FROM CONFLICT TO CAPACITY

REBUILDING SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTIONS

EDITOR

Odirin Omiegbe

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PREFACE

The chapters in this volume examine the complex relationships between gender, economic structures, state formation, and post-conflict reconstruction. Together, they illuminate how institutions, resources, and policy frameworks shape both individual opportunity and broader societal transformation. By drawing on diverse geographic contexts, the contributions offer grounded empirical insight while engaging with wider theoretical debates on governance, development, and resilience.

Chapter One investigates the factors affecting the work motivation of female public servants in Ca Mau Province, Vietnam. Through empirical analysis, it highlights the interplay between organizational culture, leadership practices, socio-economic conditions, and gender dynamics in shaping professional commitment and performance within the public sector.

Chapter Two expands the analytical lens to the macro level, examining military-economic cycles and the emergence of mobilization-militarist societies and states. It explores how sustained security imperatives and economic structures can reinforce one another, reshaping governance models, civic life, and national priorities.

Chapter Three returns to the microeconomic sphere, assessing the effect of entrepreneurial resources on the performance of women entrepreneurs in Zaria Local Government Area of Kaduna State. By evaluating access to financial, social, and human capital, it underscores the structural opportunities and constraints facing women-led enterprises. Finally, Chapter Four addresses the design of reintegration policies in post-war contexts, emphasizing education systems, employment measures, and regional resilience as foundational pillars for sustainable peace.

Collectively, these chapters contribute to a nuanced understanding of how gender, economic capacity, militarization, and post-conflict recovery intersect. The volume invites scholars and policymakers alike to consider integrated approaches that foster inclusive growth, institutional strength, and long-term social stability.

Editorial Team
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CHAPTER 1

FACTORS AFFECTING WORK MOTIVATION OF FEMALE PUBLIC SERVANTS: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY IN CA MAU PROVINCE VIETNAM

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INTRODUCTION

In an era of globalization, human resources constitute an indispensable input to economic development and a key foundation for the formation of social values. Labor is widely recognized as a decisive driver of national growth; classical economic perspectives (e.g., Smith's labor theory of value) emphasize that labor underpins the creation of material wealth in society. Given the centrality of human resources, research on work motivation seeks to enhance employee performance and strengthen the effectiveness of human resource management. A substantial body of scholarship has examined motivation through different theoretical lenses, including Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943), Herzberg's two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1959), and expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964). Despite differences in assumptions and mechanisms, these approaches converge on a core proposition: higher employee motivation is associated with improved job performance, which in turn contributes to organizational effectiveness (Nguyen Thi Tu Thanh, 2015). Accordingly, much of the motivation literature focuses less on explaining behavior per se and more on identifying levers that enable organizations to encourage employees to fulfill assigned duties and responsibilities. In empirical research, job performance is often used as a practical proxy for work motivation.

While human resources are essential across all production and service activities, they are particularly critical in public administration and public service organizations, where workforce quality directly affects the continuity and effectiveness of governance and service delivery. Work motivation influences operational efficiency across functional domains of the public sector, including administrative management, education, health care, public security, and national defense. In many state-run administrative systems, employment structures characterized by long-term tenure may increase the risk of stagnation, bureaucratic inertia, and dependence, making the cultivation of motivation especially important. At the same time, public managers face a dual challenge: creating public value for their organizations while sustaining employee motivation and job satisfaction (Amabile, 1993).

Vietnam is frequently cited as having a high rate of female labor force participation, indicating that women contribute substantially to national economic development. Policy discourse and political statements have repeatedly emphasized the importance of women’s participation in socio-economic transformation and public life (e.g., Central Committee Conference, 1930; Central Party Secretariat, 1994; Central Organization Committee, 2006). In recent decades, women have increasingly assumed roles within Vietnam’s political and social system, including positions in Party and State bodies and mass organizations. Nonetheless, constraints remain in the development of female civil servants within the public sector, including relatively low representation in management, uneven societal awareness of gender equality, and limited institutional attention to gender equality and women’s advancement in some agencies. In this context, strengthening the motivation and capability development of female civil servants is an urgent issue—particularly as provinces such as Ca Mau continue to pursue socio-economic development and administrative modernization.

To design effective directions and policy solutions for improving the work motivation of administrative and public-service personnel, it is necessary to examine the determinants of employee motivation in the public sector.

1. LITERATURE REVIEW AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.1 Literature Review

Research on employee motivation - both internationally and in Vietnam is extensive. Much of this literature shares a common objective: identifying and empirically assessing determinants of motivation, including in public-sector settings. In addition to specifying explanatory variables, prior studies place considerable emphasis on methodological rigor in measurement and estimation, commonly employing scale reliability testing (e.g., Cronbach’s alpha), exploratory factor analysis (EFA), and regression techniques (including OLS).

