

# **RISK MANAGEMENT IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY: ANALYSIS OF CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS (CSFs) OF CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS IN NIGERIA**

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## **Abstract**

There are several risks associated with construction projects; hence, the need to manage construction projects risks effectively. Critical success factors (CSFs) are factors that influence the success and promote the achievement of a project objective. The concept of CSFs for construction projects has been widely researched in developed countries; but, with little research effort in developing countries including Nigeria. The study examined CSFs of construction projects and their application in the Nigerian construction industry. Survey research method with a structured questionnaire, focusing on 42 success factors, was used to collect data from participants. Exploratory factor analysis was carried out in three phases based on the study's research questions. The first phase of the analysis revealed that the concept of CSFs, project management tools and methodologies are observed to a reasonable extent by construction professionals in Nigeria. The second phase revealed eight categories of construction projects' CSFs similar to those in literature in the Nigerian construction industry. The results of the last phase analysis suggested that the relevance of CSFs varies from one phase of construction projects to another. The implication for practice is that it is imperative for those involved in managing construction projects in Nigeria to identify and determine CSFs of all projects at the planning stage to ensure that necessary measures are adopted to monitor and manage the project, thereby enhancing overall success of the project.

**Keywords:** *Risk management, Critical success factors (CSFs), Construction industry, Nigeria.*

## **1. Introduction**

Construction projects are completed through a series of processes, events, and interactions that take place during the lifecycle of the project in a dynamic environment. There are several risks associated with construction projects; and there are several factors that influence the success and promote the achievement of a project objectives. These factors are referred to as critical success factors (CSFs). If CSFs are well managed, they can enhance projects' success (Chan, Scott & Chan, 2004; Hwang & Lim, 2014; Kwikael & Globerson, 2006; Kog & Loh, 2012; Tabish & Jha, 2012). Nigeria is a developing country, and its construction industry is facing challenges associated with developing nations which include corruption, poor funding, and poor implementation of government policies and programmes (Carbaugh, 2017; Hess, 2016; O'Sullivan & Sheffrin, 2003). The era of formal construction operation in Nigeria started in 1940s with expatriate construction companies being dominant in the industry (Olowo-Okere, 1985). Expatriate construction companies completely dominated the sector because of the low level of human resource development and poor expertise of the indigenous construction companies, which disqualified them from being awarded contracts conceived by the government. Subsequently, the industry has witnessed progressive growth because of growing need for infrastructural development, activities in the solid minerals and oil and gas sector, growth and expansion of government activities (Oyewobi, Ganiyu, Oke, Ola-awo, & Shittu, 2011). Presently, the wide gap between the expatriate and indigenous construction companies has reduced significantly because of improved training institutions, collaboration between expatriate and indigenous construction companies, political stability, improved government policies (the Local Content Policy), and engagement of expatriates (Mbamali & Okotie, 2012; Olawale, Ibraheem & Salimonu, 2011). Moreover, indigenous construction companies stand better chance of winning government contracts due to Government (federal, state and local) policy on the Local Content Policy (Adedeji, Sidique, Rahman & Law, 2016; Bakare, 2011; Balogua, 2012; Ihua, Olabowale, Eloji & Ajayi, 2011; Monday, 2015; Ovadia, 2013; Stephen, 2011). The emergence of Private Partnership Projects (PPPs) has also improved capital investment in the industry; thus, promoting sustainable development of the industry.

The Nigerian construction industry contributed 3.12% of the nations' GDP in 2014 (Nigeria Bureau of Statistics, 2014). However, an assessment of the industry from the dimension of failed projects from 1979 to 1998 showed that over four hundred and fifty billion naira was lost to failed projects in the public sector (Anyanwu, 2013). In this regard, Oyewobi et al. (2011) emphasised that the trend of unethical performance in Nigerian construction industry has led to loss of resources and underdevelopment of the nation's infrastructure. Hence, it is necessary to effectively manage construction projects' risks in Nigeria to enhance the Nigerian construction industry contribution to the nations' GDP.

The study examines critical success factors (CSFs) of construction projects and their application in the Nigerian construction industry. Objectives of the study are to:

- i. Explore the application of the concept of CSFs, project management tools and methodologies in construction projects in Nigeria.
- ii. Identify and categorise CSFs for construction projects, and consider phases of projects in which these factors are critical or paramount.

## **2. Literature Review**

### **2.1 Conceptual Clarification: Critical Success Factors (CSFs)**

Critical success factors (CSFs) are factors that influence the success and promote the achievement of a project objectives. The concept of CSFs for construction project is not common in the context of the Nigeria construction industry. CSFs of a project are a concept that has been widely researched in the literature because of its relevance to a business organisation. CSFs generally connote areas or aspects that impact positively on the achievement of project objectives (Dalcher, 2012; Flyvbjerg, Bruzelius & Rothengatter, 2003; Morris, 2013a; Van Marrewijk, Clegg, Pitsis & Veenswijk, 2008; Westerveld, 2003). Ika (2009) asserted that CSFs of a project consist of events, conditions, and circumstances surrounding the project that could contribute to its success. They are constraints which the project is exposed to and if appropriately managed, could result in project success. A good understanding of CSFs of projects would enable project managers and their teams to effectively manage projects' resources. Meanwhile, there are different dimensions of CSFs in the literature, which include: CSFs for information technology projects; CSFs for software projects; and CSFs for construction projects. The aspect of CSFs for construction projects is relevant to the study because the study examined critical success factors (CSFs) of construction projects in the Nigerian construction industry. The study seeks to establish the CSFs for construction projects from the perspective of the professionals based on diverse components of a construction project. CSFs of construction projects are discussed in the next subsection.

