

POLITICAL INTERFERENCE AND PUBLIC PROCUREMENT IN PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS: THE CASE OF EDO STATE CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

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CERTIFICATION

We certify that this work was carried out by **Alfred Akpevweoghene Ephraim** of the department of political science in the University of Benin, and is adequate in the scope and quality in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Bachelor of Science (B.Sc) Degree in political science.

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DEDICATION

This research work is first dedicated to God almighty who gave me the intellect, wisdom and understanding during the course of running this program. All glory and honor belongs to him.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I have taken efforts in this project. However, it would not have been possible without the kind support and help of many individuals. I would like to extend my sincere thanks to all of them.

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Special appreciation to My mum and Dad Mr. and Mrs. Onovweruo for all they have done, I couldn't have been here without them My siblings also for their unending support: Edith, Oreva and bro Rukky. Thanks for all you do

Also Bro keno, Sis Hossana much love and appreciation. My very good and close friends and course mates too cannot be left behind : Anthony, Prisca, Lisa , Christabel, Whitney ,queen , and many others too.

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ABSTRACT

This research examined the level of political interference in the implementation of public procurement in public institutions. The objective of this study aimed at assessing the level of political interference in the implementation of Public Procurement process, identifying other factors affecting public procurement implementation in public institutions and suggesting some possible remedies to preventing political interference in public procurement implementation in public institutions. For this study, the survey research design was adopted. The choice of the design was i

informed by the objectives of the study as outlined in chapter one. This research design provides a quickly efficient and accurate means of assessing information about a population of interest. The population for this study were workers in Civil Service Commission in Edo state, Nigeria. A total of 100 respondents were selected from the population figure out of which the sample size was determined. Public procurement activities suffer from neglect, lack of direction, poor co-ordination, lack of open competition and transparency, differing levels of corruption and most importantly not having a cadre of trained and qualified procurement specialists, who are competent to conduct and manage such procurements, in a professional, timely and cost-effective manner. Inflexible and bureaucratic systems of procurement contribute to unacceptable contract delays, increased costs, the potential for manipulation of contract awards and lack of fair competition, all of which create the perception in the population at large, that public expenditure is slow, ineffective, expensive and often corrupt

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Public purchases across the globe are imperative component in service delivery and functioning of various departments of government institutions. It is therefore of essence for governments to ensure that goods, works and services are provided efficiently to the public (Agu, 2019). Public procurement procedures are critical for this to be achieved. All goods and services for public use should be guided by the Public procurement requirement (Ribadu, 2016).

Public procurement is basically the process whereby public sector establishments, ministries, departments and local authorities acquire goods, works and services. The Public Procurement Law of 2007 is a comprehensive legislation designed to eliminate the shortcomings and organizational weaknesses which were inherent in public procurement in Nigeria. The public sector comprises of government department and public institutions or the ministries, departments and Agencies.

These entities supply goods, works and services to the public and are supplied through public procurement (Njoku, 2017). Political interference occurs when political leader(s) interfere with decision making in public administrative matters such as planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting as well as allocation and

d use of public funds. As stated by Dixit, and Pindyck, (2014) in the supply of roads, schools, hospitals in the developing countries, politics plays a role. Among various leadership challenges facing low developing democratic countries especial African countries is the political interference in administrations (Schapper, 2016). In many African countries, the public becomes a platform and the politicians want to maintain their faction in it and try to extend their domain in every other section of the public administration. Thus because of the political activities in the administration and the undue influence of the politicians, the public and administration institution gets politicized (Arrowsmith, 2018). According to Duch (2014) politicization of the public administration institution involves the appropriation of administrative structures and resources and the displacement of administration goals by organized political and community interests. The typical division of government in Nigeria is into a legislature, an executive, and a judiciary. Nigeria constitution of 1977 requires the powers of one branch/pillar not to conflict with the powers associated with the other branches (Ntliziywana, 2019). Despite the above, power separation remains a big challenge confronting public institutions be it at the national or local government levels, where the political leaders have failed to adopt a healthy and positive attitude towards performance of public administration officers (Parente, 2016).

Nigeria politicians interfere unnecessarily in public administration matters, exploit the p

public officers and present an exaggerated picture of public administration officers' works. They are encouraging societies to engage in demonstrations and agitations for narrow political gains (Ntliziywana, 2019). As a result, there is the growing intrusion of the politics into the public administration (Njoku, 2017). It has to be noted that when the administrative institution is politicized chances for corruption increase and the appointments to key posts are made not on the basis of merit but extraneous considerations (Pillary, 2014). Precisely, the public administration smells foul-play and all these provide occasions for communities to engage in riots and agitations in demanding for enquiry or dismissal of the concerned official. These protests adversely affect every section in the country.

