Use of research to respond to market and industry trends.
Connecting: Routines that enable networking and coalitions of internal and external stakeholders for legitimacy and buy-in for new solutions	1. Operate open-door and inclusive policies with communication and listening skills to engage both internal and external stakeholders. 2. Strategic leadership and shared vision approach across all departments and ecosystems. 3. Hold regular one-on-one meetings with stakeholders. 4. Hold group engagement sessions, summits and conferences with different categories of stakeholders. 5. Engage, collaborate and partner with other public agencies, private sector, and NGOs to implement different projects. 6. Consult with and involve stakeholders regularly when introducing new policies.
Shaping: Routines that enable the design, implementation and embedding of new solutions for the long-term	1. Innovation and continuous learning environment 2. Hold workshops, conferences, capacity development and trainings for internal and external stakeholders. 3. Have effective recruitment, performance management and reward systems for staff. 4. Have strategic recruitment and human resource management. 5. Develop and set regulations, laws, policy frameworks, guidelines, and standards to guide the activities of the stakeholders. 6. Engage in capacity development, trainings and support of entrepreneurs and ecosystems.

Categories of Dynamic Capabilities	Dynamic Capabilities –Critical Success Factors and Strengths
	7. Involvement in digital innovation. 8. Set vision for innovation in the ecosystem. 9. Enable the growing of local content in the IT space. 10. Provide licenses and set regulations. 11. Open the market and drive competition. 12. Attract players to the market.

Source: Developed and compiled by author

The second row relates to the concept of connecting dynamic capabilities. This is centred around the agencies working collaboratively with their stakeholders to solve problems that exist in their ecosystem. Some examples include the operation of open-door policies for communication with both internal and external stakeholders, the holding of stakeholder engagement forums, and implementation of consultative processes to involve the ecosystem as part of the process of introducing new policies. It is worthy of note that some of the dynamic capabilities such as the holding of stakeholder engagement that are classified in this study as ‘connecting’ dynamic capabilities have been defined as ‘seizing’ dynamic capabilities by some authors (Kattel *et al.*, 2024). Overall, these connecting dynamic capabilities allow experimentation and consultative decision making for the agencies (Kattel *et al.*, 2024) while also deepening the understanding of agencies on ecosystem needs by reinforcing collaborative governance. For example, the annual Ehingbeti economic summit noted by LSMEPB internal respondents as a key strength in Table 8.10 was said to resolve 90% of the resolution of issues raised according to external respondents. Published reports on the 2021 version of the summit state that following a 3-day deliberation, which attracted 146 speakers, over 15,000 registrants and 6,000 participants from across the globe, eleven resolutions for joint execution by the public and private sectors in the quest to build the ‘Lagos of our dreams’ were passed (BusinessDay, 2021). Consequently, through the convening of diverse actors including the private and development partners, the trust and feedback generated through these engagements lead to shifts in private sector behaviour which ultimately align with public goals.

The third row contains the shaping capabilities, which considers factors that have long-term effects on the ecosystem. Some of these factors that are highlighted are the

existence of environments that encourage innovation and continuous learning, holding of workshops and training and capacity development sessions for their ecosystems, and enactment of enabling standards and regulations to grow and sustain ecosystems.

However, there were other routines that were mentioned as critical success factors and strengths that didn't fall into these three categories. These routines have been captured on the first row of Table 11.2 and are referred to as *dynamic capabilities' enablers*. This is because they involve capabilities like the implementation of strong core value systems with professionalism, integrity, transparency, and timeliness, the ability to respond swiftly to issues, and the generation of funds and revenue for ecosystems and government activities. One common factor possessed by these additional capabilities is that they are arguably critical for the building, deploying and sustaining of the dynamic capabilities under sense-making, connecting, and shaping.

Table 11.2: Dynamic Capabilities Enablers and Inhibitors

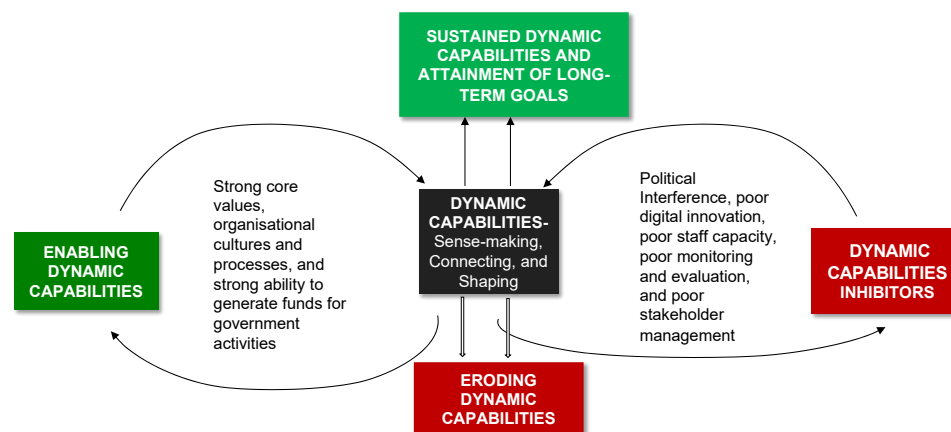
Dynamic Capabilities Categories	Critical Success Factors/Strengths or Weaknesses
Enablers: Routines that create the conducive environments for the building, deploying and sustaining of dynamic capabilities	1. Have an environment with strong core values and principles – integrity, service, professionalism, initiative, resourcefulness, integrity, timeliness and transparency. 2. Provide staff with good working environment and tools for staff. 3. Are high velocity organisation with effective operations and swift response and turnaround time. 4. Have positive team players and people management skills. 5. Have people first policies. 6. Generate revenue for the government and ecosystem. 7. Source funds for government activities. 8. Provide financial and business support for ecosystem
Inhibitors: Routines that create non-conducive environments for the thriving of dynamic capabilities	1. Poor digital innovation within the organisation. 2. Lack of in-house skills - resulting in outsourcing of core functions. 3. Loss of independence because of political interference in the agencies' activities. 4. Poor monitoring and evaluation of agencies' activities. 5. Poor stakeholder management.

Source: Developed and compiled by author

Consequently, these dynamic capabilities' enablers aid the attainment of the long-term goals that align with the challenge-led roles played by the agencies in setting directions for their ecosystems. These enablers also align with the characteristics of certain countries' civil service systems that were identified by Adamolekun's (1999, 2005)

studies as advanced reformers. Conversely, the continued existence of certain weaknesses has been described by this study as *dynamic capabilities' inhibitors*. An example of such weaknesses that have been classified as inhibitors is the interference of the agencies' processes and activities by the political system. The presence of these potential dynamic capabilities' inhibitors may result in agencies' working environment being adversely affected, which in turn could lead to erosion of the existing dynamic capabilities. Figure 11.1 illustrates the feedback loop effect by these dynamic capabilities' enablers and inhibitors.

Figure 11.1: Feedback Loops of Enablers and Inhibitors on Dynamic Capabilities



Source: Developed and Compiled by author

Figure 11.1 shows that the presence of dynamic capabilities' enablers could lead to increased and sustained dynamic capabilities in the long-term, whilst the existence of inhibitors might result in their erosion. Similarly, as demonstrated by Lee et al.'s (2012) study, attitudes and organisational cultures within public agencies impact the implementation of performance management. These factors may be influenced either positively or negatively, depending on the presence of enablers or inhibitors of dynamic capabilities. The long-term impact of prolonged political interference on the dynamic capabilities of public agencies is outside the scope of this research and presents an area to consider for future study. The notions of dynamic capabilities' enablers and inhibitors can also be tested in future studies.

These identified dynamic capabilities enablers and inhibitors also align with some of the routines of legal–institutional designs that act as enablers or blockers for the thriving of mission-oriented innovation policies in public agencies per Spanó et al (2024). The routines are defined as governance, organisational design, budget and finance, public procurement and partnerships and human resources and illustrated in Table 11.3 below.