### **2.2 CSFs of Construction Projects**

Several studies have been carried out on factors that influence success of projects (Cleland & King, 1983; Baker, Murphy & Fisher, 1983; Morris & Hough, 1987; Pinto & Slevin, 1989; Chua, Kog & Loh, 1999; Chan et al., 2004; Kog & Loh, 2012; Hwang & Lim, 2013). Zwikael and Globerson (2006) noted that the knowledge of CSFs is relevant in project management, and beneficial to projects managers and organisations involved in project activity. Moreover, the knowledge of CSFs can improve efficiency and effectiveness of a project management process. Avots (1969) examined reasons for project failure; and he established that three factors were responsible for project failures: wrong choice of project manager; unplanned termination of project; and unsupportive top management. Viewing project success factors from an organisation and project team characteristics perspective, Martin (1976) identified CSFs of a project as a clear goal, selection of organisational philosophy, general management support, organise and delegation of authority, and selection of project team. Rubin and Seeling (1967) examined the relationship between project success and project manager's experience. The study revealed that project manager's experience has no effect on project performance; but, the

size of projects previously handled positively influences project manager's performance (Rubin and Seeling, 1967). Taking a wider view on various aspects of CSFs, Baker et al. (1983) developed a list of ten CSFs which are: (1) clear goal; (2) goal commitment of project team; (3) on-site project manager; (4) adequate funding to completion; (5) adequate project team capability; (6) adequate initial cost estimate; (7) minimum start-up difficulties; (8) planning and control techniques; (9) task-social orientation; and (10) absence of bureaucracy. Morris and Hughes (1987) also explored the impact of external environmental factors on project success; and they came up with a list of CSFs, including: project objectives; technical innovation uncertainty; politics; community involvement; schedule duration; urgency; financial contract; legal problems; and implementation problems. However, Morris and Hughes (1987) list of CSFs did not cover or consider characteristics of the project team.

Pinto and Slevin (1987) study focused on CSFs over the life cycle of a project and their relative importance. In the process, they identified ten (10) CSFs across projects life cycle: (1) project mission; (2) top management support; (3) project schedule/plan; (4) client consultation; (5) personnel; (6) technical tasks; (7) client acceptance; (8) monitoring and feedback; (9) communication; and (10) troubleshooting. Schultz, Slevin and Pinto (1987) study classified CSFs into two categories: strategic (including, top management support and project scheduling); and tactical (including, client consultation and personnel selection and training). A similar study was undertaken by Pinto and Prescott (1988) to analyse relative importance of CSFs based on Schultz et al. (1987) strategic and tactical CSFs classification. Their findings indicated that the importance of CSFs varies differently across phases of a project, depending on the performance criteria applied (Pinto & Prescott, 1988). This suggests that the relative importance of CSFs is subject to change at distinct phases of a project life cycle. Tukel and Rom (2001) viewed CSFs of a project in relation to organisation, client and role of project manager in executing the project. In the process, they identified five CSFs which are: top management support; client consultation; preliminary estimates; availability of resources; and project manager's performance. Interestingly, the last two sets of CSFs (i.e., availability of resources; and project manager's performance) agree with CSFs identified by Walid and Oya (1996) who identified four project CSFs, namely: project manager; team members; organisation; and external environment. Similarly, Ashley, Lurie & Jaselskis (1987) study revealed that organisational planning effort, project manager goal and commitment, project team motivation, project manager technical capabilities, scope and work definition, control systems, and safety are projects CSFs. Since previous studies identified project manager involvement as a CSF; hence, it is reasonable to state that CSFs of projects revolve around project managers and organisations involved in project management.

CSFs can also be referred to as 'delay factors'. In the context of construction projects, delay factors are situations or circumstances which can prolong the timeframe of a project's successful completion (Al-Momani, 2000; Chan & Kumaraswamy, 1997; Kaming, Olomaiyr, Harris & Holt, 1997; Shahu, Pundir & Ganapathy, 2012; Williams, Klakegg, Walker, Andersen & Magnussen, 2012). Existence of delay factors in a project may result to project time overrun, cost overrun, litigation, disputes, arbitration and total abandonment (Chan & Kumaraswamy, 2002; Gunduz, Nielsen & Ozdemir, 2013; Winch,

2013). According to Kasumu & Usman (2013), the biggest problems confronting the Nigerian construction industry include cost overrun, loss of productivity and revenue, and eventual termination of projects is delay. Assaf and Al-Hajji (2004) identified 71 delay factors; and these factors were categorised into nine groups of project-related factors, which include: owner-related factors; contractor-related factors; consultant-related factors; design team-related factors; materials-related factors; equipment-related factors; labour-related factors; and external factors. The implication is that there are sets of delay factors associated with different aspects of construction projects.

### 2.3 Identification of CSFs Used for the Study

The above discussion (Section 2.2) showed that several CSFs have been identified in the literature. Consequently, it is essential to identify CSFs used for the study. The list and category of 42 success factors used for the study is developed based on previous studies, as discussed in Section 2.2 above. The list and category of success factors used for the study is presented in Table 1.

**Table 1: List and category of success factors used for the study**

S/N	CATEGORY	SUCCESS FACTORS	PREVIOUS STUDIES
1	Project characteristics	Political risks	Morris &Hough (1987);Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
2		Economic risks	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
3		Adequacy of funding	Martin (1976); Cleland&King (1983); Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Hwang& Lim (2013); Kog & Loh (2012)
4		Constructability	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
5		Project size	Ashley, Lurie & Jaselskis (1987)
6		Complexity of project	Chan, Scott & Chan (2004)
7	Contractual arrangements Project Participants	Formal dispute resolution process	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012)
8		Realistic obligations/clear objectives and scope	Martin (1976); Baker, Murphy &Fisher (1983); Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
9		Risk identification and allocation	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
10		Adequacy of plans and specifications	Sayles &Chandler (1971); Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
11		Safety	Ashley, Lurie & Jaselskis (1987); Chua, Kog & Loh (1997)