Public procurement capacity is multi-faceted including individual, organizational and environmental elements (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 2006). The environmental facet relates to an enabling national environment which encapsulates the national legislation, policies and the broader institutional culture required for effective procurement (Pillary, 2014). The environmental factors border on the institutional arrangements related to public financial management, civil service, education and other civil society participation (Ocheni, 2012).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The public procurement system in Nigeria is to ensure that in a harmonized procedure,

all goods and services purchased by public institutions are done in a way that ensures a careful, economic and efficient use of public resources. It is also to ensure that transactions are devoid of corruption, but are done in fairly, plainly and in an impartial way, whereas encouraging competition among local industries. There are important economic and political implications related to Public procurement hence, the need to make sure that the process is efficient and economical.

Political interference with the procurement process poses a challenge to the implementation process and public procurement reforms. A good number of politicians think that they have the right to intervene in the procurement procedures thereby leading to capricious procurement decisions.

Procurement encompasses the whole process of acquiring property and/or services. It begins when an agency has identified a need and employs public procurement as a vital instrument for achieving economic, social and other objectives (Arrowsmith, 2018), and is regrettably an area vulnerable to mismanagement and corruption (OECD, 2017). Besides, most of the studies on public procurement compliance have been conducted outside Nigeria and mostly in the developed world.

In Nigeria, a wave of procurement reforms that began in 1999, culminated into the enactment of the Public Procurement Act 2007. Gelderman (2016) stipulate that compliance occurs when the target performs a requested action, but is apathetic about it, rather than

an enthusiastic, and puts in only a minimal or average effort. However, as an organizational outcome, compliance has traditionally been understood as conformity or obedience to regulations and legislation. It is on this premise that this study seeks to assess the level of political interference in the implementation of public procurement in public institutions.

Most studies have only concentrated on factors affecting procurement performance in public sector in Nigeria but did not focus on political interference as a challenge. This has inspired the researchers to carry out this study and also to fill the vacuum created and add to literature to the body of knowledge. This work seeks to investigate political interference as a factor that affects performance of the public procurement process in Nigeria's public sector.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to assess political interference and public procurement in public institution: A case study of Edo State Civil Service Commission. In other words, it seems to assess the extent to which politicians have interfered with public procurement processes in Nigeria.

Specific objectives include;

- i. To assess the level of political interference in the implementation of Public Procurement process.
- ii. To identify other factors affecting public procurement implementation in public institutions.
- iii. To suggest some possible remedies to preventing political interference in public procurement implementation in public institutions.

1.4 Research Questions

- i. What is the level of political interference in the implementation of public procurement process?
- ii. What other factors affect public procurement implementation in public institutions?
- iii. What are the possible remedies to preventing political interference in public procurement implementation in public institutions?

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study contributes to procurement activities and strengthens the act of obtaining goods, works and services in the public institutions in Nigeria and also promotes transparency and accountability which are important components in the procurement practices. The study again contributes to the body of knowledge and offers some suggested remedies to reduce or eliminate political interference in public procurement implementation process in public institutions in Nigeria. This study will be of immense benefit to other researchers who intend to know more on this study and can also be used by non-researchers to build more on their research work. This study contributes to knowledge and could serve as a guide for other study.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This study is on assessing the level of political interference in the implementation of public procurement in public institutions. The research study will cover the Civil Service Commission in Edo state. All departments of the organization will be involved and both management and staff of the organization will be sampled in the collection of data for the study. The study will cover a fair balance of male and female employees of the company and cut across the entire staff of the organization, thus from junior staff to management staff.

1.7 Limitations of the study

The demanding schedule of respondents at work made it very difficult getting the respondents to participate in the survey. As a result, retrieving copies of questionnaire in timely fashion was very challenging. Also, the researcher is a student and therefore has limited time as well as resources in covering extensive literature available in conducting this research. Information provided by the researcher may not hold true for all businesses or organizations but is restricted to the selected organization used as a study in this research especially in the locality where this study is being conducted. Finally, the researcher is restricted only to the evidence provided by the participants in the research and therefore cannot determine the reliability and accuracy of the information provided.

Financial constraint: Insufficient fund tends to impede the efficiency of the researcher in sourcing for the relevant materials, literature or information and in the process of data collection (Internet, questionnaire and interview).

