

NEW-REFORMS IN THE CIVIL SERVICE (2000–2024) AN EVALUATION OF IPPIS, MONETIZATION OF FRINGE BENEFITS, AND SALES OF FEDERAL GOVERNMENT PROPERTIES

Christine Omole¹, Tyodzer Patrick PILLAH^{2*}, Ayeh, R. I³

^{1-2*-3} Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Management Sciences, Veritas University Abuja

<p>Corresponding Author Tyodzer Patrick PILLAH</p> <p>Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Management Sciences, Veritas University Abuja</p> <p>Email; pillahp@veritas.edu.ng</p> <p>8036275160</p> <p>Article History</p> <p>Received: 03 / 05 / 2025</p> <p>Accepted: 16 / 05 / 2025</p> <p>Published: 20 / 05 / 2025</p>	<p>Abstract: This paper investigates new reform efforts within the Nigerian civil service from 2000 to 2024, focusing on the Integrated Payroll and Personnel Information System (IPPIS), monetization of fringe benefits, and the sale of government-owned properties. These reforms were aimed at curbing corruption, reducing costs, and improving transparency. Drawing on scholarly articles, particularly those on ResearchGate and the works of Patrick T. Pillah, this paper explores the disconnect between policy intentions and outcomes. It employs qualitative methodology and policy evaluation frameworks to determine the effectiveness of these initiatives. Findings indicate a pattern of partial implementation, institutional resistance, and fiscal leakage. The paper concludes with recommendations for strengthening reform execution, enhancing transparency, and fostering a more accountable civil service.</p> <p>Keywords: New- reform s, Civil service,monitization,Servicom Treasury Single Account TSA, Pension Reform Act.</p>
<p>How to Cite: Omole, C., PILLAH, T. P., Ayeh, R. I, (2025). NEW-REFORMS IN THE CIVIL SERVICE (2000–2024) AN EVALUATION OF IPPIS, MONETIZATION OF FRINGE BENEFITS, AND SALES OF FEDERAL GOVERNMENT PROPERTIES. <i>IRASS Journal of Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences</i>,2(5)129-138.</p>	

Introduction

The Nigerian civil service has undergone several transformative reforms between 2000 and 2024, driven by the urgent need to address systemic inefficiencies, reduce corruption, and enhance accountability in public administration. With its central role in implementing government policies and managing public resources, the civil service became the target of various policy initiatives that sought to recalibrate its operations and outputs (Pillah, 2023). Among the most significant reforms introduced in this period were the Integrated Payroll and Personnel Information System (IPPIS), the Monetization of Fringe Benefits, and the Sale of Federal Government-Owned Properties. These reforms were implemented across the administrations of Presidents Olusegun Obasanjo (1999–2007), Goodluck Jonathan (2010–2015), and Muhammadu Buhari (2015–2023), each building upon or modifying the previous government's efforts.

The administration of President Olusegun Obasanjo marked a pivotal era in Nigeria's civil service reform trajectory. His government initiated wide-ranging reforms under the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), emphasizing public service efficiency and anti-corruption measures (Okonjo, 2022). One of the major initiatives was the Monetization Policy, which aimed to reduce the cost burden of non-cash benefits such as government-provided housing, vehicles, and utilities by offering monetary compensation in their place. The intention was to promote efficiency, eliminate abuse, and reduce recurring overheads in the federal civil service. Obasanjo's tenure also laid

the groundwork for the IPPIS, conceived as a platform to address payroll fraud, eliminate ghost workers, and automate personnel data.

President Goodluck Jonathan continued these reforms with a focus on technology-driven governance. Under his leadership, the IPPIS project expanded significantly, enrolling over 400 Ministries, Departments, and Agencies (MDAs) by 2015. The administration also sustained the monetization policy, although implementation challenges persisted, including resistance from labor unions and disparities in benefit structures (Ajayi, 2020). Moreover, Jonathan's government pursued the sale of underutilized federal assets, particularly in urban centers, under the coordination of the Bureau of Public Enterprises (BPE). These sales were expected to free the government from the burden of maintenance costs and raise revenues for development.

President Muhammadu Buhari's administration was more aggressive in deploying the IPPIS as part of its anti-corruption crusade. By 2023, over 700 MDAs had been captured under IPPIS, and the system helped to uncover more than 70,000 ghost workers, reportedly saving the government over N230 billion (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2023). Despite this, implementation gaps persisted due to infrastructural limitations, inconsistent data entry, and political resistance. Buhari's government also pushed forward with the sale of government-owned properties, although these efforts attracted criticism for lack of transparency and favoritism toward political elites (Umeh & Adewale, 2022).

While these reforms represent significant efforts to modernize the Nigerian civil service, they have not been without controversy or setbacks. Critics argue that the monetization policy disproportionately benefited senior officials while increasing the burden on junior staff who could not afford market-rate accommodations or vehicles. Similarly, concerns about asset undervaluation and insider dealings plagued the asset disposal process, raising questions about transparency and accountability (Pillah, 2023).

Thus, the Nigerian experience with civil service reform from 2000 to 2024 reveals a complex mix of intentions, actions, and outcomes. This paper seeks to evaluate the extent to which these three major reforms—IPPIS, monetization of fringe benefits, and asset sales—have achieved their objectives.

Methodology

This research adopts a qualitative methodology rooted in policy evaluation and document analysis. Sources include civil service handbooks, and peer-reviewed articles from platforms such as ResearchGate and other Nigerian scholars in the field of public administration. Data were analyzed thematically using a comparative framework to assess each initiative's performance against its stated objectives.

Statement of the Problem

Despite successive administrations' claims of reform, the Nigerian civil service continues to grapple with inefficiency, corruption, and bloated expenditure. Initiatives such as IPPIS, monetization of fringe benefits, and asset sales were designed to address these problems. However, the actual implementation of these initiatives has often fallen short, leading to public distrust and policy fatigue. There is a need to critically assess these so-called reforms to understand their failures and derive lessons for future interventions.