Despite the breadth of this scholarship, empirical evidence remains limited with respect to motivation in the public sector in general and, more specifically, among female employees in administrative and public - service organizations.

Existing studies typically draw on foundational motivation theories such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's two - factor theory, and Vroom's expectancy theory. Across these frameworks and related empirical work, motivation is understood to be shaped by multiple dimensions, including compensation and benefits, job characteristics, the work environment, and performance appraisal systems.

Several empirical studies provide useful reference points for the present research. Danish (2010), in an empirical study of employees across multiple organizations in Pakistan, examined the relationships among rewards, recognition, motivation, and job satisfaction, highlighting the importance of retaining capable and experienced personnel for organizational competitiveness and performance. The findings indicate that rewards and recognition are strongly associated with employee motivation. In Vietnam, Nguyen Thi Hong Hai (2013) analyzed the creation of work motivation among officials and civil servants to improve the effectiveness of state administrative organizations and proposed a set of managerial and policy solutions. Le Thi Hoai Thuong (2011), drawing on evidence from Ho Chi Minh City, similarly emphasized that motivating civil servants is consequential for job performance and offered practical recommendations, although these were presented at a relatively general level. Tran Pham Thi Phuong Thao's study of the Dong Phu District People's Committee (Binh Phuoc Province) focused on incentive policies - such as training and development, evaluation, rewards, working conditions, and compensation - and proposed measures to strengthen these policies in the local public administration context.

Building on these theoretical foundations and prior empirical research, the present study examines determinants of work motivation among female employees in the administrative and public-service sector in Ca Mau Province. Drawing on studies by Lu Thi Ngoc Han (2017), Pham Thi Minh Ly (2015), Kingir and Mesci (2010), Leisink and Steijn (2010), Anderfuhren-Biget et al. (2010), and Manolopoulos (2008), the study initially specifies eight hypothesized determinants: (i) salary and benefits, (ii) job quality, (iii) work environment, (iv) commitment/attachment to supervisors, (v) coworker relationships, (vi) psychological competence/empowerment, (vii) job autonomy, and (viii) training and promotion opportunities.

Methodologically, and consistent with prior studies, the research employs a five-point Likert scale, descriptive statistics, reliability assessment using Cronbach's alpha, EFA for construct validation, and regression analysis to estimate the effects of the identified factors on work motivation.

Overall, previous research has made important contributions by systematizing theoretical perspectives on motivation and by identifying relevant determinants of work motivation among employees in general and civil servants in particular. Many studies also propose context-specific recommendations to strengthen motivation within the organizations under investigation. However, to date, the literature has not provided a comprehensive empirical assessment of work motivation and its determinants among female employees in public administration and public-service organizations in Ca Mau Province. This study therefore contributes to filling that gap by providing evidence-based recommendations to strengthen motivation among female employees in provincial- and district-level administrative and public-service units, with potential applicability to similar public-sector organizations in comparable contexts.

1.2 Data Collection and Analysis Methodology

1.2.1 Data Collection Method

This study employs a structured questionnaire administered through direct, face-to-face interviews with employees. Prior to the main survey, the questionnaire was pilot-tested to identify ambiguous wording, response difficulties, and other issues that could impede respondents' understanding. Based on feedback from the pilot, the instrument was revised and finalized for the formal data collection. Respondents were employees currently working in the selected administrative and public-service units. The sample was drawn using simple random sampling from official employee lists. With respect to sample size, Hair et al. (1998) suggest a minimum of 50 observations - preferably at least 100 - and recommend an observation-to-variable ratio of at least 5:1 (i.e., at least five observations per measured variable). Similarly, Hoang Trong and Chu Mong Ngoc (2005) propose that an adequate sample size is approximately four to five times the number of observed variables.

Following these guidelines, the study surveyed 200 employees from administrative and public-service units in Ca Mau Province Vietnam.

1.2.2 Research Methodology

Descriptive Statistics: This method is used to describe basic characteristics such as gender, marital status, job title, etc. Descriptive statistics provides simple summaries of the sample and scales. The parameter commonly used in descriptive statistics is the arithmetic mean.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA): This method is used to divide independent variables into groups with similar characteristics. In exploratory factor analysis, we analyze and select a few factors that have a significant influence on employee motivation.

Parameters in Factor Analysis: Barlett's test of sherricity is a measure used to examine the hypothesis that variables are uncorrelated in the population with the following hypothesis:

+ H_0 : variables are uncorrelated.

+H_1 : there is a correlation between the variables.

The p-value of the test is a number such that for every > p, the hypothesis is rejected.

In Barlett's test with a significance level of 5%:

If p<α , reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis.

If p>α , accept the alternative hypothesis.

Correlation matrix: shows the correlation coefficient between all pairs of variables in the analysis. Theoretically, the correlation coefficient should be above 0.7 for the variables to have a high correlation.