Time constraint: The researcher will simultaneously engage in this study with other academic work. This consequently will cut down on the time devoted for the research work.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter gives an insight into various studies conducted by outstanding researchers, as well as explained terminologies with regards to the influence on management. The chapter also gives a resume of the history and present status of the problem delineated by a concise review of previous studies into closely related problems.

2.1 CONCEPTUALFRAMEWORK

Political Interference

Public procurement is considered an inherently political sensitive activity (Schapper, 2016). (Bolton, 2016) contended that in public procurement, managers take on the role of agent for elected representatives. However, Pillary (2014) argues that senior officials and political leaders use public office for private gain and this has weakened the motivation to remain honest. Raymond (2018) also opined that political office holders', ministers and political parties receive clandestine payments in government procurement

t. This ultimately interferes with the procurement process and constrains compliance. This is also re-echoed by Lodhia and Burritt (2014), who recognized that social and political influences have an important bearing on public sector reform. In developing countries; one of the major obstacles to the procurement system is ministerial interference with the tender process where ministers intervene and influence tender awards. The threat of being suspended or fired has in many cases intimidated public officers into obeying illegal ministerial directives leading to non-compliance (Akech, 2015). In support of this, Hui,(2011) asserted that interference from the local politicians, businessmen and women, members of parliament and very influential top management individuals have interrupted the procurement processes and deterred transparency. Lodhia and Burritt (2014) further stated that political influence in public sector management limits information, transparency and favor is extended without management being held to account. Coviello and Gagliarducci (2016) also revealed that politicians influence public procurement through non-compliance acts such as collusion.

Public procurement in Nigeria

Prior to 2007, there was no statutory provision that directly regulate the award of public contracts in Nigeria and the result is that the award of contract becomes an avenue by which the government functionaries reward their friends and cronies and by which they too amass wealth. Most of the rich business men that we have in Nigeria today make t

heir money through contracts that are awarded to them in the past by the governments, whether military or civilian government it is the same. Disgusted by the depth of corruption in the procurement system and its effects on the economy, the Federal Government commissioned the World Bank in 1999 in collaboration with some private sector specialists to review the country's public sector procurement structure, including the existing legal framework, organizational responsibilities and capabilities, and present procedures and practices, including how these may differ from the formal rules and procedures. Rather than enacting a statutory legislation to regulate public contracts, the government took a step to check the abuse in the system by establishing the Budget Monitoring and Price Intelligence Unit (BMPIU) in the Presidency with an objective among others to ensure that merit and due diligence are adhered to in the award and execution of contracts, procurement of products and services. However, on the 4th of June 2007, the then president of Nigeria President Umaru Musa Yar'Adua signed into law the Public Procurement Act (PPA) which is the first procurement law in the history of Nigeria. The purpose of the Act is to ensure transparency, competitiveness, value for money and professionalism in the public sector procurement system (Jacob, 2017). The Act provides for the establishment of the National Council on Public Procurement (NCPP) and the Bureau of Public Procurement (BPP) as regulatory authorities responsible for oversight, management and monitoring of public procurement practices and system.

Political Interference and Public Procurement

Public procurement is considered an inherently a politically sensitive activity. Pillary (2014) argues that senior officials and political leaders use public office for private gain and this has weakened the motivation to remain honest. Raymond (2018) also opined that ministers and political parties receive clandestine payments in government procurement. This ultimately interferes with the procurement process and constrains compliance. This is also re-echoed by Lodhia and Burritt (2014), who recognizes that social and political influences have an important bearing on public sector reform. In developing countries; one of the major obstacles to the procurement system is ministerial interference with the tender process where ministers intervene and influence tender awards. The threat of being suspended or fired has in many cases intimidated public officers into obeying illegal ministerial directives leading to noncompliance (Akech, 2015). In support of this, Hui,(2011) asserted that interference from the local politicians, businesspersons, members of parliament and very influential top management individuals has interrupted the procurement processes and deterred transparency. Lodhia and Burritt (2014) further stated that political influence in public sector management limits information, transparency and favor is extended without management being held to account. Coviello and Gagliarducci (2014) also revealed that politicians influence public procurement through non-compliance acts such as collusion. It therefore implies that political interference

ce has a negative effect on public procurement compliance.

Factor Influencing Political Interference

In their study, Mfuru, Sarwatt and Kanire (2018) analysed factors influencing political interference in public administration. The variables for analysing factors causing politicians to interfere with activities of political administration were poor service delivery, seek for popularity faith, nature of authority/regime, time toward political election and order from their political parties. The result revealed that the root causes or predictors of political interference in public administration were time towards political elections, nature of authority and order from the political parties.