Table 11.3: Analytical framework for assessing legal–institutional design effects on dynamic capabilities for MOIP implementation

	Sense Seize Transform
Governance	(1) Rules on leadership election, turnover, replacement, and succession (2) Rules on leadership powers, accountability, and mandate (3) Rules on stakeholder inclusion, negotiation, and management (4) Institutional mechanisms to steer directionality and build common/shared views on challenges (5) Rules and institutional mechanisms to avoid collusion, agency capture, and abuse of powers
Organisational Design	(1) Rules on autonomy and control of organizational units by top management (i.e. centralized/decentralized decision-making procedures) (2) Rules on creation, discontinuation, merging, splitting, and ending of organizational units and professional positions (3) Existence and degree of formalization of organizational units dedicated to innovation (e.g. innovation laboratories, i-units, etc.).
Budget and Finance	(1) Rules on the budget cycle (2) Rules on availability, autonomy, execution of financing, especially regarding stability, diversification of revenues, and funding instruments (3) Rules on expenses accountability, review and impact
Public procurement and partnerships	(1) Rules on procurement standards, tenders design, specification, and evaluation criteria (2) Rules on procurement and partnership procedures (3) Rules on scope of partnership agreements and procurement contracts and (4) Rules on dispute resolution
Human Resources	(1) Rules on leadership and managerial positions hiring and discharging (2) Rules on hiring and discharging (3) Rules on career structures, paths, and promotion (4) Incentives tied to professional development and sanctions on misconduct (5) Existence of organizational learning and reskilling mechanisms (6) Existence of sound workplace policies on diversity and professionalism

Source: Spanó et al (2024)

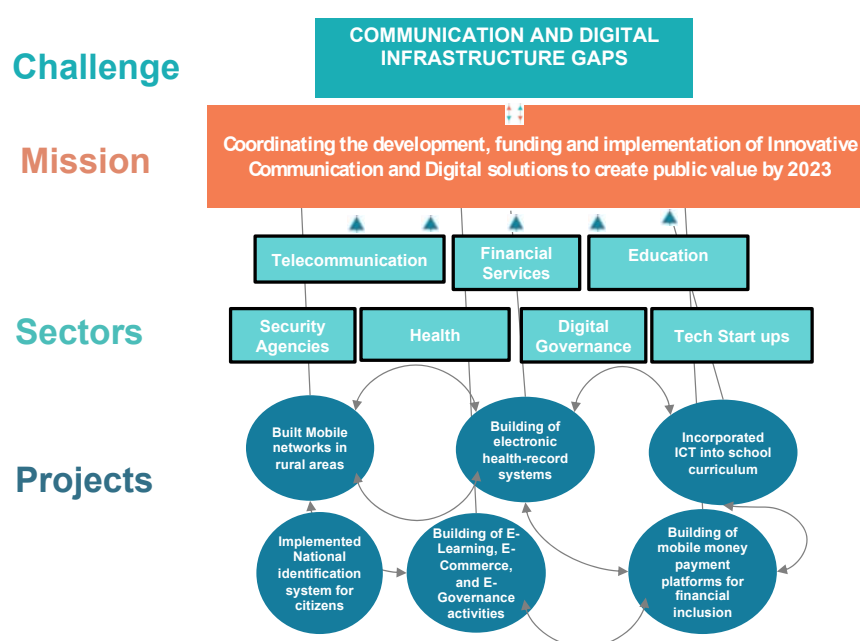
The rules guiding each routine under the dynamic capabilities sense, seize and transform is summarised in Table 11.3. Accordingly, the improvement or decline of these factors under each routine can lead to the improvement or decline of dynamic capabilities in public organisations implementing MOIPs. However, Spanó et al (2024) argue that whilst there is no one-size-fit-all structure or institutional design for public agencies, innovation agencies are expected to have similar traits. Thus, this study intentionally focuses on Nigeria to provide an in-depth, context-specific analysis that captures the nuances of the dynamic capabilities found in its public sector.

11.3.2 The Agencies' Public Value

According to Mazzucato and Ryan-Collins (2019), public value is created when positive societal outcomes and more inclusive societies are produced due to the role government agencies play to shape their ecosystems. The study revealed that these agencies play active roles in shaping their ecosystems, which in turn have resulted in the creation of public value. The emergent public value is coordinated by the public agencies following an approach that aligns with Mazzucato's (2018) mission-oriented innovation approach to solving different societal challenges collaboratively with their various ecosystem partners.

The notion of public value creation is explained here using NCC as a case study. Accordingly, insights provided by respondents that are depicted in Figure 10.3 of section 10.2.3 is used to produce Figure 11.2 below. Figure 11.2 is adapted from Mazzucato (2018) and the digital infrastructural gap challenge relating to the NCC is used to show its interaction across different sectors in a collaborative challenge-led approach to solving problems (Mazzucato, 2018b). As was discussed in section 4.5.2 the social value reported by the external respondents as created by them due to the activities of the public agencies is considered to equate to the public value created.

Figure 11.2: Solving Communication and Digital Infrastructure Gaps in NCC's Ecosystem– An Illustration of Mission-Oriented Innovation Approach



Source: Adapted from Mazzucato (2018) – Mission Oriented Approach in the European Union

From Figure 11.2, the top layer identifies one critical challenge for NCC – the communication and digital infrastructure gaps in the country. The next layer below shows a hypothetical mission derived from the amalgamated responses provided at the time of the study – which is to focus on the coordination of the development, funding and implementation of innovative communication and digital solutions to create public value by 2023. This is in line with the country's National Development plan (2021-2025). The next layer identifies different sectors that work on different projects shown on the bottom layer to give rise to public value for the country. It is important to note that this challenge-led approach to solve societal challenges is not top-down but bottom-up and collaborative to come up with viable solutions and projects such as incorporating ICT curriculum in schools, building mobile payment platforms and networks in rural areas, and implementing electronic identification system for citizens. The important point here is that the NCC has clearly set the direction that has enabled all the relevant stakeholders and actors to work towards the attainment of the goals through different initiatives as of 2023.

This same approach can be used to explore the public value created by the other agencies selected for this study. Also, this study, by tracing the external respondent's responses on the social value created due to the activities of the public agencies provides a means of recognising public value created by public organisations in Nigeria.

11.4 THE RELEVANCE OF THE ROAR FRAMEWORK TO THE RESEARCH

The ROAR framework provided a useful model for exploring the research question that asks: *How are relevant public sector dynamic capabilities built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria?* It is an integrated framework with its four components working together to enable the assessment of the activities of the selected public organisations towards the attainment of set goals for the country. The strengths and limitations of the framework are discussed here.

11.4.1 Strengths of the ROAR Framework

Clear Structure and Flexibility

The ROAR framework provides a clear structure with defined components that enable the evaluation of various attributes of the selected public agencies with ‘Routes’ – the role played by the agencies in setting direction, ‘Organisations’ – the agencies’ abilities to solve societal problems, ‘Assessment’ – the evaluation of public agencies, and ‘Risks and Rewards’ – the process of sharing risks and rewards across societal actors. The framework also offers flexibility in its application, as different variables, sub-research questions and interview questions can be adapted based on its different components.

Comprehensive Assessment

Firstly, ‘Routes’ allowed for the assessment of the agencies’ purpose, objectives, and strategies as basis for exploring the role they played in setting directions for their ecosystems. Secondly, ‘Organisations’ enabled the studying of the agencies’ structure, bureaucracy and public administration management, state capacity, infrastructure power amongst others. It also facilitated the analysis of the agencies’ structures, capacities, public administration management, working relationship with ecosystem and social partners, core functions, proactive vs reactive functions, critical success factors, strengths, and weaknesses. All factors explored under organisations were key to understanding these agencies’ abilities to develop and solve societal problems. Thirdly, ‘Assessment’ allowed the evaluation of the achievements and milestones attained by the agencies as it focused on how public organisations are evaluated. The evaluation that was done by both the internal and external respondents were mostly aligned for each of the agencies. Fourthly, ‘Risk’ assessed the roles played, which equated to the risks taken by the agencies, whilst the ‘Rewards’ addressed the societal rewards and public values that were assumed to be created by the agencies. This was done by asking the external respondents questions that sought to trace the social values created by the ecosystems because of the agencies’ activities – from asking them, to highlighting societal problems that needed to be solved by the agencies, how they were solved, the effects of the solving of the problems on the ecosystem, and the resultant social value created by the ecosystem.

Nuances for Public Sector Dynamic Capabilities and Public Value Created

The ROAR framework uniquely allows for the emergence of dynamic capabilities and public value in a Nigerian context, providing a deeper understanding of how public organisations enable the creation of public value in a developing country context. Firstly, 'Routes' shows that the surveyed public organisations create public value by combining market-shaping interventions that set directions for their ecosystems, with market-fixing actions that address regulatory and operational gaps. This involves the proactive use of dynamic capabilities such as sense-making – to scan their environments, identify societal needs, and map interventions that co-ordinate ecosystem participants towards achieving the country's developmental goals.