12	Technical uncertainty	Chua, Kog & Loh (1997); Hwang & Lim (2013)
13	Contractual Motivation/incentives	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
14	Project manager's competency and authority	Sayles&Chandler (1971); Walid &Oya (1996); Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
15	Project manager's commitment to established schedules and budget	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
16	Nature of project manager's authority	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
17	Project team motivation.	Ashley, Lurie & Jaselskis (1987)
18	Project leader's working relationship with others	Chan, Scott & Chan (2004)
19	The nature of the client	Chan, Scott & Chan (2004)
20	Support and provision of resources	Chan, Scott & Chan (2004)
21	Client's contribution to design	Chan, Scott & Chan (2004)
22	Owner involvement and frequent feedback	Sayles &Chandler (1971); Pinto &Slevin (1989); Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
23	Owner commitment to established schedules and budget	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
24	Owner satisfaction with delivered project	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
25	Capability of contractor key person	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
26	Contractor's commitment to established schedules and budget	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
27	Contractor's team capability and commitment	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
28	Capability of consultant key person	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
29	Consultant's commitment to established schedules and budget	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
30	Consultant's team capability and commitment	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)

31	Interactive processes	Frequent feedback from parent organisation	Pinto & Slevin (1989); Sayles & Chandler (1971); Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
32		Monitoring and feedback on project	Sayles & Chandler (1971); Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
33		Communication throughout project duration	Pinto & Slevin (1989); Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
34		Adequate planning and control techniques	Martin (1976); Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
35		Sufficient working drawing details	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
36		Availability of backup strategies	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
37		Budget updates	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
38		Schedule updates	Sayles & Chandler (1971); Cleland & King (1983)
39		Design control meetings	Locke (1984); Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
40		Construction control meetings	Locke (1984); Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)
41		Procurement method	Chan (2004)
42		Site inspections	Chua, Kog & Loh (1999); Kog & Loh (2012); Hwang & Lim (2013)

**Source:** Developed by Researchers.

Table 1 contains 42 success factors used for the study, selected based on their ranking in the literature. The list was limited to 42 to reduce the time required by respondents to assign scores to each success factor based on a Likert scale.

### 3. Methodology

Survey research method was adopted for the study. A structured questionnaire, focusing on 42 success factors, was developed and administered to respondents to collect primary data for the study. Structured questionnaire was used because it is suitable for rating of CSFs to determine their relevance and importance. However, the approach adopted deviated from approach used for previous studies which utilised a questionnaire that demanded a pair-wise comparison of the CSFs. The study focused on construction companies operating in Lagos, Port Harcourt, Onitsha and Abuja. One hundred and twenty

(120) construction professionals, including expatriates and indigenous professionals, through stratified random sampling technique were engaged for the study. Construction professionals engaged for the study include: architects, quantity surveyors, civil and structural engineers and mechanical and electrical engineers. 120 copies of the research questionnaire were administered to participants through personal contact and collected within six months, February - July 2017.

The research questionnaire consists of three sections. Section one of the questionnaire was designed to collect respondents' information/data. The section two was designed to ascertain the level of knowledge and usage of the concept of CSFs by the professional in the construction industry. Likert scale 1 to 5 was used for six structured questions in this section, where 1-5 represent strongly agree, agree, undecided, strongly disagree, and disagree respectively. This type of scale was adopted by Elhag and Boussabaine (1998), and Chan (2012) for similar studies. Section three of the questionnaire aimed at identifying CSFs for overall success of a construction project, and ascertain variation of CSFs across projects' phases. In section three of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to rate 42 success factors based on their likelihood to affect success of a construction project. In addition, respondents were asked to identify project phases (using 1,2,3,4, and 5 to represent initiation, planning, execution, monitoring/control, and closure phases respectively) in which success factors are critical. The data collected were analysed through exploratory factor analysis with SPSS. Exploratory factor analysis is an analytical tool that can provide insight on interaction between many correlated, but apparently unrelated variables (Overall & Klett, 1972). It has been used by researchers from different disciplines to identify and interpret non-correlated group of variables (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Strahan, 1999; Jung & Lee, 2011; Osborne & Fitzpatrick, 2012). Variables which are correlated with some commonalities and independent of other subset of variables were grouped as a factor. This is a suitable data analysis tool for the study because it facilitated grouping of variables or factors (identified 42 success factors) based on their relationship (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1995).

#### **4. Data Analysis and Discussions**

##### **4.1 Descriptive Data – Respondents' Data**

A total of 78 valid responses, which represents seventy-eight percent (78%) response rate, was retrieved from the participants. Table 2 shows respondents' profession. A higher proportion of the respondents (48.7%) were Civil and Structural Engineers; and, the lowest proportion of the respondents were Architects (Table 2).



Table 2: Respondents' Profession

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Architect	8	10.3	10.3	10.3
Quantity Surveyor	19	24.4	24.4	34.6
Civil & Structural Engineer	38	48.7	48.7	83.3
Mechanical & Electrical Engineer	13	16.7	16.7	100.0
Total	78	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field survey, 2017

Table 3 shows respondents' experience. About 76% of the respondents have over 8-year professional experience (Table 3). This is beneficial as it implies that data collected for the study are provided by respondents with professional experience.

Table 3: Respondents' Experience

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid <5years	11	14.1	14.1	14.1
5 – 7 Years	8	10.3	10.3	24.4
8 – 9 Years	15	19.2	19.2	43.6
10 – 12 Years	17	21.8	21.8	65.4
13 – 15 Years	22	28.2	28.2	93.6
>15 Years	5	6.4	6.4	100.0
Total	78	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field survey, 2017

Table 4 shows respondents' educational qualification. About 97% of the respondents were degree holders (Degree, Masters and Ph.D). This is beneficial as it enhances the possibility of having valid responses from respondents.

Table 4: Respondents' Educational Qualification

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Diploma	2	2.6	2.6	2.6
	Degree	63	80.8	80.8	83.3
	Masters	12	15.4	15.4	98.7
	PhD	1	1.3	1.3	100.0
	Total	78	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field survey, 2017

#### 4.2 Level of Knowledge, Application of CSFs and Project Management Tools

Table 5 shows analysis of responses to Section two questions. The essence of the section is to ascertain the level of the knowledge as well as the application of the concept of CSFs and project management tools for construction projects in Nigeria.