According to them, it was strongly commented that the focus of interest to politician is to win parliamentary elections. Almost every respondent showed to have accepted political interference in public administration to be very high when time for political election is approaching. It was further mentioned at the time toward political election, politician increase interference with public administration in the ground that they have to face voters, therefore, they should have a say in every affair that affects public service delivery.

State of Nigeria's Infrastructure and Public Procurement

Sub-Saharan Africa is one of the regions with the poorest people in the world (United N

ations Economic and Social Council (2016). Access to various types of infrastructure remains sparse (United Nations Economic and Social Council (2016). Although Nigeria is the largest economy in Africa (World Bank, 2017), the state of its infrastructure still mirrors the situation within its region. Infrastructure for power generation, transport, education, sanitation, health care, housing and other services is inadequate. For instance, housing shortage is estimated at 17 million units (Veitch, 2014) and approximately half of the rural population live more than 2km away from an all-season road (AfDB, 2013). Access to water and sanitation facilities is also low (Foster and Pushak, 2013).

Over the years, there have been efforts to address the infrastructure deficits through public procurement which incorporates "*all actions from planning and forecasting, identification of needs, sourcing and solicitation of offers, evaluation of offers, review and award of contracts, contracting and all phases of contract administration until delivery of the goods, the end of a contract, or the useful life of an asset*" (United Nations Office for Project Services (UNOPS), 2014). Whilst public procurement in Nigeria has undergone reforms (e.g., Due Process Policy (Ocheni and Nwankwo, 2012), a prominent landmark in public procurement reforms in Nigeria has been the introduction of the Public Procurement Act 2007 (PPA 2007). The PPA 2007 has 13 parts and 61 sections with the broad aim of dealing exhaustively with all issues related to transparency and integrity in public procurement. The PPA 2007 requires the establishment of a National Council on P

Public Procurement (NCP) as an apex regulatory body with a Bureau of Public Procurement (BPP) as its administrative secretariat. The primary objectives of the BPP include: harmonization of procurement practices and policy; institution of due process in procurement; introduction of honesty, accountability and transparency in procurement; standardization of procurement procedures; procurement management; and performance evaluation. The key functions required of the BPP include: regulation of public procurement functions of procuring agencies and institutions; certification of procurement entities; monitoring of procured projects; coordination of training and capacity building; and general oversight and advisory functions. Collectively the NCP and the BPP are to supervise and regulate all public procurement activities together with the participation of civil society. Despite the establishment of the BPP, it is reported that the NCP is not fully functional (World Bank, 2013). According to Adewole (2014) most states have not enacted the PPA 2007 despite Federal government, donor agency and civil society organizations promotion.

On the back of public procurement reforms, some benefits have been attained. Amongst the reported benefits attained are: reinstatement of wrongly awarded public contracts to deserving bidders; good governance of public funds and assets; reduction in corruption; improved transparency and accountability of government; and general restoration of public confidence in public procurement (Fayomi, 2013). Despite these benefits, proc

urement within the public sector is still fraught with capacity challenges.

Procurement Capacity

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2016) defines capacity as "*the ability of people, organizations/institutions and society as a whole to successfully manage their affairs*". In relation to procurement capacity, UNDP (2010) describes procurement capacity development as the process through which individuals, organizations and societies obtain, strengthen, and maintain the capabilities to set and achieve development objectives. Public procurement capacity can be viewed as comprising three facets: individual (i.e. the skills, knowledge and experience of personnel); organizational (i.e. the policies, procedures and systems within an organization that support procurement functions); and an enabling environment.

The enabling environment aspect, which is pertinent to this study, is a term used to describe the broader national system within which procurement personnel and organization's function, and it facilitates or hampers their performance (Ndercaj and Ringwald, 2014). Whilst this aspect of procurement capacity may not be easy to grasp tangibly, it is central to the understanding of capacity issues at the individual or organization level. The environmental level relates to the availability of legislation, policies as well as broader institutional culture required for effective procurement (UNDP, 2016; Jensen and Refsgaard, 2018). Capacity at the environmental level also include power relations and social

norms which govern public procurement mandates, priorities, modes of operation and civic engagement across different parts of society (Jensen and Refsgaard, 2018). The OECD-DAC tool for capacity assessment also focuses on four pillars that can be applied to the environmental aspect of procurement capacity assessment namely: legislative and regulatory framework; institutional framework and management capacity; procurement operations and market practices; and integrity and transparency of the procurement institutions (OECD and World Bank, 2014). Based on a meta-analysis of procurement studies in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), Ndercaj and Ringwald (2014) categorized procurement challenges as follows:

Legislation and regulatory framework - Challenges related to irrelevance of public procurement Acts and frameworks due to rapid and dynamic changes in economy, society and the environment;

Institutional issues - Challenges related to lack of strong procurement institutions and professionals or inadequate training programs throughout government, private or civil services agencies;

Operational and management - Challenges related to limited recognition of procurement as a specialist and strategic function; and

Control and integrity - Challenges related to inadequate trust, honesty, transparency, integrity, compliance, monitoring, and accountability.