Secondly, a look at the 'Organisations' characteristics shows that the agencies have a blend of Weberian administrative features – such as hierarchical structures, rule-based operations, and meritocratic recruitment – with more dynamic elements, including decentralised decision-making, cross-functional collaboration, proactivity and rapid problem-solving mechanisms. The combination of these two characteristics enables them to effectively address societal gaps while collaboratively working with their ecosystems. Also, some of the considerations under organisations enabled the extraction of the agencies' dynamic capabilities under sense-making, connecting, and shaping as well as the emergence of the additional categories dynamic capability enablers – such as strong leadership, technology adoption, stakeholder partnerships, and value-driven organisational cultures – as well as inhibitors such as political interference, weak monitoring systems, and poor stakeholder management.

Thirdly, the emerged dynamic capabilities translate into public value through the agencies' infrastructural power and their ability to produce tangible outputs that improve the performance of their ecosystems, strengthen the capacity of the industry and contribute to the development of the country.

Finally, as discussed in section 4.1, public sector dynamic capabilities require all aspects of the ROAR framework from the role of Routes in providing valuable insights on the directionality and purpose of the public sector agencies, to the dynamic capabilities within Organisations, and the risks and rewards or value created in these

public sector agencies. It is thus, safe to say that Routes relies on dynamic capabilities found in Organisations. Additionally, adequate re-strategizing of directionality and process only occurs after the associated risks and rewards have been identified. It is, as such, a reiterative process.

11.4.2 Limitations of the ROAR Framework

Lack of Specific Criteria for Assessment

The framework's flexibility can also be seen as a limitation because it does not provide specific, well-defined criteria for assessing each component, which can lead to different interpretations and assessment methods in diverse studies. This could make it challenging to compare results across different contexts and studies. Nevertheless, the study has provided a set of useful variables per factor of the ROAR framework. These variables provide concrete starting points for applying the framework in new research, and also give future studies a common basis that can improve consistency in how ROAR components are examined.

Difference in Contexts

The ROAR framework was originally developed in a heterodox context, but it was applied to Nigerian public agencies that operate within a neoliberal environment. The difference in these contexts creates a contrast, as the framework calls for a government-driven challenge-led approach to development, while the Nigerian context typically views the private sector as the main driver of development. Still, the framework was uniquely applied to study the selected five public agencies and to allow the emergence of nuances of public sector dynamic capabilities and public value created in the Nigerian context.

Limited Focus on Individual Capabilities

The framework focuses on organisational capabilities and does not explore the individual capabilities of public sector staff, especially junior staff. Future studies could expand on the 'Organisations' component to investigate the relationship between individual and organisational capabilities, as well as operational dynamic capabilities per Gullmark's (2021) study.

11.5 ANSWERING THE MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION

This section summarises responses to the main research question: *How are relevant public sector dynamic capabilities built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria?* by drawing on the findings in relation to the first, second and third sub-research questions as presented in Chapters 7, 8, 9, and 10.

11.5.1 What roles do public organisations play in solving societal problems? (Routes)

The analysis in Chapter 7 showed that the selected agencies have clearly defined purposes, objectives, and strategies that are understood by both internal and external stakeholders. These purposes are closely aligned to solving societal problems within their ecosystems, with strategies mapping the directions to enable their achievements. Interview responses revealed that the agencies combine market-shaping and market-fixing roles to address societal challenges. Market-shaping activities include setting bold directions for their sectors, guiding investments, and facilitating cross-sector collaborations – for example, NCC’s Telecom Consumer Parliament and NITDA’s seven strategic pillars under the National Digital Economic Policy and Strategy. Market-fixing activities include setting regulations and guidelines that address identified gaps, such as FIRS’s corporate tax rates or NCC’s tariff guidelines. These strategic roles are supported by proactive activities: the agencies scanning their environments, identifying the societal gaps such as infrastructure deficits or unemployment, and designing responses that align stakeholders’ actions with national goals. It also involves the agencies coordinating ecosystem actors for the co-creating of solutions, as illustrated by BOI’s partnerships with state governments, international banks, and credit-rating agencies to deliver grassroots-impact projects.

In summary, solving societal problems for these agencies begins with strategic intent – a combination of purpose, objectives, and market-shaping/market-fixing interventions that frame the agencies’ role in tackling societal challenges and fostering public value creation.

11.5.2 How do these public organisations build, deploy and sustain the relevant dynamic capabilities to solve societal problems for citizens? (Organisations)

As discussed in Chapter 8, building, deploying, and sustaining dynamic capabilities involves the interaction between organisational structure, public administration human resource management (PAHRM) systems, relationships with stakeholders, and the agencies' internal working culture. The selected agencies combine Weberian features (hierarchical structures, functional specialisation, rule-based operations, meritocratic recruitment) with elements of flexibility, such as decentralised decision-making, cross-functional collaboration, and high organisational velocity. This structural balance enables speedy problem-solving while maintaining accountability.

Robust PAHRM systems aligns with capability deployment. Recruitment is generally merit-based, although political interference is a noted risk. Capacity building is prioritised through in-house, external, and on-the-job training, ensuring the transfer of both know-how and know-why. Performance management systems with clear KPIs and balanced scorecards hold staff accountable, while competitive remuneration packages, foreign training opportunities, and housing/mortgage schemes boost staff motivation. The agencies are proactive and deliberate, and they consult widely, create formal engagement forums, and set structured processes for policy formulation and service delivery. Additionally, collaboration with social partners strengthens the effectiveness of the agencies' activities.

Finally, strong core values (integrity, professionalism), proactive leadership, and technology adoption enable the sustaining of the dynamic capabilities within these agencies.

11.5.3 How do these public sector dynamic capabilities enable the creation of public value? (Assessment and Risks and Rewards)

Assessment of outputs (Chapter 9) demonstrated that these agencies possess infrastructural power – the ability to implement physical, organisational, and administrative systems that deliver tangible results. Internal and external stakeholders confirmed that these achievements contribute directly to value creation, stakeholder engagement, and improved sectoral performance.

Chapter 10 extended the analysis by using the process tracing procedure to link societal problems addressed (the Risks) to the societal outcomes generated (the Rewards). This revealed several causal chains from societal challenges to long-term social value that equate to public value created for the different ecosystems.

11.5.4 Integrating Findings to Address the Main Research Question

The findings from Chapters 7, 8, 9, and 10 show that relevant public sector dynamic capabilities in Nigeria are built through a clear strategic focus that aligns purpose, objectives, and market-shaping/market-fixing roles. They also illustrate that dynamic capabilities are deployed through effective organisational structures, robust human resource management systems, proactive stakeholder engagement, and enabling environments, and that they are sustained through adaptive learning, systematic assessment and the removal of inhibitors such as political interference, weak monitoring and evaluation, and poor stakeholder management. Agencies that consistently adapt their practices, invest in technology, and strengthen partnerships are better positioned to maintain high-impact dynamic capabilities. The alignment of these elements over time enable public agencies to create measurable public value – from infrastructure and industry capacity to strong relationships with their ecosystems.

Dynamic capabilities are also sustained through ongoing, reiterative processes rather than one-off reforms. The dynamic capabilities described above such as stakeholder engagement, resource management, and investment, require continuous learning and evolution to the extent of the availability of enablers such as swift response and turnaround time and the unavailability of inhibitors such as poor stakeholder management. Refer to Table 11.2 for other enablers and inhibitors. By involving citizens, civil society, and other public and private actors in decision-making and feedback loops, public organisations gather diverse perspectives that sustain and further enhance public value.

Thus, the operationalisation of the ROAR framework in the Nigerian context offers both an analytical lens and a practical tool for linking public sector capabilities to tangible societal outcomes.

11.6 RESEARCH LIMITATIONS, BIASES AND MITIGATIONS

Like any other research, there were limitations as the study cannot cover all relevant issues under the main subject area (Merriam and Tisdell, 2015). Four main limitations were identified.

Selection Bias from Positive Case Studies

This research focussing on successful Nigerian national and sub-national public sector agencies could be considered a limitation. However, as studies conducted by Gullmark (2021) and Kattel (2022) were focused on positive Western case studies, the same is applicable for a study focused on Nigeria that seeks to understand the nature and role of dynamic capabilities in the development of countries in the developing world context (Kattel, 2022). Nevertheless, the agencies were chosen based on clear, predefined criteria (e.g., transformational change, leadership appointments, effectiveness, and access as discussed in section 5.2.2) to ensure comparability. Additionally, the study identified and examined the broader organisational context, acknowledged systemic challenges and areas of weaknesses within these agencies, and discussed how they often hinder the replication of success across the public sector as dynamic capabilities inhibitors.