Table 5: Level of Knowledge, Application of CSFs and Project Management Tools

	Knowledge of the concept of CSFs.	Observance of CSF in projects work.	Significance of CSFs in relation to project success.	Companies view on relevancy of CSFs for project success.	Success of construction projects due to observation of CSFs	Use of project management tools and techniques in project operations.
N Valid	78	78	78	78	78	78
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	2.05	2.13	1.96	1.85	1.86	1.91
Median	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Mode	2	2	2	1	2	2
Std. Deviation	1.150	1.199	1.133	.981	.977	1.083
Variance	1.322	1.438	1.284	.963	.954	1.174

Source: Field survey, 2017

Table 5 shows that the mean, median and mode can be approximated to 2, which implies that the sampled population has an average knowledge and understanding of the concept and usage of project management tools in respondents' professional works. The result also suggests that majority of the respondents upheld the relevance of the concept of CSFs to the success of construction projects.

### 4.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis was undertaken in four stages: tests, extraction, rotation, and interpretation. This analysis is presented below.

#### 4.3.1 Tests

To establish that the dataset is suitable for factor analysis, Bartlett's test of sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test were carried out. Bartlett's test of sphericity measured the multivariate normality of variables and confirms that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix; and, KMO test measures the sampling adequacy (Hair et al., 1995; Kaiser, 1960; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Table 6 shows the results of KMO and Bartlett test/analysis.

Table 6: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.721
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2013.456
	df	861
	Sig.	.000

**Source:** Researchers' Analysis

The value of the KMO test was 0.721. This value (0.721) exceeds the least acceptable level of 0.5; thus, indicates that the distribution of values in the matrix is adequate for factor analysis (Hair et al., 1995; Kaiser, 1960; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The result of the Bartlett's test of sphericity also shows that it is significant at 0.000. Consequently, the result of KMO and Bartlett's test indicated that factor analysis is suitable for analysing data collected for the study.

#### 4.3.2 Extraction of Components

Principal component analysis recommended for establishing preliminary result in factor analysis (Pett, Lackey & Sullivan, 2005) was used to develop a simple structure to minimise the possibility of having a general component in the solution (Gorsuch, 1983). Component extraction is the process of determining the number of variables that explains an underlying co-variation matrix within a dataset. In this study, three main criteria (Eigenvalues, Cumulative Percentage Variance, and Scree Test) used for this purpose are presented below:

##### 4.3.2.1 Eigenvalues

Kaiser's eigenvalue criterion specifies that factors with greater than 1 eigenvalues are retained for interpretation (Fabrigar et al., 1999), was applied. Eigenvalues is simple and easy to understand; and it serves as a default value for many statistical programmes including SPSS. An eigenvalue is the sum of the squared factor loadings for a given factor which indicates how much variance in the observed indicators is being explained by a

latent factor (Fabrigar et al., 1999). However, this method has been widely criticised as having the tendency to over simplify the result and over estimate the number of factors to be retained, resulting to arbitrary selection of factors (Zwick & Velicer, 1986). In this regard, one can ask the question that is it right to select a factor with an eigenvalue of 1.02 and reject the one with a value of 0.998? This limitation of decision based on eigenvalues greater than 1 was overcome by using the cumulative percentage variance and scree test (see Sections 4.3.2.2 and 4.3.2.3 below).

#### **4.3.2.2 Cumulative Percentage Variance**

This is the sum of the percentage variance for each of the extracted variables. Table 7 shows total variance explained. Overall, 12 components were extracted with a cumulative percent value of 64.074%. This implies that the 12 components accounted for 64.074% of the variance. This is a substantial value given that the recommended values for factor analysis is >50% (Kaise, Olomaiyr, Harris & Holt, 1974). When factors are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

**Table 7: Total Variance Explained**

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings <sup>a</sup>
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	11.100	26.430	26.430	10.800	25.713	25.713	8.592
2	3.706	8.824	35.254	3.351	7.978	33.691	6.739
3	2.736	6.514	41.768	2.401	5.716	39.407	6.840
4	2.178	5.187	46.955	1.886	4.489	43.897	2.448
5	1.754	4.175	51.130	1.439	3.427	47.323	2.114
6	1.623	3.863	54.993	1.330	3.167	50.490	5.141
7	1.567	3.731	58.724	1.197	2.850	53.341	2.366
8	1.548	3.687	62.411	1.099	2.616	55.957	1.486
9	1.375	3.274	65.684	.994	2.368	58.324	1.260
10	1.340	3.191	68.875	.942	2.243	60.567	1.669
11	1.161	2.765	71.640	.826	1.967	62.534	1.265
12	1.071	2.549	74.189	.647	1.540	64.074	3.302
13	.935	2.225	76.414				
14	.906	2.157	78.571				
15	.799	1.901	80.473				
16	.735	1.750	82.223				
17	.662	1.575	83.798				
18	.643	1.530	85.329				
19	.594	1.415	86.744				
20	.562	1.338	88.081				
21	.535	1.273	89.354				
22	.473	1.127	90.481				
23	.445	1.059	91.540				
24	.407	.969	92.510				
25	.365	.870	93.380				
26	.343	.816	94.195				
27	.312	.742	94.938				
28	.274	.652	95.590				
29	.261	.621	96.211				
30	.248	.591	96.802				
31	.203	.483	97.284				
32	.195	.463	97.748				
33	.173	.412	98.160				
34	.144	.342	98.502				
35	.118	.280	98.782				

36	.106	.252	99.034				
37	.092	.220	99.254				
38	.079	.188	99.441				
39	.072	.171	99.612				
40	.064	.152	99.765				
41	.053	.127	99.892				
42	.045	.108	100.000				