Issues of Determination

- To what extent has IPPIS improved payroll integrity and reduced ghost workers?
- Has the monetization of fringe benefits resulted in financial efficiency and transparency?
- What are the economic and administrative implications of selling federal government properties?
- What institutional, political, and socio-economic factors have impeded the success of these initiatives?

Evaluation and Analysis

IPPIS

Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System (IPPIS) aimed to centralize and sanitize the payroll system in the federal civil service. It was expected to eliminate ghost workers and ensure uniformity in salary payments. While IPPIS has recorded some success, it has also been fraught with technical glitches, resistance from certain unions, and fraudulent manipulations within the system itself (Usman & Ibrahim, 2022). According to Pillah (2023), the lack of adequate training and inter-agency coordination has undermined IPPIS's effectiveness.

Integrated Personnel and Payroll Information System (IPPIS) in Nigeria traces back to the persistent structural inefficiencies and corruption plaguing the civil service, especially in the area of payroll management. Before its introduction, Nigeria's public payroll system was notoriously opaque,

characterized by the proliferation of ghost workers, duplicated salary payments, and unverifiable personnel records.

The reform was conceptualized under the administration of President Olusegun Obasanjo as part of his wide-ranging public sector reform agenda (1999–2007). During this period, the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) was launched in 2003 as a roadmap to improve transparency, efficiency, and accountability in government operations. NEEDS recognized that the civil service could not serve as an effective driver of national development without major reforms in financial and human resource management.

The IPPIS project was formally launched in 2007 by the Federal Government of Nigeria under the supervision of the Office of the Accountant General of the Federation (OAGF) in collaboration with the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), and other development partners. It was designed to address the bloated wage bill and clean up Nigeria's federal payroll system by creating a centralized database of all civil servants and automating salary payments.

The reform was also influenced by global best practices. Many developed and developing countries had adopted centralized payroll systems to combat public sector payroll fraud and enhance efficiency. Nigeria's choice to adopt IPPIS was informed by successful models in countries like Ghana, India, and Kenya.

Implementation Process

The implementation of IPPIS began in phases, guided by pilot projects and continuous expansion:

- **Pilot Phase (2007–2010):** The first set of Ministries, Departments, and Agencies (MDAs) were enrolled in the pilot phase in 2007. These included six MDAs: the Federal Ministry of Education, Federal Ministry of Works, and others. The data of these MDAs' staff was collected, verified, and uploaded into the IPPIS platform.
- **Platform Development:** The technical backbone of IPPIS was developed using Oracle-based enterprise solutions. The software was designed to collect biometric and employment data of federal workers, including names, date of birth, qualifications, and salary structure. Payments were processed directly through the system, eliminating intermediaries.
- **Biometric Data Capture:** One of the most critical components was biometric data capture. Each federal worker was required to undergo physical verification, fingerprint registration, and facial recognition, which were matched with records from the National Identity Management Commission (NIMC) and other databases.
- **Rollout and Expansion (2011–2018):** Following the pilot's success, additional MDAs were progressively added. By 2016, over 300 MDAs had been enrolled. A major boost came under President Muhammadu Buhari's administration, which made IPPIS implementation a key aspect of his anti-corruption strategy. Buhari signed an Executive Order compelling all federal MDAs to join the IPPIS platform by the end of 2020.
- **Integration with Other Systems:** IPPIS was integrated with the Treasury Single Account (TSA) and the Government Integrated Financial Management Information System (GIFMIS). This allowed for real-time financial reporting, ensuring that salaries were paid directly to verified employees through the TSA.

- **Academic Institutions and Military Enrollment (2019–2022):** One of the most controversial phases of implementation was the attempt to enroll public universities and the military. Despite resistance, particularly from university unions like ASUU (Academic Staff Union of Universities), the government insisted on compliance. Specialized versions like UTAS (University Transparency and Accountability Solution) and U3PS (University Peculiar Payroll Payment System) were later proposed as alternatives.

Achievements of IPPIS

- **Reduction in Ghost Workers:** One of IPPIS' most significant achievements is the elimination of over 70,000 ghost workers, saving the Nigerian government over N288 billion since inception. The automation of salary payments based on verified biometric data helped drastically reduce fraudulent entries.
- **Transparency and Accountability:** IPPIS enhanced transparency in government payrolls. It made it easier to audit civil service employment and salary data, detect irregularities, and provide verifiable information to stakeholders, including the Budget Office and National Assembly.
- **Improved Financial Management:** The integration with TSA and GIFMIS led to better fiscal planning and budgeting. Ministries and agencies now provide real-time salary expenditure reports, which aid in more accurate budget forecasts.
- **Centralized Database:** Nigeria now possesses a centralized digital database of over 1.3 million federal employees. This resource is essential for workforce planning, pension management, and deployment of public personnel.
- **Salary Harmonization:** IPPIS has helped in harmonizing salary payments across different MDAs, eliminating disparities and ensuring that federal workers are paid based on approved salary structures.
- **Global Recognition:** Nigeria's implementation of IPPIS has been praised by international donors, including the World Bank, as a model of effective civil service reform in Africa.

Challenges of IPPIS

- **Resistance from Unions:** The most notable opposition has come from ASUU, which argues that IPPIS undermines university autonomy, especially in recruiting temporary and research-based staff. This led to several strikes and delays in full implementation in tertiary institutions.
- **System Glitches and Payment Delays:** Some employees reported late salary payments, omissions, and underpayments due to errors in the biometric or employment data uploaded to the system. The technical infrastructure has also faced downtimes and inadequate bandwidth, especially during peak processing periods.
- **Exclusion of Peculiar Institutions:** The one-size-fits-all model did not initially accommodate peculiar payroll dynamics of agencies like the military, paramilitary, and research institutes. These institutions often have complex allowances and field duty variations that IPPIS struggled to incorporate.