Limitations of Interview Data

The fact that the respondents' responses were used as a means of identifying the dynamic capabilities and public value created by these agencies could be considered a limitation. However, the study combined interviews from multiple stakeholders' perspectives in addition to publicly available documents as secondary data to help validate findings and control for subjective interpretations and concentration risks from relying on just internal stakeholders. This is in line with Paukku et al's (2010) argument that advocates a holistic multilevel approach to enable the assessment of the effects of an organisation within its ecosystem and impact on others and the system.

Limitation From Reliance of Theories Of Dynamic Capabilities

The study may be regarded as over-relying on dynamic capabilities theory at the expense of exploring other relevant development theories, such as institutional theory

or governance theory. Whilst this research aligns with the studies of Mazzucato and Kattel (2018, 2020, 2021) that attest that countries need to build dynamic capabilities in their public organisations to transform, it acknowledges the arguments by Piening (2013) that unlike private firms, public organisations face challenges like bureaucratic constraints, restricted and regulated financial resources, and accountability to diverse stakeholder groups, which limit their development of dynamic capabilities. Also, although dynamic capabilities theory is central to the study, it is not applied in isolation. The research engages with other theories as shown in the literature review in Figure 3.1 and the mapping of the ROAR framework to the research questions and key theories in Figure 4.1.

Limitation In Evaluating Public Value Creation

The evaluation of public value created can be considered to be subjective because the study attempts to explore the occurrences that contributed to the creation of social value from the identified societal gaps. It does this by using process tracing as a tool of causal inference as it focused on unfolding events over time to answer the question on social value created by the various ecosystems (Collier, 2011). This enabled the linking of the responses provided by the external respondents on the societal problems, how problems were solved, effects of the agencies' outputs on the ecosystems, and the resultant social value created by the ecosystems. However, it is important to note that, whilst the study uses Collier's (2011) 'smoking-gun' tests, mentioned in section 10.3 to explore the connection between the agencies' interventions and the observable effects, it does not claim that these actions are the sole causes of the societal outcomes. Furthermore, as these ecosystem participants work collaboratively with their agencies to contribute to the solving of identified societal challenges for the benefit of Nigerian citizens, there is an alignment with the definition of public value by Mazzucato and Ryan-Collins (2019, 2022).

11.7 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

Having carried out qualitative research in exploring how relevant public sector dynamic capabilities are built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria, the findings provide future opportunities for further research.

Comparative Study Of High And Low-Performing Agencies

Given that this study assessed successful agencies, an approach for future studies may be to compare underperforming agencies with high performing agencies to provide comparative insights and a more comprehensive understanding of dynamic capabilities in varying contexts. Also, as some respondents reported that there had been an increase in political interference over the years in the recruitment and management processes in some of the agencies, future research may consider its long-term effect on the dynamic capabilities of the public agencies. However, the challenges of researching poor-performing agencies are many – such as non-willingness to participate in research.

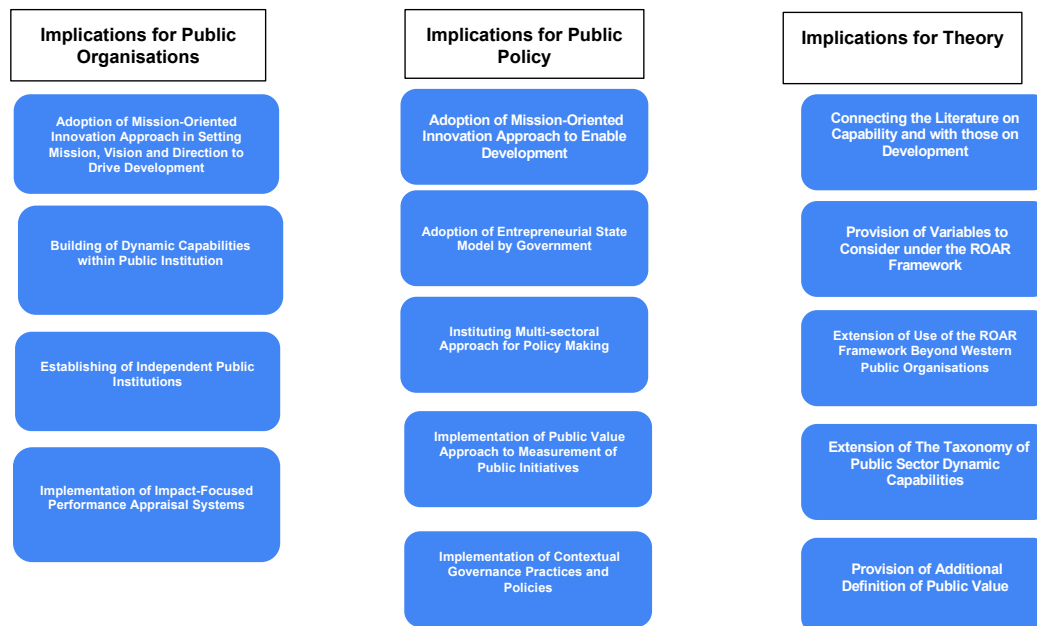
Broader Selection of Interviewees and Research Methodology

Future study may choose to broaden the selection of interviewees to include middle management and lower-level staff both within and outside the agencies. This will allow the study to assess the degree to which organisation objectives are passed down the hierarchy, the perception of human resource management policies such as appraisal and remuneration systems, and the effectiveness of learning and development practices on the agencies. It will also clarify the extent of which the lower-ranking staff of ecosystem partners are aware of the linkages between the agencies' activities and their organisations' outcomes. Future study may also consider extending the research participants to include other citizens outside the direct ecosystems of the agencies. This may require the research to be conducted using a mixed methods approach by including quantitative approach to statistically test the impact of the social value created by the ecosystem participants on the society.

11.8 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The research findings' implications for public organisations, public policy and theory are summarised in Figure 11.3 below and discussed in detail in sections 11.8.1, 11.8.2, 11.8.3 respectively.

Figure 11.3: Summary of the Implications of the Study for Public Organisations, Public Policy, and Theory



Source: Developed and Compiled by author

11.8.1 Implications for Public Organisations

As this study focuses on the role played by public sector dynamic capabilities and the creation of public value, the implications for public organisations are multi-faceted, summarised in the first column of Figure 11.3 and discussed below.

Adoption of Mission-Oriented Innovation Approach in Setting Mission, Vision and Direction to Drive Development

This study should inspire public agencies to adopt mission-oriented thinking when formulating their mission and vision statements. It will be valuable for them to consider reformulating their mission and vision statements to clearly include the main societal challenges they are seeking to solve and the long-term goals they are aiming to achieve in line with Mazzucato's (2018a, 2021) challenge-led approach to setting missions. According to Mazzucato and Nguyen (2024), by adopting mission-oriented thinking, the state can set bold targets and drive the direction of growth of their ecosystems to spur co-creation and collaboration across sectors towards creating public value. This is important because the onus falls on the government to not just

create a favourable environment, but to clearly drive bold missions for different stakeholders and sectors to work collaboratively for development to take place.

Building of Dynamic Capabilities within Public Organisations

The study should encourage public organisations to build in-house dynamic capabilities and skills that are focussed on sense-making, connecting, and shaping per Kattel (2022). It provides public agencies with a taxonomy of dynamic capabilities that can be referenced to guide their activities towards the creation of public value per Table 11.1. This will ensure that there is more accountability from public organisations. Nevertheless, it is important that these capabilities are built on institutional and individual levels to strengthen the capacities within the public sector. According to Mazzucato et al (2021), these capabilities can be built institutionally by implementing simulations, establishing procedures, and deploying policy assessment frameworks based on knowledge diversity. Additionally, Zollo and Winter (2002) state that building organisational dynamic capabilities requires the transfer of both 'know-hows' and 'know-whys' to ensure the entrenchment of solutions and technology across the organisation. They further argue that these capabilities can be built by systematically documenting and recording organisational activities. It is also important that in building dynamic capabilities of public agencies they are able to pass information and organisational objectives down the hierarchy and on individual level. According to Mazzucato et al (2021), this can be done through skills development and training.

Establishing of Independent Public Organisations

While complete autonomy of public organisations may not be attained, it plays a central role in the effectiveness of dynamic capabilities. Thus, it is important for democratic governments to create systems that allow agencies to act independently based on evidenced understanding of the needs of their core stakeholders without undue interference by the political elites. According to Spanó et al (2024), reduced political interference, combined with sufficient managerial capabilities, allows greater policy experimentation and success within public organisations. However, as Peters and Pierre (2004) and Christensen and Lægreid (2007) note, some level of political direction is both inevitable and required to ensure that politicians deliver their electoral promise to citizens and that civil servants comply with set out policies and procedures.