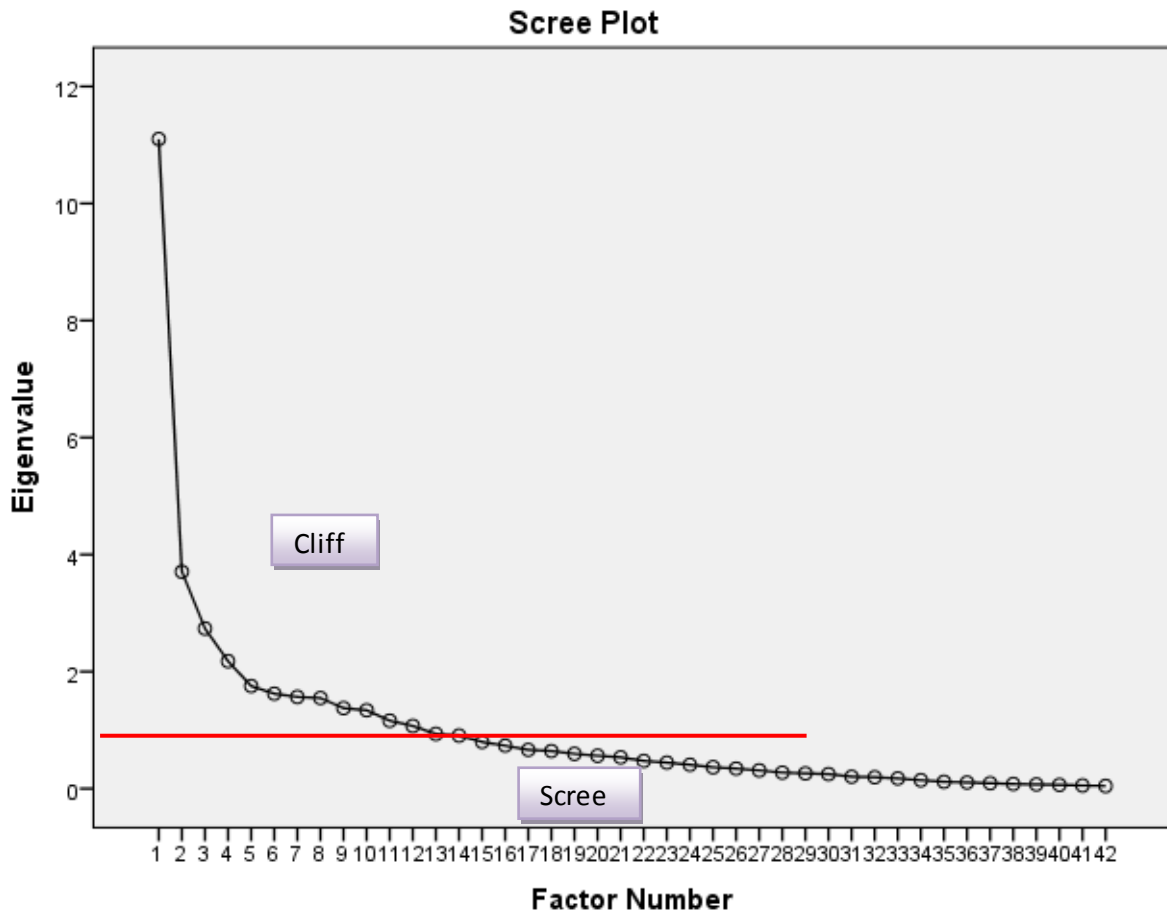
**Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.**

**Source: Researchers' Analysis**

#### **4.3.2.3 Scree Test**

Cattell's (1966) scree test is another method used to determine the number of factors to be retained. This is a highly subjective test that requires researchers' judgement in terms of factors to be retained (Gorsuch, 1983; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Thompson, 2004). Figure 1 shows a scree plot which displays total variance associated with each variable. The slope shows large factors, while the gradual trailing (Scree) shows factors with eigenvalues lower than 1. The main assumption behind the scree test is that a few major factors may account for most of the variance resulting in a 'cliff', followed by a 'scree'. This tends to produce a more accurate result than the Kaiser's eigenvalue-greater-than 1 rule (Zwick & Velicer, 1986).

Figure 1: Scree Plot



#### 4.4 Rotation

Rotation is a method suitable for creation of variables structure to ensure easy interpretation of data. It also maximises factor loadings of items that best measure their respective factor and specifies the nature of relationship between affected factors. Factors can be said to be correlated (in which case oblique rotation would be appropriate) or uncorrelated (in which case orthogonal rotation would be more appropriate) (Fabrigar et al., 1999). Promax rotation (an oblique rotation method) was used for rotation of variables and the correlation matrix is shown in Table 8. The correlation matrix shows that the highest value of correlation exists between factor 1 (interactive processes) and factor 3 (project manager). This is expected as factor 1 reflects range of a project manager's activity, and factor 3 reflects project manager's personality and qualities.

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	1.000	.496	.581	-.023	-.012	.455	.173	-.068	.041	.018	.162	-.588
2	.496	1.000	.476	.099	.257	.361	.058	-.026	.111	.035	.042	-.363
3	.581	.476	1.000	.120	.156	.301	.158	-.340	.124	.013	.095	-.427
4	-.023	.099	.120	1.000	.157	.008	-.130	-.260	.110	.099	.260	-.006
5	-.012	.257	.156	.157	1.000	-.034	-.009	-.081	-.115	-.160	-.008	.068
6	.455	.361	.301	.008	-.034	1.000	.332	.119	-.248	.423	-.024	-.348
7	.173	.058	.158	-.130	-.009	.332	1.000	.213	-.120	.375	-.140	.005
8	-.068	-.026	-.340	-.260	-.081	.119	.213	1.000	-.168	.207	-.240	.198
9	.041	.111	.124	.110	-.115	-.248	-.120	-.168	1.000	-.106	-.112	.039
10	.018	.035	.013	.099	-.160	.423	.375	.207	-.106	1.000	-.231	.056
11	.162	.042	.095	.260	-.008	-.024	-.140	-.240	-.112	-.231	1.000	-.188
12	-.588	-.363	-.427	-.006	.068	-.348	.005	.198	.039	.056	-.188	1.000

**Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.**  
**Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.**

**Source:** Researchers' Analysis

#### 4.4.1 Pattern Matrix

Pattern Matrix shows factor loadings for results obtained from the rotation (Table 8) undertaken to ensure an interpretable structure. Pattern matrix also shows the number of variables for each factor and their loadings. Table 9 shows the study's pattern matrix. The Cronbach's Alpha value (that measure the reliability of the factors) for each of the factors was calculated with 0.5 being used as the least value acceptable. Factors 9-12 were rejected because they all have a single variable loading. There was no cross-loading of the variables after suppressing the variables with loadings values less than 0.4. Ten of the variables considered did not add load to any of the 12 factors.