- **Corruption within the System:** Although IPPIS aims to reduce corruption, there have been insider threats. In 2022, investigations revealed that some IPPIS desk officers manipulated data for personal gain, indicating that the system itself can be compromised without robust oversight.
- **Incomplete Coverage:** As of 2023, some federal agencies were still not fully enrolled. Issues such as legal frameworks, legacy payroll systems, and internal resistance continued to delay full national implementation.
- **Data Privacy and Protection:** Concerns have been raised about how IPPIS stores and secures sensitive personal data. Without a comprehensive data protection law, there's a risk of misuse or leaks of this information.

Monetization of Fringe Benefits

Introduced under President Obasanjo's administration, this policy aimed to reduce government expenditure by monetizing benefits such as housing, transportation, and medical allowances. However, implementation has been uneven, and in many cases, civil servants have neither received adequate compensation nor access to necessary services (Adebayo, 2020). The monetization policy has also been criticized for exacerbating inequality within the service.

The Monetization Policy in Nigeria's civil service was born out of the urgent need to curb waste, enhance efficiency, and instill fiscal discipline in public service delivery. By the early 2000s, the Nigerian government was grappling with a bloated civil service, rising recurrent expenditures, and declining public assets due to poor maintenance culture and abuse of official privileges.

Civil servants, especially senior officials, were traditionally entitled to a wide range of in-kind fringe benefits such as official residences, chauffeur-driven cars, domestic staff, utility payments, and free medical care. This system created a sense of entitlement and encouraged excessive spending, redundancy, and inequity among civil servants. Worse still, public assets such as government quarters and vehicles were poorly maintained or sold off at undervalued prices through insider deals.

In response to these structural inefficiencies, President Olusegun Obasanjo initiated the Monetization Policy in 2003 as part of his Public Service Reform Agenda. The decision was backed by recommendations from the Presidential Committee on the Review of the Civil Service Reforms, led by Alhaji Yayale Ahmed, then Head of Service. The policy aimed to replace the provision of non-cash benefits with financial compensation, allowing civil servants to take personal responsibility for their welfare and promoting a culture of prudence and accountability.

The legislative backing for this reform came through an Executive Bill presented to the National Assembly, leading to the passage of the Certain Political, Public and Judicial Office Holders (Salaries and Allowances, etc.) Act, 2002, which provided the framework for monetization and harmonization of benefits.

Implementation Process

The implementation of the monetization policy began in October 2003, spearheaded by the Office of the Head of Service of the Federation and supervised by the Budget Office, Revenue Mobilization Allocation and Fiscal Commission (RMAFC), and the Ministry of Finance. The following steps marked the implementation trajectory:

- **Asset Valuation and Disposal:** One of the first actions was the valuation of government properties – including residential quarters, official vehicles, and other fringe assets – for sale to their current occupants. Federal government houses were appraised and offered for sale, especially in the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) and state capitals.
- **Payment of Monetized Benefits:** Each public servant was given a financial package equivalent to the cost of their previous fringe benefits. For instance, instead of an official car or residence, they received a monthly allowance to cover those needs.
- **Classification of Officers:** Civil servants were grouped based on their grades and roles, and monetized allowances were paid accordingly. Political office holders also received consolidated allowances covering housing, transportation, and domestic staff.
- **Sale of Government Quarters and Cars:** Government-owned residences and vehicles were offered to their occupants on a “willing buyer, willing seller” basis. This was managed by the Implementation Committee on the Sale of Government Properties, chaired by Nasir el-Rufai, then Minister of the Federal Capital Territory.
- **Circulars and Guidelines:** The Office of the Head of Service issued detailed circulars on entitlements, valuation templates, and implementation timelines. Civil servants were informed of the cessation of fringe benefits and the commencement of monthly monetized payments.
- **Integration with Public Sector Reforms:** The monetization reform worked in synergy with other reforms like IPPIS and the Pension Reform Act 2004, with the ultimate goal of modernizing public service administration.

Achievements of the Monetization Policy

- **Cost Reduction and Fiscal Efficiency:** The policy significantly reduced the government's financial burden related to the maintenance of residences, fueling of cars, utility bills, and provision of domestic staff. Over N45 billion was reportedly saved within the first five years of implementation.
- **Asset Ownership and Personal Responsibility:** Many civil servants became first-time homeowners through the policy. By making officials responsible for their housing and transportation, it instilled a sense of ownership and reduced abuse of public property.
- **Improved Transparency:** Monetization removed discretion in the allocation of government assets, which was previously characterized by favoritism and corruption. The open sale of properties promoted transparency and helped to boost non-oil revenues.
- **Boost to the Real Estate Sector:** The mass sale of government quarters created a ripple effect in the housing market, particularly in Abuja and Lagos, where thousands of civil servants acquired property. It also stimulated private sector investment in real estate and construction.
- **Equal Treatment:** The policy helped to harmonize benefits across cadres. Previously, top-level officials enjoyed vastly superior benefits compared to lower-level staff. Monetization introduced a structured and equitable system of allowances.
- **Support for Broader Reform Agenda:** As a component of the wider economic reform under the NEEDS (National Economic Empowerment and Development

Strategy) framework, monetization reinforced the principle of efficiency and productivity in the public service.

Challenges of the Monetization Policy

- **Inadequate Allowances:** The amount paid as monetized benefits was often insufficient compared to the market value of services previously enjoyed. For example, junior civil servants found it difficult to afford decent housing or transport, thereby worsening their welfare.
- **Sale of Assets Below Market Value:** There were widespread allegations that government quarters and cars were sold at prices far below market value, often to top officials and insiders. This created a perception of elitism and unfair advantage.
- **Neglect of Institutional Needs:** The policy removed centralized pools of official assets without ensuring the development of institutional alternatives. Ministries lost access to government vehicles and guest houses, affecting operational logistics.
- **Corruption and Non-Compliance:** In some cases, civil servants continued to use government resources (like fuel cards or vehicles) despite receiving monetized benefits. There was weak enforcement of the new rules, particularly at sub-national levels.
- **Disparities and Inequities:** The policy favored higher-level officers who could afford to purchase government property. Lower-grade staff, who could not raise the funds, were effectively displaced or forced into the rental market.
- **Public Backlash and Litigation:** Some affected stakeholders, particularly tenants not eligible to purchase their homes, took legal action against the government. There was also resistance from labor unions concerned about the implications for workers' welfare.