Eigenvalue: represents the portion of variation explained by each factor.

Communality: is the amount of variation of a variable that is generally explained by the other variables considered in the analysis. This is also the portion of variation explained by the common factors.

Factor loading: the single correlation coefficients between variables and factors.

Factor matrix: contains the factor loading coefficients of all variables for the factors.

Factor score: The composite factor score estimated for each observation on the extracted factors, also known as the factor.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO): An index used to assess the suitability of factor analysis. Factor analysis is considered appropriate (significant) when 0.5 < KMO value < 1; conversely, if the KMO value < 0.5, the data is considered unsuitable.

After extracting the factors and saving them as new variables, these variables will replace the original set of variables in the regression analysis.

The factor analysis model has the following form:

$$X_i = A_i + A_i 2F_2 + \ldots + A_{im}F_m + V_iU_i$$

Where: X_i : Standardized variable I, : Regression coefficient of the standardized variable, F: Common factor, : Regression coefficient of the standardized variable, : Unique factor of variable I, m: Number of common factors, each unique factor correlates with other factors and with common factors. Common factors have a linear association of observed variables.

$$F_1 = \mathrm{W}_{i1}X_1 + \mathrm{W}_{i2}X_2 + \ldots. + \mathrm{W}_{ik}X_k$$

In which: : Estimate the first factor, : Factor weight or coefficient, : Number of variables

Regression analysis method: Regression analysis was conducted to specifically determine the weight of each factor affecting employee work motivation in the administrative and public service sector of Ca Mau province. To achieve this, the study developed a linear regression model in the following form: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \ldots + \beta_k X_k + \varepsilon$

Where: Y: Dependent variable, : independent variables, : estimated value of Y when k variables X have a value of 0, : Regression coefficients, e: Error This study uses multiple regression analysis to estimate the influence of the following factors on employee motivation: salary and benefits; nature of work; work environment; commitment to superiors; relationships with colleagues; psychological competence; job autonomy; training and promotion opportunities (Explanatory variables/Independent variables) (Outcome variables/Dependent variables).

$$DL = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TL + \beta_2 BC + \beta_3 MT + \beta_4 CT + \beta_5 DN + \beta_6 NL + \beta_7 STC + \beta_8 DT$$

Where: DL: Work motivation, TL: Salary and benefits, BC: Nature of the job, MT: Work environment, CT: Commitment to superiors, DN: Relationships with colleagues, NL: Psychological competence, STC: Autonomy in work, DT: Training and promotion opportunities. The estimated value of work motivation when k influencing factors have a value equal to 0, $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5, \beta_6, \beta_7, \beta_8$: regression coefficients.

2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

2.1 Description Of Sample Data and Results Of Descriptive Statistical Analysis

Age: Most respondents were aged 36–45, accounting for 50% of the sample (100 out of 200). The youngest respondent was 23 years old and the oldest was 54. The mean age was 37, which can be considered a relatively "stable" stage of career development. At this stage, individuals typically pursue career goals through structured career planning. Female employees, in particular, often invest in continuous learning and self-improvement to seek higher positions and demonstrate their capabilities. Moreover, because gender stereotypes have not been entirely eliminated, career attainment and occupational advancement may be especially salient priorities for women.

Marital status: Survey results show that 24 respondents were single (12.0%), 10 were married without children (5.0%), and 154 were married with children (77.0%). Divorced respondents without children accounted for 2.0% (4 individuals), while 8 respondents were divorced with children (4.0%). Overall, the majority of participants were married and had children. For many women in this life stage, balancing paid work with family responsibilities is a central concern. At the same time, social expectations that married women should prioritize domestic roles may still persist in some contexts. In practice, many women seek to reconcile household responsibilities with professional commitments. Increased financial responsibilities after marriage - particularly with children - may strengthen incentives to pursue higher-paying roles, promotion opportunities, and income growth, thereby increasing work motivation and the desire to demonstrate competence to supervisors.

Income and household responsibilities: Regarding income, 112 respondents (56.0%) reported monthly earnings between 5 and 10 million VND, while 6 respondents reported incomes above 25 million VND. The average monthly income exceeded 7 million VND, with a minimum of 2 million VND and a maximum of 35 million VND. Given the relatively moderate cost of living in Ca Mau Province, an income of approximately 7 million VND may cover part of a household's essential expenditures. The average household size was four members (maximum nine). Respondents reported an average of one dependent, with some reporting up to six dependents. These household obligations may intensify employees' incentives to work harder to obtain material benefits (e.g., earlier salary increases, responsibility allowances) or to take on additional work to support dependents and share financial burdens within the household.