Table 9:Pattern Matrix<sup>a</sup>

	Factor											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	Interactive Processes	Human-related Factors	Project Manager	Risk	Project characteristics	Control Processes	Project Owner	Project Plan				
Cronbach's Alpha	.866	.845	.712	.751	.701	.709	.513	.793	-	-	-	-
<b>Variables</b>												
Schedule updates	1.004											
Budget updates	.954											
Project team motivation	.831											
Construction control meetings	.744											
Procurement method	.735											
Design control meetings	.661											
Site Inspection												
Consultant team capability and commitment												
Nature of project manager's authority)												
Formal dispute resolution process												
Owner involvement and frequent feedback		.896										
Contractor team capability and commitment		.812										
Availability of backup strategies		.802										
Communication throughout project duration		.598										
Contractor commitment to established schedules and budget		.517										

Project manager commitment to established schedules and budget			1.135									
Project manager competency and authority			.885									
Adequacy of plans and specifications			.780									
Project leader's working relationship with others			.483									
Contractual Motivation/incentives												
Support and provision of resources												
Political risks			.854									
Economic risks			.841									
Risk identification and allocation			.581									
Project Size				.791								
The nature of the client				.625								
Complexity of project				.560								
Capability of consultant key person					.941							
Technical uncertainty					.705							
Frequent feedback from parent organisation					.590							
Owner satisfaction with delivered project						.692						
Owner commitment to established schedules and budget						.584						
Adequate planning and control techniques							.820					
Sufficient working drawing details							.571					
Capability of contractor key person								.655				
Adequacy of funding												
Client's contribution to design									.721			

Constructability												
Safety											.719	
Consultant ommitment to established schedules and budget												
Realistic obligations/clear objectives and scope											.794	
Monitoring and feedback on project												

**Source: researchers’ Analysis**

**4.5 Interpretation of Factors**

A minimum loading value of 0.40 was used to select salient variables for each factor; and the variables were loaded for extracted factors (Gorsuch, 1983). Table 9 shows that only two variables have a loading value less than 0.5, which implies that they contributed significantly to their factor groups or categories. To determine the reliability of each factor, Cronbach's Alpha Value was calculated for each of them; and only factors with value greater than 0.5 (factors 1-8) were significant. This is because two or more variables must load on a factor for it to be considered (Henson & Roberts, 2006; Isaac & Michael, 1997). The label name for each of the factors was selected by considering the correlation that exists between factors, and assigning a name that appropriately defines it. Labelling of factors is a deductive, theoretical and subjective process (Pett et al., 2005).

As shown in Table 1 above, the 42 success factors (variables) used for the study are categorised into 8 namely: interactive processes; human-related factors; project manager; risks; project characteristics; control processes; project owners; and project plan. Table 10 shows cumulative percentage with Cronbach alpha value and Eigenvalue of categories of success factors. The results of the 8 categories of CSFs are discussed below.

**Table 10: Cumulative, Cronbach alpha value and Eigenvalue of CSFs Categories**

S/N	Categorisation of Identified CSFs	Cumulative (%)	Cronbach’s Alpha Value	Eigenvalue
1	Interactive Processes	25.713	0.866	11.100
2	Human-related Factors	33.691	0.845	3.706
3	Project Manager	39.407	0.712	2.736
4	Risks	43.897	0.751	2.178
5	Project Characteristics	47.323	0.701	1.754
6	Control Processes	50.490	0.709	1.623
7	Project Owner	53.341	0.513	1.567
8	Project Plan	55.957	0.793	1.548

Source: Researchers’ Analysis

### **Category 1 Factors: Interactive Processes**

The total percentage of variance of success factors in this category is 25.713%, with a total eigenvalue of 11.10. Its reliability test yielded a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.866 which is highly significant and the highest when compared with the other factors. The variables categorised under this factor include: schedule updates, budget updates, project team motivation, construction control meetings, procurement method, and design control meetings. Schedule update had the highest level of criticality with a loading value of 1.004, while design control meeting has the least with a loading value of 0.661 (see Table 9). Variables that load under this factor are spread across basic objectives of a construction which include schedule, budget and quality performances. Hence, schedule updating is relevant for schedule performance (time savings); budget updates and procurement method ensure budget performance (cost savings); and construction and design control meetings to ensure good budgeting and quality performances of the project. In addition, the result shows the importance of construction control meeting (with a loading value of 0.744) over design control meeting (with a loading value of 0.661), thereby emphasising the former over the latter in construction projects. This result agrees with Chua et al. (1999) study in which budget update, schedule update, site inspection, construction control meetings, and design control meetings were grouped under the same factor (Interactive processes – Factor category). The result also affirms that construction projects consist of predefined and dynamic activities which may change from one phase to another (Chua et al., 1999). This underpins the selection of schedule update, budget update, construction control meetings and design control meetings as CSFs for construction projects. Hence, relative importance of CSFs vary across the life cycle of a construction project (Pinto & Prescott, 1988). For instance, the relative importance of design control meetings decreases from the planning phase to monitoring and control phases; but, that of construction control meeting increases (Hodgson & Cicmil, 2006; Miller & Lessard, 2000).