Sale of Federal Government Properties

This policy was intended to reduce the maintenance burden on the government and generate revenue. However, the process has often lacked transparency, with properties being sold below market value to politically connected individuals (Okonjo-Iweala, 2019). Furthermore, there is little evidence that proceeds from these sales have been reinvested in public infrastructure or service delivery.

The sale of Federal Government-owned properties was initiated as part of Nigeria's broader economic liberalization and public sector reform agenda in the early 2000s. This reform emerged from the realization that the Federal Government was overburdened with the cost of managing vast real estate assets, many of which were underutilized, poorly maintained, or outright abandoned.

By the end of the 1990s, Nigeria's capital city, Abuja, and other key locations were home to thousands of government residential quarters, offices, and utility buildings. However, the upkeep of these assets placed a heavy strain on public finances, with little accountability or return on investment. Moreover, there were cases of illegal occupation, political favoritism in property allocation, and widespread corruption in the administration of public buildings.

The reform gained traction under President Olusegun Obasanjo's administration (1999–2007). The President viewed the disposal of non-core government assets as essential to improving efficiency, reducing waste, and encouraging private sector

involvement in national development. The sale of government properties was part of the monetization policy and the wider National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS).

To oversee the reform, the Federal Government established the Implementation Committee on the Sale of Federal Government Houses in Abuja, chaired by Nasir el-Rufai, then Minister of the Federal Capital Territory (FCT). The committee's mandate was to ensure transparency, equity, and compliance with policy guidelines in the sale of these properties.

Implementation Process

The implementation of the property sale reform followed a well-structured process involving the following key stages:

- **Inventory and Valuation:** The first step was to compile a comprehensive inventory of government-owned houses, apartments, and public buildings in Abuja and other urban centers. Professional valuers were engaged to assess the market value of each property.
- **Policy Guidelines and Legal Framework:** The Federal Executive Council (FEC) approved a policy document that set out eligibility criteria, sale procedures, pricing guidelines, and payment modalities. The sales were anchored on the principle of owner-occupier rights, giving sitting tenants the first right of refusal.
- **Establishment of Implementation Committee:** A high-powered committee, under the chairmanship of Nasir el-Rufai, was formed to drive the process. This committee worked in liaison with the Ministries of Housing, Justice, Finance, and the Bureau of Public Enterprises (BPE).
- **Tenant Notification and Application:** Government tenants were formally notified and required to apply for the purchase of their occupied units. Priority was given to serving civil servants, with the option to pay in full or through mortgage financing with partner banks.
- **Transparency Measures:** To ensure transparency, the list of available properties, pricing, and successful applicants was published in national dailies. Public bidding was introduced for unoccupied or disputed properties.
- **Asset Disposal and Monitoring:** Once payments were made, deeds of assignment and certificates of occupancy (C-of-O) were issued to new owners. The committee also set up a monitoring unit to address grievances and ensure compliance with guidelines.
- **Extension to Other Cities:** Following the success in Abuja, similar processes were initiated in Lagos and other urban centers, although on a smaller scale. The reform also targeted government lands and abandoned properties across the federation.

Achievements of the Property Sale Reform

- **Revenue Generation:** The reform generated over ₦100 billion in revenue for the Federal Government, providing much-needed funds for infrastructure and social services. This also helped to plug the budget deficit and reduce reliance on borrowing.
- **Reduction in Government Expenditure:** The cost of maintaining public residential quarters and buildings – including electricity, water, renovations, and security – was significantly reduced. The savings were redirected to core governance functions.

- **Asset Ownership for Civil Servants:** Thousands of federal workers became homeowners for the first time through the owner-occupier scheme. This not only enhanced their welfare but also reduced pressure on government housing schemes.
- **Private Sector Participation:** The reform unlocked opportunities for private sector investment in real estate, construction, and mortgage finance. Banks partnered with civil servants to offer home loans, while developers acquired government land for new projects.
- **Urban Renewal and Development:** Many of the sold properties were upgraded or redeveloped by new owners, leading to a transformation of neighborhoods in Abuja, particularly in Garki, Wuse, and Asokoro districts.
- **Enhanced Efficiency and Focus:** By divesting from non-core assets, the Federal Government focused more on policy, regulation, and service delivery rather than property management, which is better suited to the private sector.

Challenges of the Property Sale Reform

- **Allegations of Cronyism and Corruption:** Despite efforts at transparency, there were reports that some properties were sold to politically connected individuals at prices below market value. The public criticized the process as favoring the elite and well-placed officials.
- **Displacement of Non-Eligible Occupants:** Many retired officers, widows, and non-civil servants living in government quarters were not eligible to buy their homes. This led to evictions, legal disputes, and social dislocation in some areas.
- **Inadequate Mortgage Access:** The absence of a robust mortgage financing system meant that many junior civil servants could not afford to buy the properties, even with payment plans. This limited the inclusiveness of the reform.
- **Incomplete and Disorganized Records:** Poor documentation and property title records delayed the sale process in many cases. There were overlapping claims to certain houses, leading to court cases and stalled transactions.
- **Maintenance Neglect During Transition:** As government stopped maintaining the properties during the transition phase, many of them deteriorated before being handed over. New owners had to invest heavily in repairs.
- **Limited Geographical Scope:** The reform largely focused on high-value properties in Abuja and Lagos. Other regions of the country did not benefit significantly, leading to complaints of regional imbalance.

Other Reform initiatives

SERVICOM (Service Compact with All Nigerians)

The SERVICOM initiative was introduced in 2004 under the administration of President Olusegun Obasanjo, as a strategic intervention to tackle the longstanding inefficiencies and poor service delivery in Nigeria's public sector. The reform was a direct response to growing public dissatisfaction with government services, marked by bureaucratic bottlenecks, corruption, unresponsiveness, and general inefficiency in Ministries, Departments, and Agencies (MDAs).