These challenges, some of which have been reported in other procurement studies in Nigeria and other sub-Saharan African countries, in the main are issues that relate to an enabling environment for procurement. Table 1 presents a variety of challenges (drawn from literature) that relate to an enabling environment for procurement. The challenges have also been clustered along the lines of Ndercaj and Ringwald's (2014) categorization and the pillars of the OECD-DAC capacity assessment tool (OECD and World Bank, 2004). Based on this categorization, it can be seen that the institutional challenges are the most common, followed by challenges related to control, integrity and transparency. The operational challenges are the least common. Despite recognition of these challenges within the extant literature, an assessment of the extent to which they adversely impact the effectiveness of infrastructure procurement by public institutions at state and local government levels within the Nigerian context is lacking. Such assessment could enable determination of the critical challenges affecting infrastructure procurement.

The Perceived Causes of Corruption in the Federal Public Service

The causes of corruption in the Federal Public Service are varied and dynamic. Ribadu (2016) attributes it to the country's history of prolonged military rule that dominated the political scene, subdued the rule of law, facilitated wanton looting of public treasury, depicted public institutions and instituted a secret and opaque culture in the running of government business. TI (2018) observes that, corruption is a product of environmental

variables. It thrives where temptation co-exist with permissiveness; where institutional checks on power are missing; where decision making remains obscure; where civil society is thin on the ground; and where great inequalities in the distribution of wealth condemn people to live in poverty.

The Federal Government of Nigeria in 2001 assigned a consortium of Federal institutions led by the Institute for Development Research, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria to conduct a Governance and Corruption Survey study. The report was released in 2003. In the opinion of public officials, the major causes of corruption in the public service were low salary for public officials and lack of transparent political process. Others include lack of effective corruption reporting system, lack of effective judiciary and ineffective mass media among others by Adagba (2017).

The African Development Bank (2016) argues that, corrupt practices become the exemption rather than the norm if the likelihood of being caught is high, if the consequence once caught is predictable and severe, and if it is generally condemned by society. The AfDB (2016) and Gregory (2017) summarizes the dynamics of public sector corruption using a simple model; $C = M + D - A$; when C is corruption, M is monopoly, D is discretion and A is accountability. That is, corruption = monopoly + discretion – accountability. Under this model, a public servant is assumed to have monopoly of power over goods or services which generate economic rent, and has discretion to decide who will acquire

it. That is, he determines how rent is distributed, and is not accountable for his action.

Bello Imam (2015) identifies the sources of corruption as; Trade Restrictions; Government Subsidies, Price Control, Low Wages in the Public Service, weak democratic structures, and sociological factors inter-alia. In their contributions Ekumankama (2012) and Adedayo (2016) identifies diminished societal value system; poor leadership and political instability; lack of effective internal control and the problem of prosecution and inadequate sanctions against offenders has been responsible for the high rate of corruption in the Federal Public Service.

In developing countries like Nigeria, virtually every aspect of the citizens activities has to be authorized and regulated by the government. These range from owing a shop, borrowing money, investing, owing and driving a car, building a house obtaining foreign exchange, getting a passport and so on. Government monopoly in the granting of these authorizations gives the bureaucrats a great amount of power and a good opportunity to extract bribes.

Studies by Global Integrity (2014, 2016 and 2017) found no relationship between democracy and corruption in the world. Ribadu's (2016) assertion that, the high rate of corruption in the Federal Public Service is mainly due to the prolonged period of military dictatorship then becomes hollow. However, the conditions that favor corruption as identified by TI (2018) are typical of military regimes. Then, one may argue that, the persistence o

If corruption in the Federal Public Service can partly be attributed to the prolonged military rule. Others such as Ekumankama (2015) and Adebayo (2016) observe were fading societal value system, ineffective internal control and the problem of prosecution and inadequate sanctions for offenders, and weak democratic structures among others as constituting problems to an effective fight against corruption in the Federal Public Service.