### **Category 2 Factors: Human-related Factors**

Success factors in this category have a total percentage variance of 7.978%, with an eigenvalue of 3.706. The Cronbach's Alpha value is also highly significant at 0.845 which upholds its reliability. Variables loaded in this category include owner involvement and frequent feedback, contractor team capability and commitment, availability of backup strategies, communication throughout project duration, and contractor commitment to establish schedules and budget. Owner involvement and frequent feedback had the highest level of criticality with a loading value of 0.812, while contractor commitment to establish schedule and budget had the least with a loading value of 0.512. Variables loaded in this category tend to focus on the human-related variables which influence success of construction projects. This according to Yong and Mustaffa (2013), human-related variables include trust, commitment and effective communication issues among stakeholders of a construction project. Generally, human-related factors consist of intangible variables (including behaviour and mind-set) which are subjective and difficult to measure. This implies that human-related factors constitute construction projects critical success factors. It is, therefore, imperative to establish measures at the initial stage of a

project to enhance trust, effective communication, feedback, and stakeholders' commitment throughout the lifecycle of the project. The implication for practice is that competence of a project team member is critical throughout the lifecycle of a construction project (Morris, 2013b; Puthamont & Chareonngam, 2007; Rashvand & Majid, 2014).

### **Category 3 Factors: Project Manager**

Factors in this category have 5.716% variance value, with an eigenvalue of 2.736. The value of Cronbach's Alpha test of reliability has a significant value of 0.712. The three variables in this category are: project manager's commitment to establish schedules and budget, project manager's competency and authority, adequacy of plans and specifications, and project leader's working relationship with others are variables which were loaded in this category. The first and most critical variable or factor in this category is 'project manager's commitment to established schedules and budget', which also emerged as the most important overall factor that influences project success. A project manager's competency and performance can be influenced by his/her ability to delegate authority, coordinate, negotiate and make good decision (Hwang & Lim, 2013; Yong & Mustaffa, 2013). The other two variables in this category (i.e. 'adequacy of plans and specifications' and 'project leader's working relationship with others') also revolve around the competency of the project manager. Project manager's competence is essential, particularly during the planning and closure phase of a project (Flyvbjerg, Garbuio & Lovallo, 2009; Soderlund, 2011; Zwikael & Globerson, 2006). This implies that it is essential that project and construction managers should possess requisite technical and administrative skills to enhance their performance (Isa, Jimoh & Achuen, 2013; Morris & Gerald, 2011; Pinto & Slevin, 1989). Consequently, project managers' competency is a critical factor throughout the lifecycle of a project (Al-Tmeemy, Abdul-Rahman & Harun, 2011; Puthamont & Chareonngam, 2007).

### **Category 4 Factors: Risks**

Success factors in this category (risk-related factors) have 4.489% variance value, with an eigenvalue of 2.178. The category Cronbach's Alpha test of reliability value is significant at 0.751. Variables loaded in this category include political risks, economic risks, and risk identification and allocation. The loading values for political and economic risks are 0.854 and 0.841 respectively; which suggest that both have approximately the same level of impact on the success of construction projects. Political and economic risks are external environmental factors that can enhance the success of construction projects (Morris, Pinto & Soderlund, 2011; Orr, Scott, Levitt, Artto & Kujala, 2011). This result was expected given the political and economic instability associated with the Nigeria political and economic systems. These factors are critical at the planning phase (risk identification and allocation); moreover, political risk and economic risk can influence a project throughout its lifecycle. If properly managed, external environmental factors of a construction project can impact the project's success and performance (Thi & Swierczek, 2010; Uher & Loosemore, 2004). Since external environmental factors are beyond the control of the construction industry; it is necessary to include appropriate terms and conditions in projects contractual agreement to checkmate negative impact of political,

economic and environmental factors on construction projects (Cao & Hoffman, 2011; Iboh, Adindu & Oyoh, 2013).

#### **Category 5 Factors: Project Characteristics**

Success factors in this category have 3.427% variance value, with eigenvalue of 1.754. The reliability test result yielded a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.701, which is significant. Variables in this category include: project size, nature of the client, and complexity of project. Many large projects usually fail to meet completion deadline (Tukel & Rom, 2001; Van Marrewijk, Clegg, Pitsis & Veenswijk, 2008; Williams, Samset & Sunnevag, 2009). In most cases, this may arise due to increase in the number of project activities, project schedule and allocation of resources. Project complexity may be associated with a peculiar nature of a project which may impact significantly on performance of the project manager and success of the project (Thi & Swierczek, 2010). Generally, complex construction projects require vast technical skills, expertise and brainstorming. A project manager's previous experience in handling complex projects can impact on success of subsequent projects handled by the manager (Rubin & Seeling, 1967; Shahu, Pundir & Ganapathy, 2012). Hence, project managers' ability to handle complex projects should be considered when assigning project managers to projects.

#### **Category 6 Factors: Control Processes**

Success factors in this category have 1.623% variance value, with an eigenvalue of 1.623. The Cronbach's Alpha test of reliability has a significant value of 0.709. Variables in this category are: capability of consultant key person, technical uncertainty, and frequent feedback from parent organisation. The first two variables in this category (i.e., capability of consultant key person and technical uncertainty) can be viewed as uncertainty-related variables. Uncertainty occurs when the probability distribution of an event is not known (lack of knowledge about the possible outcomes); but, a project risk is an uncertainty with a defined probability distribution with the precise outcome unknown beforehand (Chapman & Ward, 2002; Ericson & Doyle, 2004; Hillson, 2004). Capability of consultant, key persons and technical uncertainties are project risk-related variables because their possible outcomes or probability distribution are known; but, their precise outcomes, which are critical to project success are not known (Isik, Arditi, Dikmen & Birgonul, 2009; Kog & Loh, 2012; Shahu, Pundir & Ganapathy, 2012). Regular feedback from top management of principal organisations is key to success of construction projects. This shows that top management support by way of effective communication and feedback from key stakeholders is essential to ensure success of construction projects (Ika, Diallo & Thuillier, 2012; Tukel & Rom, 2001; Zwikael & Globerson, 2006).