The immediate trigger for SERVICOM was the Presidential Retreat on Service Delivery held in March 2004, where President Obasanjo acknowledged the systemic failure in government institutions to deliver quality services to citizens. The retreat produced the Service Delivery Compact, which committed MDAs to a new culture of service delivery defined by timeliness, transparency, and accountability.

Following the retreat, a Presidential Steering Committee on Service Delivery (PSCD) was inaugurated, and the SERVICOM Office was established within the Presidency to coordinate the reform nationwide. SERVICOM was designed not as a stand-alone program, but as an overarching framework to institutionalize a service-oriented culture across the civil service, while making public officers more accountable to citizens.

Implementation Process

The implementation of SERVICOM involved a multi-layered strategy aimed at reshaping institutional behavior and aligning service delivery with public expectations. Key implementation steps included:

- **Establishment of SERVICOM Office:** The SERVICOM Office was set up in the Presidency, reporting directly to the President. It was charged with the responsibility of providing leadership, guidelines, monitoring, and evaluation of service delivery reforms across MDAs.
- **Development of Service Charters:** Each MDA was mandated to develop a Service Charter, a formal document that outlines the agency's core services, service standards, delivery timelines, and citizen rights. These charters were displayed publicly to create transparency and ensure commitment.
- **Creation of SERVICOM Units:** All MDAs were required to establish SERVICOM Units to serve as internal change agents. These units monitored compliance with service standards and handled customer complaints and feedback.
- **Training and Capacity Building:** Staff of SERVICOM Units and MDA personnel were trained on customer relations, service quality, performance measurement, and complaints handling. Workshops, seminars, and refresher courses were held across the federation.
- **Public Awareness Campaigns:** SERVICOM engaged in public enlightenment through radio jingles, TV programs, publications, and town hall meetings to inform citizens of their rights and obligations in accessing public services.
- **Monitoring and Evaluation:** The SERVICOM Office regularly assessed MDAs through performance audits, mystery shopping, and scorecards. Reports and rankings were published to promote competition and accountability.
- **Presidential Support and Enforcement:** President Obasanjo and subsequent Heads of Government issued executive directives to ensure compliance. The National Assembly also lent support by making budgetary allocations and inviting SERVICOM for legislative oversight.

Achievements of SERVICOM

- **Institutionalization of Service Charters:** Over 80% of Federal MDAs developed and published service charters

within the first five years of SERVICOM. These charters empowered citizens with clear information on expected services and redress mechanisms.

- **Enhanced Customer Focus:** A significant cultural shift occurred in public service institutions, with many adopting customer-friendly attitudes, reducing response time, and establishing help desks and complaints units.
- **Accountability and Transparency:** By publicly committing to service standards, MDAs became more accountable. Performance monitoring and ranking introduced a form of peer pressure that drove improvements.
- **Improved Service Delivery in Key Sectors:** Ministries such as Health, Education, and Immigration reported better response times and reduced complaints. For instance, passport processing timelines at the Nigeria Immigration Service improved following SERVICOM interventions.
- **Citizen Empowerment:** Citizens became more aware of their rights to quality public services. SERVICOM's campaigns educated Nigerians on how to demand better governance and engage with MDAs constructively.
- **Recognition and Replication:** SERVICOM gained international recognition and became a reference model for service delivery reform in West Africa. Some states (e.g., Lagos and Kaduna) replicated SERVICOM units at the sub-national level.

Challenges of SERVICOM

- **Weak Enforcement Mechanisms:** SERVICOM lacked legal teeth to sanction non-compliant MDAs. While it could monitor and report, it relied on executive goodwill for enforcement, limiting its effectiveness.
- **Resistance to Change:** Many civil servants were initially resistant to the customer-focused approach, seeing it as an imposition rather than a value-driven reform. This slowed implementation in several MDAs.
- **Inadequate Funding and Resources:** SERVICOM Units in many MDAs struggled with poor funding, limited staff, and insufficient training. This affected their ability to function effectively and consistently.
- **Lack of Sustainability:** Changes in political leadership often led to loss of momentum. SERVICOM's visibility declined after President Obasanjo left office, as subsequent administrations prioritized other reform initiatives.
- **Low Public Engagement:** Despite awareness campaigns, many citizens, especially in rural areas, remained unaware of SERVICOM and how to use it to hold government accountable.
- **Limited Impact in Some Sectors:** While some MDAs recorded improvements, others lagged behind. Sectors like power, police, and judiciary continued to face major service delivery issues despite SERVICOM charters.

Treasury Single Account (TSA)

The Treasury Single Account (TSA) reform was born out of the Nigerian government's longstanding struggle with fragmented public finances and revenue leakages. Prior to TSA, Ministries, Departments, and Agencies (MDAs) maintained numerous bank accounts across commercial banks, leading to widespread financial opacity, inefficiency, and corruption.

Under this fragmented system, MDAs often retained Internally Generated Revenue (IGR) in commercial bank accounts

without remitting funds to the central treasury. This practice not only deprived the government of critical funds for national development but also enabled ghost transactions, multiple budgeting, and financial misappropriation.

Although the TSA concept had been proposed as early as 1999, it was first given legal backing by the Fiscal Responsibility Act of 2007, which stipulated that all government revenues must be paid into a Consolidated Revenue Fund. However, it was under President Goodluck Ebele Jonathan's administration (2011–2015) that practical steps were taken to implement the TSA pilot phase, particularly within select MDAs.

The full-scale implementation of TSA took place under President Muhammadu Buhari in 2015 as part of his administration's anti-corruption drive. The reform was championed by the Federal Ministry of Finance, in collaboration with the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) and supported by the Office of the Accountant-General of the Federation (OAGF).