Still, politicians providing direction is different from them overriding organisational processes or forcing decisions for personal or partisan gains - political interference - as their actions lead to compromise of the organisation's processes.

Implementation of Impact-Focused Performance Appraisal Systems

Performance measurement and appraisal systems within public organisations should not just focus on tasks but should also consider the outputs and impact of the outputs to ensure that public service employees are committed to public value creation. According to Mazzucato and Nguyen (2024), this requires a change in the mindset of governments to move away from the top-down control to enable organisations to focus on regular reporting and appraisal of project outputs. It necessitates public sector organisations shifting their focus on short-term targets like the private sector, that prioritise profitability, to directing their efforts on delivering public missions in the long-term. It also entails public organisations, by following a public value approach, extending their evaluation exercise to include valuation of processes and relationships (Mazzucato and Wainwright, 2024) to enable the co-creation of public value in the long-term for the benefit of the society (Mazzucato and Ryan-Collins, 2019, 2022).

11.8.2 Implications for Public Policy

According to Fagerberg and Srholec (2008) for any form of development to take place, a country needs to develop capabilities in one or more of the following areas: development of the innovation system, quality of governance, character of the political system, and degree of openness to trade and foreign direct investment. Whilst all four areas are critical, the thrust of the policy recommendations is anchored on the quality of governance which relates to the importance of public sector dynamic capabilities for development. The study's implications for public policy are summarised in the second column of Figure 11.3 and discussed below.

Adoption of Mission-Oriented Innovation Approach to Enable Development

This study should inspire public agencies to consider adopting a mission-oriented innovation approach in setting policies and directions for their ecosystems. This will enable the co-creation and implementation of innovative solutions to solve societal

problems collaboratively for development (Miedzinski, Mazzucato, and Ekins, 2019). Here, the research provides public service organisations with tools to enable them work in a mission-oriented innovation approach to setting policies across sectors. However, contexts need to be taken into consideration as different public organisations have different missions, operate in different ecosystems, and have varied organisational practices thereby requiring nuanced mission-oriented innovation policies (Mazzucato and Nguyen, 2024).

Adoption of Entrepreneurial State Model by Government

The research provides the government with evidence on the need to work more as an entrepreneurial state by adopting funding initiatives through their public agencies, taking stakes in initiatives in collaboration with the private sector, and sharing the investments' risks and rewards for the benefit of the country. However, as mentioned in the previous point, contextual nuances must be considered per public agency as the models adopted cannot be a one-size-fits all (Mazzucato and Nguyen, 2024).

Instituting Multi-Sectoral Approach for Policy Making

The study provides ample evidence on the importance of public organisations operating in a collaborative manner with their ecosystems. It recommends the execution of policies requiring public organisations to be embedded in their ecosystems to invite collaboration and co-creation with different stakeholders to enable the solving of their relevant societal problems. As shown in the study, the selected public agencies embark on different levels of engagement and consultation with stakeholders. However, it is imperative that there is active involvement by different sectors and actors from the policy formulation stage to the implementation stage for co-creation of public value across the ecosystems to prevent policy gridlocks (Mugwagwa *et al.*, 2018). Thus, stakeholders should not only be consulted, but should be fully involved in coming up with viable solutions to solve relevant societal challenges (Arnstein, 1969).

Implementation of Public Value Approach to Measurement of Public Initiatives

The study encourages public sector agencies to move from measurement tools that focus solely on the result but the model that incorporates an ecosystem approach to value assessment. This is because of the understanding that this study holds – that

the creation of value in the society is an interactive process as illustrated by Figure 3.7. Therefore, the assessment of the performance by the public agencies should view value creation beyond cost-benefit but from multiple perspectives such as outputs, outcomes, processes and relationships and impacts dynamically over a time period (Mazzucato and Wainwright, 2024). This will ensure that the public sector opens up for more transparency in government.

Implementation of Contextual Governance Practices and Policies

This study attests to the importance of context when assessing public sector agencies. It cites the works of Roelofs (2023) and Shilliam (2021) that argue extensively that as different countries are influenced by their peculiar historical, cultural, social, and environmental factors, there isn't a one-size-fit-all good governance system. Escobar (2011) further argues that countries that neglect their contexts when pursuing good governance limit their achievement of development goals. Therefore, this study recommends that there needs to be clear policies that enable the creation of systems that allow agencies to act on their research-based understanding of the needs of their core stakeholders. These context-relevant governance approaches require the balancing of organisational needs and the optimising of different actors' roles (Mugwagwa *et al.*, 2022). However, the systems need to be independent as the study provides evidence on the importance of public organisations having robust policies to recruit, assess and reward staff meritocratically for value-creating performances and development of the country without undue political interference.

11.8.3 Implications for Theory

Whilst this study fundamentally relies on its three core areas of the research question supported by corresponding literature namely: the Nigerian state; public sector dynamic capabilities; societal outputs, outcomes, and public value creation, it follows an abductive approach that enables the discovery of patterns from the data. The emerging contributions and implications for theory are summarised in the third column of Figure 11.3 and discussed here.

Connecting the Literature on Capability and with those on Development

At the core of this study is the combination of literature on functional capabilities of public organisations with those on the social capabilities. This aligns with the work by Paukku et al (2010) on firms, which argues that combining dynamic capability theory (Teece et al., 1997) and the social capability approach (Sen, 1981) enables the identification of capabilities within the ecosystems. Consequently, the field work was designed, using the ROAR framework, to link the identified public sector dynamic capabilities with the emergent societal outcomes that contribute to the country's development. However, whilst the research did not seek to find actual causation of development by dynamic capabilities, it allowed the exploration of the connection between the observed institutions' capabilities with positive social outcomes occurring in the various ecosystems.

Provision of Variables to Consider under the ROAR Framework

As the study adopts Mazzucato's (2018a) heterodox ROAR framework as the theoretical basis to analyse the activities of the selected public agencies in Nigeria instead of following the predominant neoliberal lens, the findings from this study are expected to contribute to this framework by providing different variables to consider under each factor. Using the ROAR framework for the analysis of research and interview questions and the presentation and analysis of the findings is expected to add to its potential use theoretically. Chapter 4 provides the basis for using the different variables under each of the ROAR component. Additionally, Chapters 5 showcases how the framework was used to design the interview questions and Chapters 7, 8, 9, and 10 illustrate how it was used to present and analyse the research findings.

Extension of the ROAR Framework Beyond Western Public Organisations

The ROAR framework is applied in a developing country context to assess the workings of public agencies that are examples of pockets of effectiveness in Nigeria and found to demonstrate some mission-oriented innovation approaches in different ways in Nigeria. This study is therefore expected to contribute to the theoretical application of the ROAR framework beyond its use by Mazzucato and Nguyen's (2024) work to assess Western organisations like DARPA in the USA. In general, Mazzucato (2018a) argues that states need to be entrepreneurial by directing stakeholders to

work collaboratively in a mission-oriented innovation approach. The findings of this study that show directions being set by the agencies and the collaborative working with their ecosystems is in alignment. The focus on MOIP requires the shift in mindset from just seeing public agencies as only being needed to fix market failures to considering them as being central to the shaping of markets (Mazzucato and Dibb, 2019). In this regard, the public organisations' roles do not require their dictating the solutions to be implemented instead it involves them setting directions to facilitate and enable multiple solutions to emerge from different sectors and actors (Mazzucato and Nguyen, 2024).

Extension of The Taxonomy of Public Sector Dynamic Capabilities

The study was able to categorise the responses provided by participants on the agencies' strengths and critical success factors as dynamic capabilities, thereby adding to Kattel's (2022) work on public sector dynamic capabilities. It was able to explore the dynamic capabilities within the Nigerian context and to identify the relevant characteristics relating to these organisations under the three different broad headings – sense-making, connecting, and shaping. The study went further to identify possible factors that are enablers to the sustaining of dynamic capabilities, such as strong core values, and inhibitors that result in the eroding of dynamic capabilities, such as political interference. These additional categories, align with the work by Spanó et al (2024) that presents certain factors that are enablers or constraints to dynamic capabilities of innovation agencies. The birthed dynamic capabilities from this study should form part of the contributions to the theory of public sector dynamic capabilities.