#### **Category 7 Factors: Project Owner**

Success factors in this category have a percentage of variance value of 2.850 and an eigenvalue of 1.567. The Cronbach's Alpha test of reliability indicated the lowest significant value of 0.513. The two variables that were loaded in this category are 'owner satisfaction with delivered project' and 'owner commitment to established schedules and budget'. The loading value for owner satisfaction with delivered project is higher than that

of their commitment to establish schedules and budget. This implies that notwithstanding their commitment or involvement in the project, project owners would expect maximum satisfaction and success of their projects. 'Involvement of owner', 'frequent communication and feedback', and 'enthusiasm' can enhance owners' satisfaction in terms of project delivery (Hwang & Lim, 2013). Project owners can assess project delivery based on cost, time and quality (Jugdev & Muller, 2005; Khang & Moe, 2008; Hwang & Lim, 2013). It is expected that project owners would desire the best quality within a reasonable timeframe at the lowest cost possible.

### **Category 8 Factors: Project Plan**

Success factors in this category have 2.616% variance value, with an eigenvalue of 1.548. The Cronbach's Alpha test of reliability has a significant value of 0.793 with two loading variables: 'adequate planning and control techniques' and 'sufficient working drawing details'. Adequacy of plans and specifications depends on development of a project plan, based on the principal's (project owner) need or requirement, by a project consultant. In this regard, Hwang and Lim (2013) showed that there is need for a project owner, project consultant, and project contractor to develop workable project plans and specification before commencement of a project. Puthamont and Chareonngam, (2007: 181) also noted that 'adequate planning and control techniques' and 'sufficient working drawing details' are critical throughout the lifecycle of a project. Consultation with key project stakeholders at a project planning stage is essential and critical to successful completion of construction projects (Hwang & Lim, 2013; Rashvand & Majid, 2014; Zwikael & Globerson, 2006). Meredith and Mantel (2003) identified a six-planning sequence for projects consisting of: preliminary coordination; detailed description of tasks; adhering to project budget; adhering to project schedule; precise description of all status reports; and planning the project termination. A seven phase planning processes was recommended by Russell and Taylor (2003). This include defining project objectives; identifying activities; establishing precedence relationships; making time estimates; determining project completion time; comparing project schedule objectives; and determining resource requirements to meet objectives (Russell & Taylor, 2003). The quality of project planning can be enhanced by applying appropriate tools and methods contained in Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK) Guide (Project Management Institute, 2013).

## **5. Conclusion, Implications and Recommendations**

### **5.1 Conclusion**

The study has examined critical success factors (CSFs) of construction projects and their application in the Nigerian construction industry. The study explored the application of the concept of CSFs, project management tools and methodologies in construction projects in Nigeria. It also identified and categorised construction projects CSFs, and considered phases of projects these factors are critical or paramount. The study revealed that there is a significant improvement in terms of understanding and application of the concept of CSFs and project management tools by the professionals in the Nigeria construction industry. Numerous CSFs for construction projects and classifications were

identified in the literature, but this study focused on 42 CSFs (variables). This is to ensure a well-focused investigation and reduction of the time required for completion of the research questionnaire by participants. Moreover, it is practically impossible to use all CSFs identified in the literature as variables. CSFs were based on budget, schedule and quality performances and their grouping or classification were different (contractual arrangement, interactive processes, project participants, and project characteristics). The study contributed to knowledge on CSFs of construction projects by identifying eight categories of CSFs: interactive processes, human-related, project manager, risks, project owner, project characteristics, control processes, and project plan. Generally, the results indicated that the knowledge and application of the concept of CSFs by construction professionals is critical to success of construction projects.

## **5.2 Implications of Findings for Practice**

The results suggested that the relevance of CSFs varies from one phase of construction projects to another. The implication for practice is that it is imperative for those involved in managing construction projects in Nigeria to identify and determine CSFs of each project at the planning stage to adopt necessary measures to monitor and manage the project, thereby ensuring overall success of the project. Considering the importance of human-related factors in construction projects, it is imperative to establish measures at the initial stage of a project to enhance trust, effective communication, feedback, and stakeholders' commitment throughout the lifecycle of the project. The implication for practice is that competence of a project team member is critical throughout the lifecycle of a construction project. External environmental factors (including political and economic risks) of a construction project can impact the project's success and performance. External environmental factors are beyond the control of the construction industry. The implication for practice is that it is beneficial to include appropriate terms and conditions in projects' contractual agreement to checkmate negative impact of political, economic and environmental factors on construction projects.

CSFs can also be referred to as 'delay factors'. In the context of construction projects, delay factor are situations or circumstances which can prolong the timeframe of a project successful completion. The implication is that there are sets of delay factors associated with different aspects of construction projects. The managerial implication of this is that top management support by way of effective communication and feedback from key stakeholders is essential to ensure success of construction projects. Project manager's competence is essential throughout the lifecycle of a project. Project managers' competency is a critical factor throughout the lifecycle of a project. Hence, it is essential that project and construction managers should acquire requisite technical and administrative skills to enhance their performance. The study also revealed that a project manager's previous experience in handling complex projects can impact on success of subsequent projects handled by the manager. The implication for practice is that project managers' ability to handle complex projects should be considered when assigning project managers to projects. In addition, project managers' ability to handle complex projects should be considered when assigning project managers to projects.



### **5.3 Recommendations for future research**

The following recommendations are put forward:

- 1 Further research may be carried out to establish the relationship between the CSFs of construction projects and associated delay factors.
- 2 The study focused on 42 CSFs. More extensive CSFs can be engaged for further study.
- 3 Subsequent study on CSFs of construction projects can utilize the Delphi method (which uses group consensus) for data collection, as opposed to questionnaire used for this study.

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