Implementation Process

The implementation of the TSA reform involved systematic and coordinated efforts from key government agencies. The stages included:

- **Policy Design and Pilot Phase:** The reform commenced with the design of the TSA framework under the Jonathan administration. A pilot test began with a few MDAs in 2012, allowing the government to assess feasibility, technological needs, and institutional response.
- **Enabling Technology – GIFMIS Integration:** The Government Integrated Financial Management Information System (GIFMIS) was adopted to drive the TSA. GIFMIS, a web-based platform, enabled real-time processing and reporting of financial transactions.
- **Presidential Directive and Full Rollout:** In August 2015, President Buhari issued a directive mandating all MDAs to remit their revenues and funds to a single account domiciled at the CBN. This marked the official nationwide launch of TSA.
- **MDAs Account Consolidation:** Over 17,000 accounts maintained by over 900 MDAs across commercial banks were closed. These funds were transferred into the TSA at the CBN.
- **Bank Verification and Reconciliation:** Reconciliation of accounts was carried out to ensure proper fund transfers. Commercial banks were required to return unremitted government funds and reconcile balances with MDAs.
- **Payment Gateway Establishment:** Payment gateways such as Remita were integrated into the system to facilitate electronic payments, collections, and reporting. MDAs and the public could now transact directly with the government through this platform.
- **Monitoring and Evaluation:** The Office of the Accountant-General monitored compliance through daily transaction logs and reporting. Sanctions were instituted for defaulting MDAs or banks.

Achievements of the TSA Reform

- **Improved Revenue Transparency:** TSA eliminated the opacity surrounding public revenue collection. The government could now track all inflows and outflows in

real time, enhancing financial visibility and accountability.

- **Curbing Corruption and Leakages:** The reform plugged revenue leakages by ensuring that all government income passed through the CBN. Fraudulent diversion of funds by MDAs was drastically reduced.
- **Fiscal Discipline and Planning:** With consolidated data on government funds, budget planning and fiscal forecasting improved. This enhanced economic management and minimized overdraft borrowing by the Federal Government.
- **Reduction in Borrowing Costs:** The Federal Government previously borrowed from commercial banks while its funds lay idle in MDA accounts. TSA allowed the government to use its cash balances efficiently, thereby reducing domestic borrowing and interest payments.
- **Strengthened Banking Supervision:** The movement of government funds to the CBN enhanced the Central Bank's monetary policy tools and provided a clearer picture of liquidity in the banking sector.
- **International Recognition:** TSA was lauded by international organizations such as the World Bank and IMF as a model for fiscal reform and public financial management in sub-Saharan Africa.

Challenges of the TSA Reform

- **Initial Bank Resistance and Financial Impact:** Commercial banks strongly resisted the policy due to the loss of large government deposits. The immediate effect was a contraction in their balance sheets and a drop in available liquidity for lending.
- **Cash Flow Disruption for MDAs:** MDAs that previously operated with significant financial autonomy experienced delays in fund disbursement. This affected procurement, project execution, and emergency spending.
- **Technology and Connectivity Issues:** Implementation relied heavily on ICT infrastructure, which in some cases was weak or inconsistent. Power outages, internet failure, and software glitches slowed down transactions.
- **Capacity and Training Gaps:** Many MDAs lacked trained personnel to effectively operate the GIFMIS and TSA platforms. This led to errors in reporting and delays in fund requisition and approval.
- **Remita Controversy:** The selection of Remita, a private firm, as the service provider for TSA generated controversy in 2015. Allegations of overcharging and lack of transparency in the contract terms attracted media and legislative scrutiny.
- **Slow State-Level Adoption:** Although the Federal Government successfully implemented TSA, many state governments hesitated or resisted the policy, citing political and operational concerns. This limited nationwide integration.

Pension Reform Act (PRA)

Prior to the introduction of the Pension Reform Act (PRA), Nigeria's pension system was characterized by disjointed and unsustainable schemes. The Defined Benefit (DB) system, used predominantly in the public sector, faced serious challenges including lack of proper records, huge pension arrears, corruption,

and the inability of government to fulfill pension obligations to retirees.

Retired workers often waited years for payments, leading to destitution and death among pensioners. The pension crisis reached critical levels in the 1990s and early 2000s, with outstanding liabilities estimated in hundreds of billions of naira. Moreover, there was no legal framework mandating the private sector to establish pension schemes for their employees.

To address these issues, the Federal Government under President Olusegun Obasanjo initiated a comprehensive pension reform process. This culminated in the passage of the Pension Reform Act (PRA) 2004, which introduced a Contributory Pension Scheme (CPS) that replaced the old Defined Benefit system. The reform was influenced by successful models in Chile and other emerging economies and aimed to promote a sustainable, transparent, and fully funded pension system for workers in both the public and private sectors.

The Act established the National Pension Commission (PenCom) to regulate, supervise, and ensure the effective administration of pension matters in Nigeria.

Implementation Process

The implementation of the Pension Reform Act 2004 was carried out in phases to accommodate transition challenges. The major steps included:

- **Establishment of the National Pension Commission (PenCom):** PenCom was set up as the apex regulatory body responsible for licensing Pension Fund Administrators (PFAs), Pension Fund Custodians (PFCs), and overseeing compliance with the PRA.
- **Transition from Defined Benefit to Contributory Pension Scheme:** Public and private sector employees were required to open Retirement Savings Accounts (RSAs) with PFAs of their choice. Both employer and employee contributed a percentage of the employee's monthly emoluments to the RSA.
- **Licensing of PFAs and PFCs:** PFAs were licensed to manage individual RSAs while PFCs held pension assets in trust, adding a layer of security. This dual structure created checks and balances in the system.
- **Capacity Building and Public Sensitization:** PenCom engaged in nationwide sensitization programs to educate workers, employers, unions, and the public about the new pension system, its benefits, and processes.
- **Operational Guidelines and Regulations:** PenCom issued comprehensive guidelines covering contributions, withdrawals, penalties for non-compliance, investment strategies, and reporting requirements to promote standardization and compliance.
- **Amendments and Strengthening PRA 2014:** In response to emerging challenges, the PRA was amended in 2014. Key changes included increasing the minimum contribution from 15% to 18% (10% employer, 8% employee), expanding coverage to employees of organizations with fewer than five workers, and granting PenCom more enforcement powers.

Achievements of the Pension Reform

- **Growth in Pension Assets:** As of 2024, pension assets under management had grown to over ₦15 trillion, with millions of contributors across the public and private

sectors. This pool of long-term funds has contributed to capital market development and infrastructure financing.