Provision of Additional Definition of Public Value

As discussed, the notion of public value is highly contested by scholars from both market-fixing and market-shaping perspectives. Nevertheless, the research defined the public value created by the agencies as the social value created by the ecosystem participants as a result of agencies' activities. This definition is made possible by the research tracing specific societal problems identified by the study to solutions provided by ecosystem partners as a result of the roles played by their relevant public agency. This definition is expected to contribute to public value theory.

11.9 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The main research question of this study was – *How are relevant public sector dynamic capabilities built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria?* However, there is especially very little empirical work on this topic in the African continent. Consequently, guided by the research question, this thesis seeks to contribute towards filling the gap. Nigeria's administrative structures and governance systems were moulded by its British colonial past and as such provides an opportunity to explore this subject area further. Chapter 2 revealed the important role played by the public sector for the development of the country, resulting in the implementation of several civil service reforms in addition to the various developmental plans over the years. However, one takeaway is that although recruitment into the Nigerian civil service is meant to be based on merit, political interference and patronage undermine the process leading to distrust among staff members.

In addressing the literature for this study in Chapter 3, the main research question was divided into three core components with supporting literature relating to the Nigeria state, the public sector dynamic capabilities, and societal outputs, outcomes and public value for citizens. The review of literature revealed a gap in the area of the role played by public sector dynamic capabilities in the developing world context and provided justification for the selection of Nigeria as a case study. Consequently, the juxtaposition of some of these areas of literature reveals the relevance and linkages to theories that provided the foundation for the thesis. Chapter 3 also introduces Mazzucato's heterodox ROAR framework as the main analytical tool to explore 'Routes' – the role of the state in setting direction, 'Organisations' – public sector organisations' abilities to develop and solve societal problems, 'Assessment' – how public agencies are evaluated, and 'Risks and Rewards' – the process of sharing risks and rewards across social actors.

Using the ROAR framework, discussed in detail in Chapter 4, as a lens from which to explore the topic, and following an abductive qualitative research approach discussed in Chapter 5 in analysing the interview data, some insights have emerged to contribute to practice and theory on how relevant public sector dynamic capabilities are built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens. The findings from this study,

presented and analysed in Chapters 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10, came from interview responses from internal and external ecosystem participants of the selected five agencies. The data from the external respondents were used to corroborate those from the internal respondents to enable the exploration of the emergence of the public sector dynamic capabilities and the public value created, and the social changes attained for the various ecosystems and citizens. The responses were also checked against information available in the public space for validation to provide clarity and nuance. The study also followed an ecosystem approach; it therefore asserts that outputs and public value collaboratively created by ecosystem participants rather than just inputs and processes made by public agencies were better indicators for the existence of dynamic capabilities. One key finding from the research is that the selected public agencies were set up based on the existence of identified gaps within their purviews. These gaps are illustrated in Table 10.1 in Chapter 10. Given the Nigerian context, the major gaps can be summarised into infrastructure gaps owing to Nigeria's large population that spur the need for economic development, poor employment as a cause of economic inequality and reduced access to social amenities, amongst others. Consequently, the core of the agencies' activities lies in the prioritisation of tasks, optimisation of limited resources, revenue or investment generation, the attainment of key sustainable development goals, the provision of training, increased awareness, and citizen participation. These are activities believed to provide the agencies with the power to curb the specific challenges that they were set up to solve. Thus, the agencies act as market-shapers in entrepreneurial capacities, fully aware of their organisational capabilities to influence economic and social behaviours by setting directions, aiding investments, and facilitating stakeholder and sectoral collaborations in solving societal problems. Figure 11.2 illustrates an example of the market-shaping role played by one of the agencies, NCC, in a challenge-led collaborative approach to co-create solutions to solve the communication and digital infrastructural gap. These market-shaping roles played by the agencies are in spite of them operating in an environment that has had strong neoliberal influences and continues to lean towards letting the private sector drive market activities. However, while the organisational structures of the agencies, chains of command, and key performance indicators are clear, it is difficult to assess the extent with which organisational objectives are passed down the hierarchy as lower-level staff were not part of the study group for this

research. This also meant that the study focussed on strategic dynamic capabilities and not on operational dynamic capabilities.

Chapter 7 of this study also revealed that stakeholder management and citizen participation are entrenched in the strategy of these government agencies. The participants' responses revealed that the agencies play a central role in their industries and ecosystems as figureheads providing directions and priority focus areas. Additionally, the working relationship between the agencies and their ecosystems and social partners have been linked to the provision of social services to citizens by the government. Thus, it can be concluded that these agencies possess relative strengths and trusted relationships with their ecosystems as they interact with different stakeholders to reach agreements and work collaboratively to solve social problems.

In considering the dynamic capabilities of these agencies, findings under strengths and critical success factors from the organisations' core functions and routines were extracted. These dynamic capabilities are key to ensuring the capacities of their organisations and the state as depicted in Figure 3.9. Section 11.3 of this study affirms that dynamic capabilities cannot be fully attained in government without the existence of certain factors that it describes as dynamic capabilities' enablers captured in Table 11.2. These are critical requirements needed to sustain the main dynamic capabilities – sense-making, connecting, and shaping identified in Table 11.1. These dynamic capabilities' enablers comprise of the existence of core values and organisational culture of the agencies such as professionalism, integrity, transparency, and timeliness, and the agencies' ability to generate funds and revenue for the ecosystem and government activities. Additionally, the study unveiled dynamic capabilities' inhibitors such as political interference, poor staff capacity, poor digital innovation, poor stakeholder management and monitoring and evaluation. These inhibitors, also described in Table 11.2, can be argued to potentially erode the different categories of dynamic capabilities in the agencies.

The assessment of the achievements and milestones attained by each of the agencies provides useful benchmarks that can be used to evaluate related agencies or organisations. Furthermore, in measuring the public value said to be created by the

various agencies indirectly through the reported social value created by the ecosystem participants that were linked to the activities of their related public agency, there is an opportunity for future studies to widen the scope to include a wider selection of participants. This will enable the comparison between what the ecosystem considers as public value created with what citizens assess as value to the society. However, there were some identified limitations of the study discussed alongside how they were mitigated in section 11.6. Some of these gaps also present opportunities for future studies as discussed in section 11.7. Despite the identified limitations, it is believed that the findings of this study are capable of contributing to policy amendments in the Nigerian public sector, to public organisations, and to theory. These Nigerian public agencies, despite being influenced by neoliberal policies, demonstrated their market-shaping capabilities by setting bold targets for their ecosystems and working collaboratively with different sectors to co-create value. It is expected that this study will contribute to the public sector practice by ensuring that public agencies are organised to focus on societal challenges.

The findings will also contribute to the theoretical study of public sector dynamic capabilities by providing scholars with an extended taxonomy of dynamic capabilities for their consideration. Finally, in assessing the role played by public sector dynamic capabilities in the creation of public value in Nigeria, this study connects the literature on capability and with those on development by operationalising the ROAR framework in the Nigerian context.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX 1: SAMPLE LETTER FOR PERMISSION

Name
Title
Address 1,
Address 2,
Nigeria

15 May 2023

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT PHD RESEARCH AT THE XYZ

Dear Sir,

My name is Patricia Nonny Ugboma, and I am a PhD candidate at the University College London (UCL), England. I was previously the Executive Secretary of MTN Nigeria Foundation and spent 18 years with MTN.

The research will be conducted under the supervision of Prof. Mariana Mazzucato, renowned economist and Director at the UCL Institute for Innovation and Public Purpose (IIPP), and Julius Mugwagwa, Associate Professor in Innovation & Development at the UCL Department of Science, Technology, Engineering and Public Policy (STeAPP).

I am hereby seeking your consent for the XYZ to be a participant in this project. I have provided you with a copy of my research information sheet and consent form to be used in the research process. For your consideration. I plan to interview between 12 to 15 stakeholders within XYZ's ecosystem from 1999 to 2023.

Upon completion of the study, I undertake to provide the XYZ a copy of the full research report. If you require any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me on or @ucl.ac.uk. Thank you for your time and consideration in this matter.

Yours sincerely,

Patricia Nonny Ugboma

APPENDIX 2: RESEARCH INFORMATION SHEET

Research Title

Exploring the Role of Public Sector Dynamic Capabilities for Development in Nigeria.