From the views of the scholars and institutions, the causes of corruption are multi-dimensional. They are institutional, societal, political, judicial and economic. Under resource and weak institutions (courts and anti-corruption institutions) cannot effectively fight corruption. A corrupt society produces corrupt public service. Corrupt political process produces corrupt legislators and executives. A poorly paid public service will be more prone to corruption than a well-paid one.

Excessive secrecy in public service will make the detection and investigation of corruption cases difficult.

Public sector corruption is generally connected with the state powers and especially with its monopoly and discretionary powers. Some of these factors are direct causes of corruption such as political party financing, subsidies, mild punishment for corruption offences and weak institutional controls. The indirect factors are societal such as the tendency to make sudden wealth and waning societal norms such as honesty, and hard work.

k.

Strategies for Combating Corruption in the Federal Public Service

If the anti-corruption institutions are to be effective in fighting corruption in the Federal Public Service thereby ameliorating the adverse consequences of the vice, certain strategies need to be taken. Concerned institutions and scholars such as AfDB (2016) Adebayo (2016), Ali (2017) Braibanti (2016), Ekumankama (2012) and Njoku (2017) identified strategies for fighting corruption in the Federal Public Service. Adebayo (2016) suggests the growth and development of a culture that will inculcate the right sense of values which to him can be achieved through education rather than statutory legislations.

Braibanti (2016) suggests societal value re-orientation; creation of alternative means of employment; sincere political commitment; precision of investigative and sanction devices; and strong judiciary and legislature to restrain bureaucratic excesses. Ali (2017) advocates making public declaration of assets and liabilities by all class of public servants compulsory to enhance transparency. He also advocates the careful amendment of section 308 of the 1999 constitution to remove the immunity clause to enable anti-corruption institutions timely investigate and prosecute chief executives and their deputies at the federal and state levels. Others are the inclusion of anti-corruption clauses in all public contract agreements and the adoption of the Chinese and Saudi-Arabian models for punishment (execution) of corrupt officials as an antidote.

Similarly, the "Eagle Watch" (2018) considers robust demonstration of political will at all levels of government to fight corruption; amendment of section 308 of the 1999 Constitution as it relates to all criminal matters and elimination of all forms of protection for corruption in high places. The "Eagle Watch" (2018), also stressed the need for value orientation in the family and society and the refusal by communities, universities, organizations to reward corrupt enrichment. It also advocates the others include; immediate auditing and scrutiny of all security votes, information funds and all such votes however named and putting in place clear parameters consistent with international best practice to prevent abuses associated with the use of the funds.

TI (2013) advocates the reform of political parties, the courts and the police. Njoku (2017) in his contribution stresses the need for structural considerations which include fundamental changes in the perception of public office, restructuring the modus operandi of public administration and strengthening the necessary checks and balances to enable the ordinary citizens exercise sufficient pressures on their public officials.

The AfDB (2016) offers more encompassing strategies for combating corruption. It asserts that, anti-corruption strategies must address the broader governance and institutional *raison d'être* that gives rise to the problem in the first instance. At the individual level, it must address the elements of rational choice which rationalizes corrupt practices as low-risk high-gain endeavors rather than the opposite, thus, the need for enforce

ment of severe punishment for corruption offences. More broadly, AfDB stressed that an effective anti-corruption crusade must be country specific, but also based on internationally accepted norms and standard. The strategy must incorporate elements of prevention, detection, investigation, enforcement, public awareness and institution building. It is worthy to note that, in the fight against corruption, the optimal level may not be zero but that it should be reduced to manageable level. It also requires consistent, coherent, broad based approach and long-term perspective.

Specifically, the AfDB (2018) advocates for; sustained political will and leadership committed to fighting corruption; strengthening institutions; and reform of the public sector. This includes; Financial Management such as the Fiscal Responsibility Bill, Civil Service Reforms; Tax and Revenue Reforms; Public Procurement; and Independent Anti-Corruption Institutions. Other strategies include; reform of the legal and judicial system; strong legislature, existence of vibrant civil society organizations; and international collaboration since corruption money has wings not wheels. As in other developing countries, looted money easily finds safe heavens abroad (Vittal 2015).

It is in view of this that Doig and McIvor (2019) advocate that recent anti-corruption strategies should cover a number of areas viz; legal, organizational, financial and civic. These include anti-corruption agencies whose effectiveness would depend on administrative and political autonomy, independence from the police, independent financial resour

ces and recruitment powers. Others are combination of prevention, awareness, investigation and prosecution as well as an extensive legal framework.