- **Transparency and Accountability:** The CPS is regulated by strict guidelines, with monthly statements issued to contributors. Pension funds are audited regularly, and PFAs are rated based on performance and compliance.
- **Private Sector Inclusion:** Unlike the old DB system that catered mainly to government workers, PRA 2004 brought the private sector under the pension umbrella, enhancing financial security for millions of workers.
- **Reduction in Government Liabilities:** The transition to CPS has helped reduce the Federal Government's burden of directly funding pensions. The liability has been shifted to funded individual accounts managed by licensed operators.
- **Introduction of Micro Pension Scheme:** The 2014 amendment enabled self-employed and informal sector workers to participate in the scheme, expanding pension coverage and promoting inclusive financial security.
- **Effective Supervision and Regulation:** PenCom's oversight has ensured compliance and promoted trust in the pension system. Defaulters have been sanctioned, and recovery agents appointed to retrieve unremitted pension contributions.

Challenges of the Reform

- **Non-Remittance of Deductions:** Despite mandatory provisions, several employers (especially state governments and private firms) failed to remit contributions, leaving many workers' RSAs underfunded.
- **Weak Enforcement Mechanisms:** Although PenCom has enforcement powers, delays in prosecution and judicial inefficiency have made it difficult to hold defaulting organizations accountable quickly.
- **Limited Coverage in Informal Sector:** The micro pension initiative has yet to achieve widespread adoption due to low awareness, irregular incomes, and mistrust among informal workers.
- **Benefit Payment Delays:** Some retirees experienced delays in accessing their pension benefits due to bureaucratic bottlenecks, PFAs' inefficiencies, or incomplete documentation.
- **Investment Risks and Returns:** Though strictly regulated, PFAs are exposed to market risks. There have been concerns about low returns on pension investments, especially in inflationary periods.
- **Insufficient Public Awareness:** Many workers remain unaware of their rights under the PRA. This knowledge gap affects engagement with PFAs, choice optimization, and retirement planning.

The Impact of IPPIS on Payroll Integrity and Ghost Workers

The Integrated Payroll and Personnel Information System (IPPIS) has significantly improved payroll integrity and reduced ghost workers in the Nigerian civil service. By automating payroll processes, IPPIS has enhanced transparency and accountability, ensuring that only verified employees receive salaries. The system's biometric verification and validation processes have helped eliminate ghost workers, reducing payroll fraud and saving the government substantial funds.

IPPIS has also improved data accuracy, enabling real-time monitoring and tracking of personnel and payroll information. This has facilitated prompt detection and removal of ghost workers, minimizing financial losses. Additionally, IPPIS has streamlined payroll processes, reducing administrative burdens and enhancing efficiency.

While challenges persist, IPPIS has undoubtedly strengthened payroll integrity and reduced ghost workers. Its implementation demonstrates the potential of technology to drive reform and improve governance in the public sector. By leveraging IPPIS, governments can enhance transparency, accountability, and efficiency, ultimately improving public service delivery.

The Monetization of Fringe Benefits: A Critical Evaluation

The monetization of fringe benefits in the Nigerian civil service aimed to enhance financial efficiency and transparency. However, its impact has been mixed. On one hand, monetization has provided employees with more flexibility and autonomy in managing their benefits, allowing them to make choices that best suit their individual needs.

On the other hand, the policy's implementation has raised concerns about financial efficiency and transparency. Inadequate compensation and inflationary pressures have eroded the value of monetary benefits, diminishing their intended impact. Moreover, lack of transparency in the calculation and payment of allowances has led to allegations of unfairness and inequity.

Furthermore, the monetization policy has not fully addressed issues of financial efficiency, as some benefits may be more efficiently provided in-kind rather than in cash. To achieve financial efficiency and transparency, it is essential to regularly review and adjust the monetization policy, ensuring that benefits are adequate, transparently managed, and aligned with employees' needs.

The Economic and Administrative Implications of Selling Federal Government Properties

The sale of federal government properties in Nigeria has significant economic and administrative implications. Economically, the sale of government properties can generate revenue for the government, potentially reducing financial burdens and funding public services. However, concerns arise about the potential loss of valuable public assets, which could have generated revenue through rentals or other means.

Administratively, the sale process raises questions about transparency, accountability, and governance. The lack of clear guidelines and oversight mechanisms can lead to corruption, undervaluation of assets, and unfair advantage to certain individuals or groups. Moreover, the sale of strategic properties may compromise the government's ability to deliver essential services or respond to future needs.

Furthermore, the sale of government properties may also have long-term implications for Nigeria's economic development, as valuable assets are transferred to private ownership. To mitigate these risks, it is essential to establish robust guidelines, ensure transparency, and conduct thorough evaluations of the sale process to ensure that the interests of the Nigerian people are protected. Effective management of the sale process is crucial to achieving economic and administrative benefits.

Institutional, Political, and Socio-Economic Factors Impeding Success

The success of initiatives like IPPIS, monetization of fringe benefits, and sale of government properties has been impeded by various institutional, political, and socio-economic factors. Institutionally, inadequate capacity, lack of transparency, and inefficient governance structures have hindered effective implementation. Political factors, such as lack of political will, inconsistent policies, and bureaucratic resistance, have also posed significant challenges.

Socio-economically, factors like corruption, inadequate stakeholder engagement, and societal expectations have impacted the initiatives' success. Additionally, Nigeria's complex socio-political landscape, characterized by diverse interests and power dynamics, has influenced the implementation and outcomes of these initiatives.

Addressing these challenges requires a comprehensive approach that considers the interplay between institutional, political, and socio-economic factors. Strengthening institutions, promoting transparency and accountability, and engaging stakeholders are essential to overcoming these challenges and achieving the intended objectives of these initiatives. By understanding these factors, policymakers can develop more effective strategies to drive meaningful reform and improve public service delivery. Effective governance and leadership are critical to navigating these complexities.