Background

Over the years, commentators and scholars have debated on the reasons for the under development of countries like Nigeria compared to the Southeast Asian states, and they have come up with multiple theories and explanations. The mainstream view of development is from an economic perspective. However, this study considers development from the human development viewpoint. It defines development as the ability of a country to provide the basic needs for its citizens and to sustainably create an enabling environment to facilitate economic activities and employment. With institutions considered vital for development, the study explores the core of the underlining structures and organisations which are in place in public sector agencies to understand the role played by dynamic capabilities in enabling development and the importance of further investments in these capabilities.

Research Aim

The aim of this research is to explore the role played by dynamic capabilities in the Nigerian public sector to enable the production of positive social outcomes that are key to the development of the country. The research will involve data from 1999 to 2019 and the study is expected to contribute to the body of knowledge in the area of public sector dynamic capabilities in Nigeria.

Main Research Question

How are relevant public sector dynamic capabilities built, deployed, and sustained to create public value for citizens in Nigeria?

Interview Aim

The interview aim is to identify the capabilities along the historical pathway of the institutions of study. The interview will help clarify how the agency was set up and what capabilities were developed along the way. It will also assist in exploring the relationship between the capabilities possessed and employed by the institution and

the societal outcomes. Finally, it will assist in the clarification of the manifestation of the success-leading capabilities within the agencies to facilitate the creation of a playbook for possible use by other public sector organisations with the same context.

Structure of the interview

There will be three parts (A,B, and C) to the interview with the following headline lines of inquiry.

A- Identification of Capabilities- What capabilities have public sector organisations built for utilisation in Nigeria?

1. This question helps identify the different capabilities built, employed, structured, and governed within the public sector in Nigeria before clarifying which ones are dynamic.

B- Institutionalising of Capabilities- How do these public sector organisations deploy the relevant capabilities and dynamic capabilities to deliver their set objectives?

1. This question enables the exploration of the deployment and institutionalising of the capabilities.

C- Linking Capabilities with Social Outcomes- What are the links between these objectives and the societal outcomes?

1. This question connects the social capabilities with the technical capabilities. It allows the linking of the institutions' objectives with the societal outcomes (developmental goals).

APPENDIX 3: SAMPLE INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Title of Study: **THE ROLE OF DYNAMIC PUBLIC SECTOR CAPABILITIES IN NIGERIA'S DEVELOPMENT**
 Department: **UCL- INSTITUTE OF INNOVATION AND PUBLIC PURPOSE**
 Name and Contact Details of the Researcher(s): **PATRICIA NONYELUM UGBOMA**
 Name and Contact Details of the Principal Researcher: **PROF MARIANA MAZZUCATO**

Contact Details of the UCL Data Protection Officer:

This study has been approved by the UCL Research Ethics Committee: Project ID number: _____

Thank you for considering taking part in this research. The person organising the research must explain the project to you before you agree to take part. If you have any questions arising from the Information Sheet or explanation already given to you, please ask the researcher before you decide whether to join in. You will be given a copy of this Consent Form to keep and refer to at any time.

I confirm that I understand that by ticking/initialling each box below I am consenting to this element of the study. I understand that it will be assumed that unticked/initialled boxes means that I DO NOT consent to that part of the study. I understand that by not giving consent for any one element that I may be deemed ineligible for the study.

		Tick Box
1.	*I confirm that I have read and understood the Information Sheet for the above study. I have had an opportunity to consider the information and what will be expected of me. I have also had the opportunity to ask questions which have been answered to my satisfaction <i>[and would like to take part in (please tick one or more of the following)</i> - <i>an individual interview</i>	
2.	*I understand that I will be able to withdraw my data up to 4 weeks after interview	
3.	*I consent to participate in the study. I understand that my personal information (<i>My name and designation</i>) will be used for the purposes explained to me. I understand that according to data protection legislation, 'public task' will be the lawful basis for processing.	
4.	Use of the information for this project only Anonymity is optional for this research. Please select from the following 3 options: (a) I agree for my real name and role/affiliation to be used in connection with any words I have said or information I have passed on.	

	(b) I request that my comments are presented anonymously but give permission to connect my role/affiliation with my comments (but not the title of my position). (c) I request that my comments are presented anonymously with no mention of my role/affiliation.	
5.	*I understand that my information may be subject to review by responsible individuals from the University (to include sponsors and funders) for monitoring and audit purposes.	
6.	*I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason, [<i>without the care I receive, or my legal rights being affected</i>]. I understand that if I decide to withdraw, any personal data I have provided up to that point will be deleted unless I agree otherwise.	
7.	I understand the potential risks of participating and the support that will be available to me should I become distressed during the course of the research.	
8.	I understand the societal benefits of participating in the research	
9.	I understand that the data will not be made available to any commercial organisations but is solely the responsibility of the researcher(s) undertaking this study.	
10.	I understand that I will not benefit financially from this study or from any possible outcome it may result in in the future.	
11.	I understand that I will be compensated for the portion of time spent in the study (if applicable) or fully compensated if I choose to withdraw.	
12.	I agree that my anonymised research data may be used by others for future research. [No one will be able to identify you when this data is shared.]	
13.	I understand that the information I have submitted will be published as a report and I wish to receive a copy of it. Yes/No	
14.	I consent to my interview being audio/video recorded and understand that the recordings will be: - Stored anonymously, using password-protected software and will be used for specific research purposes. To note: If you do not want your participation recorded you can still take part in the study.	
15.	I hereby confirm that I understand the inclusion criteria as detailed in the Information Sheet and explained to me by the researcher.	
16.	I hereby confirm that: (a) I understand the exclusion criteria as detailed in the Information Sheet and explained to me by the researcher; and (b) I do not fall under the exclusion criteria.	
17.	I have informed the researcher of any other research in which I am currently involved or have been involved in during the past 12 months.	
18.	I am aware of who I should contact if I wish to lodge a complaint.	
19.	I voluntarily agree to take part in this study.	
20.	Use of information for this project and beyond	

	I would be happy for the data I provide to be archived on a Mac system and on the external hard drive or password protected USB I understand that other authenticated researchers will have access to my anonymised data.	
21.	Overseas Transfer of Data [if applicable] <i>I understand that my personal data will be transferredand the following safeguards will be put in place</i> All data collected will be anonymised and stored on Mac system or on an external hard drive or password protected USB for use during analysis. After the project, all identifiable data will be destroyed and not available after the study in accordance with UCL's data protection guidelines.	

If you would like your contact details to be retained so that you can be contacted in the future by UCL researchers who would like to invite you to participate in follow up studies to this project, or in future studies of a similar nature, please tick the appropriate box below.

☐	Yes, I would be happy to be contacted in this way	
☐	No, I would not like to be contacted	

_____	_____	_____
Name of participant	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____
Name of witness (If applicable)	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____
Researcher	Date	Signature

APPENDIX 4: NON-DISCLOSURE AGREEMENT WITH TRANSCRIBER

[REDACTED]

CONFIDENTIALITY & NON - DISCLOSURE AGREEMENT

BETWEEN

[REDACTED]

AND

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

[REDACTED]

THIS CONFIDENTIALITY AND NON-DISCLOSURE AGREEMENT is made this 1st day of June 2023

BETWEEN

[REDACTED]

Nigeria (hereinafter called "the Disclosing Party" which expression shall where the context so admits include heirs, Executors, Administrators, Personal and Legal Representatives and assigns) of the one part.

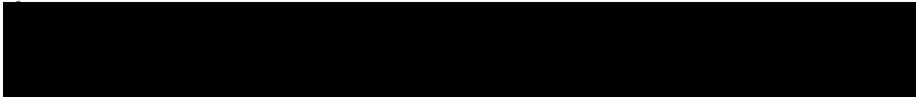
AND

[REDACTED] a Company incorporated in Nigeria and having its principal office at [REDACTED] (hereinafter referred to as "Receiving party" which expression shall where the context so admits include its successors-in-title and assigns) of the other part;

[REDACTED] and Receiving party may be referred to herein individually as 'the Party' and collectively as "the Parties".

WHEREAS:

- a. The Disclosing Party in connection with her PHD research titled "Exploring the Role of Public Sector Dynamic Capabilities for Development in Nigeria" shall be interviewing some selected individuals or organization ("Respondents").
 - b. The Disclosing Party is engaging the Receiving party for the purpose of transcribing the recorder interview with the respondents (Objective).
- [REDACTED]

- 
- c. In achieving the objective, the receiving party recognizes that it will be exposed to certain information of sensitive and confidential nature.
 - d. The Parties also acknowledge the need to protect sensitive information including but not limited to the personal identity information of respondents, other information that will be exchanged between the disclosing and receiving party; thus, they are prepared and willing to execute this Confidentiality and Non-Disclosure Agreement, whereby parties will be legally bound.