From the views of the AfDB (2016), Braibanti (2016) and the Eagle Eye (2018), it is clear that a successful fight against corruption must be multidimensional requiring societal value re-orientation; sustained political will and leadership committed to fighting corruption at all levels of government; strong legislature as well as independent judiciary and anti-corruption institutions. Others are reform of the public service, existence of vibrant civil society organizations and international collaboration.

These need to be consistent and embracing in terms of detection investigation and speedy enforcement. It must be pointed out that, whatever strategy is adopted as an antidote, it should target the root causes of corruption in the country. In addition, the strategies should be comprehensive in terms of legal, organization, financial and civic-ranging from initiatives directly intended to combat corruption to those which minimize the opportunity and incentive for corruption.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

The theory of extractive corruption unveiled the state society relationship. It explains that the dominant force in every society is the elites who use state apparatuses to perpetuate their stay and hold on to the state power. It therefore emphasizes the authoritarian character and neo patrimonial tendencies of the state. Extractive theory of corruption e

explains that the over concentration of powers of government in the hands of few elites, empowers the elite to abuse such powers and rely on it to divert commonwealth for personal use. That is, the more political power is concentrated exclusively in the hands of a few individuals, the greater the temptation for power abuse, selfish wealth seeking and primitive extraction (Njoku, 2017).

In Njoku view, the theory of extractive corruption is based on the mainstream political science notion of authoritarianism, namely a rule basically in the interest of the rulers that is ultimately based on force. He further noted that authoritarian rulers are using the power capabilities of the state in the struggle for power, to attain, retain and increase their powers, and to accumulate resources from the nation and from the ruled, for private benefit.

The two broad areas that allow the establishment and continuous expansion of the programme of extractive theory of corruption are the adoption or use of authoritarian regime or the neopatrimonialism. Within the context of authoritarian regimes, the elites may establish a form of government with sophisticated institutional arrangement amenable to corrupt practices. This could be in form of faulty decentralized system like the presidential system or a highly centralized form of government like single party or unitary system of government. On the other hand, neo patrimonial system resorts to patronage

system for the purposes of extracting benefits.

In fact, what makes the Neo-patrimonial system different from the patrimonial ones, is that the neo patrimonial regime maintains a façade of modernity, legality, rationality, and professional bureaucratic structures (Schapper, 2016). This system is mostly found in Africa and also the Latin America. In the areas where neo patrimonialism is dominant, there is the tendency of the elites or the ruler to hold on to his/her public office through the unchecked patronage system. The theory is fundamental in the understanding of the persistence and pervasiveness of corruption as it emphasized elitist drive to hold on to power with sole intention to derived personal benefits from the largesse for public good. However, the theory fails to acknowledge the fact that in every society there is always few delegated members of the society empowered by the people to take decisions on behalf of others. This is important since every member of a political community cannot be directly involved in the running of the day to day activities of the government. This theory does not appreciate the relevance and the critical role played by the state specialized agencies and institutions in prevention and reduction if not completely elimination of corruption in the society. In spite the fact that such delegated responsibilities may lead to the over concentration of powers of government in the hands of few elites, existence of legal frameworks puts the activities of those in leadership in check. Strong institutions and laws prevent the elites from abusing state powers and also make it diff

difficult to divert commonwealth for personal use. In this regard, the effectiveness of the legal system in the society and judicial process help to address corrupt practices and other related offences. According to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2016) weaknesses in the anti-corruption legal and judicial system may undermine host governments' capacity to effectively detect, prevent and sanction corruption. Within this context, the theory fails to explain why developed countries with few elites in power do not witness the level of corruption comparatively to the underdeveloped nations.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter covers the description and discussion on the various techniques and procedures used in the study to collect and analyze the data as it is deemed appropriate

3.2 Research Design

For this study, the survey research design was adopted. The choice of the design was informed by the objectives of the study as outlined in chapter one. This research design provides a quickly efficient and accurate means of assessing information about a population of interest. It intends to study an assessment of the level of political interference in the implementation of public procurement in public institutions. The study will be conducted Edo state.

3.3 Population of the Study

Sitwenthrone (2010), defined population as the study of the group of persons and objects which defined by some unique attributes. The population comprised the staff of Edo Civil Service (Ministry of works) as shown in the table below:

Table 1.

The population size of the Edo State Civil Service, Ministry of Works.

CATEGORIES	POPULATION
Senior Management Personnel (SMP)	24

Officers of Middle Level	50
Junior workers	60
Total	134

Source: Field Research, 2025

3.4 Sample and Sampling Techniques

The researcher used Taro Yamane's formula to determine the sample size from the population.