Recommendations

Strengthening Oversight Mechanisms

Strengthening oversight mechanisms is crucial to ensuring transparency and accountability in government initiatives. Independent and robust oversight bodies can monitor implementation, identify irregularities, and prevent corruption. Effective oversight mechanisms also promote good governance, enhance public trust, and ensure that initiatives achieve their intended objectives. To strengthen oversight, governments should establish clear mandates, provide adequate resources, and ensure independence. Regular audits, inspections, and evaluations can also help identify areas for improvement. By prioritizing oversight, governments can build trust, prevent mismanagement, and drive meaningful reform, ultimately enhancing the effectiveness and accountability of public institutions. This fosters good governance.

Capacity Building

Capacity building is essential for effective governance and public service delivery. It involves developing the skills, knowledge, and competencies of public officials to enhance their performance and responsiveness. Through training, mentorship, and institutional development, capacity building enables public institutions to tackle complex challenges and achieve their objectives. By investing in capacity building, governments can improve service delivery, enhance accountability, and promote sustainable development. Effective capacity building requires a strategic approach, tailored to the specific needs of public officials and institutions. This enables them to adapt to changing demands and deliver quality services, ultimately driving better governance and development outcomes.

Transparency in Asset Disposal

Transparency in asset disposal is crucial to ensuring accountability and integrity in government operations. It involves

open and clear processes for disposing of public assets, including valuation, bidding, and sale procedures. Transparent asset disposal prevents corruption, ensures fair market value, and maintains public trust. Governments can achieve transparency by publishing detailed information about asset disposals, conducting open auctions, and involving independent monitors. This fosters accountability and ensures that public assets are disposed of in a manner that serves the public interest, rather than private gain. Transparency in asset disposal is essential for good governance and public sector accountability always.

Reassessing Monetization Policy

The monetization policy in the public sector requires reassessment to ensure it achieves its intended objectives. A thorough review would help identify areas for improvement, such as inadequate compensation, inequitable distribution, and unintended consequences. Reassessment would also enable policymakers to adjust the policy to better align with changing economic conditions, employee needs, and organizational goals. By re-evaluating the policy, governments can enhance its effectiveness, promote fairness, and improve employee satisfaction. This would ultimately contribute to better governance and public service delivery, ensuring that the policy serves the needs of both employees and the organization. Regular reviews are essential.

Stakeholder Engagement

Stakeholder engagement is vital for successful policy implementation and reform initiatives. It involves actively involving relevant parties, including employees, citizens, and civil society organizations, in the decision-making process. Effective stakeholder engagement fosters ownership, builds trust, and ensures that policies are responsive to the needs of those affected. By engaging stakeholders, governments can gather valuable insights, address concerns, and improve the legitimacy and sustainability of reforms. Regular communication, transparent processes, and inclusive decision-making mechanisms are essential for meaningful stakeholder engagement. This approach enables governments to develop more effective and responsive policies that serve the public interest and promote good governance.

Conclusion

While the Nigerian government has made attempts at civil service reform, many of these efforts, such as IPPIS, monetization, and asset sales, have not delivered their intended outcomes. The reasons lie in poor implementation, lack of political will, and systemic corruption. For future reforms to succeed, they must be rooted in transparency, inclusiveness, and a genuine commitment to institutional change.

References

1. Adebayo, A. (2001). *Principles and Practice of Public Administration in Nigeria*. Spectrum Books.
2. Adebayo, A. (2019). Impact of IPPIS on payroll management in the Nigerian civil service. *Journal of Public Administration*, 54(3), 456-470.
3. Adeyemi, O. (2021). Monetization of fringe benefits in the Nigerian civil service: An evaluation. *Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(2), 123-138.
4. Ajayi, T. (2020). Capacity Building in the Nigerian Civil Service. *Journal of Public Administration*, 15(2), 112–127.
5. Bureau of Public Enterprises. (2005). *Privatization Handbook*. BPE Publications.
6. Eneh, O. (2022). Sale of federal government-owned properties in Nigeria: A critique. *Journal of Property Law*, 21(1), 34-50.
7. Federal Government of Nigeria. (2004). *Pension Reform Act*.
8. Federal Government of Nigeria. (2014). *Pension Reform Act (Amendment)*.
9. Federal Republic of Nigeria. (2023). *Civil Service Reform Progress Report*. Abuja: Office of the Head of Civil Service of the Federation.
10. National Pension Commission (PenCom). (2023). *Annual Report*.
11. Office of the Accountant-General of the Federation (OAGF). (2022). *IPPIS Performance Review*.
12. Okafor, E. (2019). Transparency and accountability in the sale of government properties in Nigeria. *Journal of Governance*, 12(2), 145-160.
13. Okoli, F. (2020). Challenges and prospects of IPPIS implementation in the Nigerian civil service. *Journal of Information Technology*, 15(1), 23-40.
14. Okonjo, I. (2022). Public Sector Reform and Governance in Nigeria. *African Journal of Governance*, 17(3), 201–218.
15. Okonjo-Iweala, N. (2018). *Fighting Corruption is Dangerous: The Story Behind the Headlines*. MIT Press.
16. Okonjo-Iweala, N. (2019). *Fighting Corruption is Dangerous: The Story Behind the Headlines*. MIT Press.
17. Pillah, T. P. (2023). Federal Civil Service Remuneration and Salary in Nigeria: An Overview of Structural Change. *International Journal of Public Administration and Management Research*, 7(1), 1–10.
18. ResearchGate. (n.d.). *Non-Reform Policies and Nigerian Civil Service Analysis*. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net>
19. SERVICOM. (2006). *Service Compact with All Nigerians: Implementation Guide*.
20. Umeh, C., & Adewale, B. (2022). Reform Dynamics in the Nigerian Public Sector. *African Journal of Policy and Reform*, 19(1), 45–58.
21. Usman, I., & Ibrahim, M. (2022). Challenges of Financial Management in Nigerian MDAs. *Nigerian Journal of Economic and Financial Review*, 14(2), 34–49.
22. World Bank. (2015). *Nigeria: Economic Report on Public Financial Management*. World Bank Publications.