NOW THEREFORE, in consideration of the mutual covenants between the Parties, the Parties agree as follows:

1. DEFINITIONS

- 1.1. **"Agreement"** means this Confidentiality and Non-Disclosure Agreement.
- 1.2. **"Confidential Information"** shall for the purposes of this Agreement mean all written & oral information, data and other material in whatever form and all confidential, proprietary and non-public information shared by the disclosing party to the receiving party to "Receiving party" in connection with the Objective, which includes the following: any information, technical, commercial, financial, marketing or business information and know-how including without limitation, intellectual property, all correspondence, notes, computer disks and tapes, documents, records, data, Objectives, financial information, marketing brochures or other information in whatever form relating to the Nonny's business, its operating documents, standard forms which information has been communicated to "Receiving party", or otherwise acquired by "Receiving party" during the performance of the Objective, whether such information is formally designated as confidential or not.
- 1.3. **"Respondents"** means any individuals or organisations that is interviewed in the cause of the research titled "Exploring the Role of Public Sector Dynamic Capabilities for Development in Nigeria"

2. CONFIDENTIALITY OBLIGATIONS



[REDACTED]

"Receiving party" shall, with respect to Confidential Information received by it from [REDACTED]

- 2.1 Limit access to any Confidential Information, received, to designated employees who are actively involved in the information and then only have a need-to-know basis in connection with the Objective and only for use in connection therewith; and it will initiate internal security procedures reasonably acceptable to [REDACTED] to prevent unauthorized disclosure and will take all practical steps to impress upon those employees who need to be given access to the confidential information, the secret and confidential nature thereof.
- 2.2 Safeguard all Confidential Information received by it using a reasonable degree of care, which is not less than that degree of care used by "Receiving party" in safeguarding its own similar information or material;
- 2.3 Use all Confidential Information received by it solely for the performance of its duties and obligations, and the exercise of its rights in connection with the provision of the Objective to [REDACTED]
- 2.4 Not to disclose any Confidential Information received by it to any third party except where the disclosure is made to employees, attorneys, accountants, advisors or other authorized recipients who are professionally involved in the Objective and "Receiving party" hereby undertake that such authorized recipients shall be obligated to hold such information in trust and confidence.

3. RETURN OR DESTRUCTION OF CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION

Upon a written demand from [REDACTED], "Receiving party" shall cease to use or transcribe any Confidential Information and shall, if required, return the Confidential Information and all copies, notes or extracts thereof to [REDACTED] within seven (7) days of receipt of a demand in that regard. In the alternative, "Receiving party" may physically destroy or electronically erase all such Confidential Information and all copies notes or extracts thereof and upon receipt of a written request made by [REDACTED] "Receiving party" shall certify in writing that it has complied with the obligations set forth in Clause 3. "Receiving party" may retain, subject to the terms of this Agreement, a copy of the

[REDACTED]



| Confidential Information as required for compliance with its internal record keeping requirements.

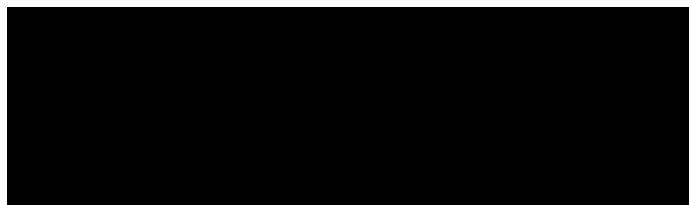
4. EXCEPTIONS TO CONFIDENTIALITY

The obligations of confidentiality and restriction of use in Clause 2 shall not apply to any Confidential Information that "Receiving party" can prove with appropriate documentary evidence as follows:

- 4.1. Was in the public domain prior to the date of this Agreement or subsequently came into the public domain through no fault of "Receiving party" and breach of the terms of this Agreement; or
- 4.2. Was lawfully obtained by "Receiving party" from a third party provided neither "Receiving party" nor any other party having a duty of trust or an obligation of confidentiality to the Discloser (an "Obligated Party") was the source of such information; or
- 4.3. Is required to be disclosed in a judicial or administrative proceeding provided that to the extent legally permissible, "Receiving party" gives reasonable notice of the possibility of such disclosure immediately before or after the disclosure in order that [REDACTED] may attempt to stop such disclosure or obtain a protective order concerning such disclosure; or
- 4.5 Was independently developed information by "Receiving party" without access or reference to the Confidential Information.

5. RIGHTS IN CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION

Except as specifically provided for herein, thus the Agreement does not confer any right, license, interest or title in, to or under the Confidential Information to "Receiving party". Except as specifically provided for herein, no license is hereby granted to "Receiving party", by estoppel or otherwise under any patent, trademark, copyright, trade secret or other proprietary rights of [REDACTED] to the Confidential Information.





6. INDEMNITY

Both Parties agree to indemnify and hold each other harmless from and against losses, claims, damages of whatsoever nature suffered or sustained by any of the parties and expenses, pursuant to a breach by any of the parties of the confidentiality obligations under this Agreement.

7. EQUITABLE RELIEF

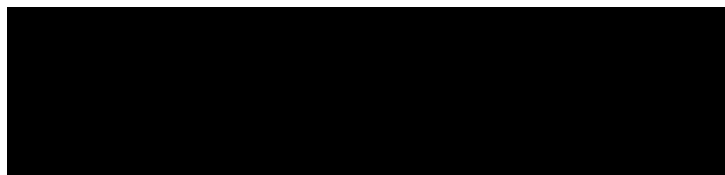
In the event of any breach of the confidentiality obligations of the Agreement, both parties agree to comply with any injunction to prevent any further breaches. The right shall be in addition to any other right, which may be available to either party to restrain the use of the Confidential Information, and any right to damages, which either party may have against each other.

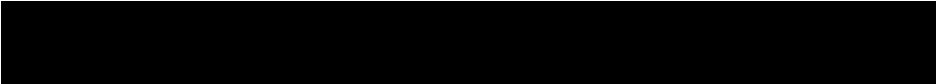
8. NO PUBLICITY

Unless expressly approved in writing by [REDACTED], no public announcement shall be made by "Receiving party" as to the execution or content of this Agreement, nor as to any discussions, negotiations, transactions that may occur after the execution hereof.

9. ENTIRE AGREEMENT

This Agreement constitutes the entire agreement between the parties with respect to the confidential information and supersedes any and all prior or contemporaneous written or oral representations, understandings and agreements relating thereto. Modifications of this Agreement must be in writing and duly executed by the parties' authorised representative to be effective; provided, however, if a court of competent jurisdiction finds any provision of this Agreement to be invalid or unenforceable, to the extent permitted by law, the parties intend for such provision to be reduced in scope or otherwise modified by the court to the minimum extent necessary to render the subject provision reasonable and enforceable. Alternatively, if any such invalid or unenforceable provision cannot be or is not so modified, such provision shall be deemed severed from this Agreement and all of the other provisions hereof shall remain in full force and effect as if such provision had never been included herein.





10. NOTICES

All notices must be in writing to be effective and may be personally delivered or sent by certified mail or recognized overnight courier to the applicable address noted in this Paragraph 11, and any such notice shall be deemed received when delivered and received with acknowledgement at the address stated below. Either Party may change its address for notice purposes by providing written notice of such change to the other party in the manner set forth in this Paragraph 11.

Notice Address: For [REDACTED]

Notice Address: For Receiving party
The Managing Director

11. BINDING EFFECT AND ASSIGNMENT

This Agreement shall inure to the benefit of and be binding upon the parties and their respective Successors, Assigns and Representatives; provided, however, "Receiving party" shall not assign this Agreement or any of its rights or obligations hereunder, without the prior written consent of [REDACTED]

Furthermore, neither this Agreement nor the disclosure of information shall constitute or imply any promise or intention to make any purchase of products or Objectives by the Disclosing Party or any commitment by the Disclosing Party to enter into any business arrangement with "Receiving party"



12. GOVERNING LAW

This Agreement shall be governed by and constructed in accordance with the laws of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and such laws shall also be applicable for the determination of any dispute which may arise out of, under, or in connection with this Agreement.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, the parties have executed this Agreements the day and year first above written presents as set out hereunder the day and year first above written.

Signed by the within name



SIGNATURE.....

01/06/2023

DATE:.....

The **Common Seal** of the within named 
 was hereunto affixed by its duly authorized representative



SIGNATURE: _____

NAME 

DESIGNATION: CEO

DATE: 01/06/2023