Taro Yamane's formula is given as;

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

Where N = Population of study (134)

n = Sample size (?)

e = Level of significance at 5% (0.05)

1 = Constant

$$\therefore n = \frac{134}{1 + 134(0.05)^2} = \frac{134}{1+134(0.0025)} = \frac{134}{1+0.335}$$

$$n = \frac{134}{1.335} = \underline{100}$$

The sample size therefore is 100 respondents.

3.5 Research Instrument and Instrumentation

Data for this study was collected from primary and secondary sources. The primary source of data collected was mainly the use of a structured questionnaire which was designed to elicit information on an assessment of the level of political interference in the implementation of public procurement in public institutions. The secondary source of data collections were textbooks, journals and scholarly materials.

3.6 Validity of Instrument

The instrument of this study was subjected to face validation. Face validation tests the appropriateness of the questionnaire items. This is because face validation is often used to indicate whether an instrument on the face of it appears to measure what it contains. Face validation therefore aims at determining the extent to which the questionnaire is relevant to the objectives of the study. In subjecting the instrument for face validation, copies of the initial draft of the questionnaire will be validated by supervisor. The supervisor is expected to critically examine the items of the instrument with specific objectives of the study and make useful suggestions to improve the quality of the instrument. Based on his recommendations the instrument will be adjusted and re-adjusted before being administered for the study.

3.7 Reliability of Instrument

The coefficient of 0.81 was considered a reliability coefficient because according to Et

uk (1990), a test-retest coefficient of 0.5 will be enough to justify the use of a research instrument.

3.8 Method of Data Collection

This study is based on the two possible sources of data which are the primary and secondary source.

a. Primary Source of Data: The primary data for this study consist of raw data generated from responses to questionnaires and interview by the respondents.

b. Secondary Source of Data: The secondary data includes information obtained through the review of literature that is journals, monographs, textbooks and other periodicals.

3.9 Method of Data Analysis

The statistical method that was adopted for this study is the descriptive statistics that is the simple percentage and frequency count.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the presentation and analysis of the result obtained from questionnaires. The data gathered were presented according to the order in which they were arranged in the research questions and simple percentage were used to analyze the demographic information of the respondents while the chi square test was adopted to test the research hypothesis.

1.2 Analysis of Demographic Data of Respondents

Table 1: Gender of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	65	65.0	65.0
Female	35	35.0	100.0
Total	100	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2025

Table 1 above shows the gender distribution of the respondents used for this study. Out of the total number of 100 respondents, 65 respondents which represent 65.0 percent of the population are male. 35 which represent 35.0 percent of the population are female.

Table 2: Age range of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
20-30years	15	15.0	15.0
31-40years	10	10.0	25.0
41-50years	25	25.0	50.0
51-60years	20	20.0	70.0
above 60years	30	30.0	100.0
Total	100	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2025

Table 2 above shows the age grade of the respondents used for this study. Out of the total number of 100 respondents, 15 respondents which represent 15.0percent of the population are between 20-30years. 10respondents which represent 10.0percent of the population are between 31-40years. 25respondents which represent 25.0percent of the population are between 41-50years. 20respondents which represent 20.0percent of the population are between 51-60years. 30respondents which represent 30.0percent of the population are above 60years.

Table 3: Educational Background of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
FSLC	20	20.0	20.0
WASSCE/GCE/NECO	25	25.0	45.0
OND/HND/BSC	35	35.0	80.0
MSC/PGD/PHD	15	15.0	95.0
OTHERS	5	5.0	100.0
Total	100	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2025

Table 3 above shows the educational background of the respondents used for this study. Out of the total number of 100 respondents, 20 respondents which represent 20.0 percent of the population are FSLC holders. 25 which represent 25.0 percent of the population are SSCE/GCE/WASSCE holders. 35 which represent 35.0 percent of the population are OND/HND/BSC holders. 15 which represent 15.0 percent of the population are MSC/PGD/PHD holders. 5 which represent 5.0 percent of the population had other type of educational qualifications.

Table 4: Marital Status

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Single	30	30.0	30.0
	Married	55	15.0	45.0
	Divorced	5	20.0	65.0
	Widowed	10	15.0	80.0
	Total	100	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2025

Table 4 above shows the marital status of the respondents used for this study. 30 which represent 30.0percent of the population are single. 55 which represent 55.0percent of the population are married. 5 which represent 5.0percent of the population are divorced. 10 which represent 10.0percent of the population are widowed.

4.3 Analysis of Psychographic Data

Table 5: There is a correlation between political interference and implementation of public procurement process

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	30	30.0	30.0