Workplace type, positions, and functional fields: Among the 200 respondents, 98 worked in administrative units (49.0%) and 102 worked in public service units (51.0%), indicating a balanced distribution across the two workplace types. Twenty-nine respondents (14.5%) held managerial or quasi-managerial roles (e.g., heads or deputy heads of departments; ward heads/deputy heads in hospitals; principals/vice principals in schools).

Based on respondents' workplace information and job descriptions, positions were grouped into six functional fields:

Education and training: 57 respondents (28.5%), including roles such as head of professional affairs, general specialist, department head, lecturer, and student affairs/team leader.

Economic activities: 10 respondents (5.0%), including general accountant, revenue–expenditure administration, appraisal documentation processing, and investment planning/coordination. State management, Party, and mass organizations: 102 respondents (51.0%), including finance and Party finance; administration and administrative reform; statistical survey implementation and socio-economic information provision; supervision and post-inspection processing; socio-economic inspection and anti-corruption; handling complaints and denunciations; training and management of officials and local governments; treasury leadership; and document archiving and correspondence management.

National defense and security: 1 respondent (0.5%), with duties primarily related to receiving citizens and responding to inquiries.

Culture and information: 5 respondents (2.5%), including choreography, office administration, family affairs, tourism, and management of historical sites.

Health, population, and family affairs: 25 respondents (12.5%), including technical implementation management; local financial management; management of narcotics and medical equipment; and medical examination and related services.

Work experience: With respect to tenure at the current workplace, 126 respondents (63.0%) reported 5–15 years of service. The shortest tenure was 0.25 years (consistent with newly recruited or recently transferred employees), and the longest was 33 years. Average tenure exceeded 10 years. While long tenure may reflect organizational attachment and sustained contributions, prolonged service without adequate incentives can also increase the risk of stagnation or diminished engagement. This underscores the importance of motivation-enhancing policies and leadership practices to retain capable employees and sustain organizational performance over time.

Professional qualifications: With respect to educational attainment, 157 of the 200 respondents (78.5%) held a bachelor's degree, 28 (14.0%) held a master's degree, and 2 (1.0%) held a doctoral degree. The remaining respondents reported college-level qualifications (7 individuals; 3.5%) or vocational training credentials (6 individuals; 3.0%). No respondent reported only primary-level education. Overall, the sample is therefore relatively highly educated, suggesting that most employees possess the knowledge base and technical capacity required to perform their assigned duties.

Table 1. Description of employee's working hours

Time of Working	Frequency (People)	Percent (%)	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Under 5 years	37	18.5	18.5	18.5
5 to 15 years	126	63.0	63.0	81.5
16 to 25 years	32	16.0	16.0	97.5
Over 25 years	5	2.5	2.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	
Minimum value	0.25 year			
Maximum value	33 year			
Average value	10.676 year			
Standard deviation	6.2926 year			

Follow-up responses from participants holding master's or doctoral degrees indicate that their organizations had supported further study, thereby enabling career advancement and encouraging greater professional contribution. In practice, employees are typically assigned to units and positions based on task complexity, job requirements, and individual capabilities. Skilled employees generally prefer assignments that align with their training and expertise; consequently, mismatches between qualifications and assigned tasks may weaken work motivation and reduce engagement.

Table 2. Respondent's Professional Qualifications

Professional Qualifications	Frequency (People)	Percent (%)
Doctorate	2	1.0
Master's Degree	28	14.0
University	157	78.5
College Diploma	7	3.5
Vocational School Diploma	6	3.0
Elementary School Diploma	0	0
Total	**200**	**100.0**

2.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Before testing a scientific theory, it is necessary to assess the reliability and validity of the scale. Cronbach's Alpha method is used to assess the reliability of the scale. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), or simply EFA, helps us evaluate two important validity aspects of the scale: convergent validity and discriminant validity.

EFA belongs to the group of interdependent multivariate analyses, meaning there are no dependent and independent variables; instead, it relies on the correlation between variables. EFA is used to reduce a set of k observed variables to a set of F ($F<k$) more significant factors. The basis of this reduction is the linear relationship between the factors and the original variables (observed variables).

Authors Mayers.L.S., Gamst, G.Guarino A.J (2000) mention that: In factor analysis, the Pricipal Component Analysis extraction method combined with Varimax rotation is the most commonly used method.

According to Hair et al. (1998), Factor loading (factor loading coefficient or factor weight) is an indicator to ensure the practical significance level of EFA:

Factor loading > 0.3 is considered to reach the minimum level

Factor loading > 0.4 is considered to reach the important level

Factor loading > 0.5 is considered to have practical significance

Conditions for exploratory factor analysis must satisfy the requirements:

The KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) coefficient is an index used to consider the suitability of factor analysis. A large KMO value means that the factor analysis is appropriate.

The Bartlett test is statistically significant (Sig. < 0.05): This is a statistical measure used to examine the hypothesis that variables are uncorrelated in the population. If this test is statistically significant (Sig. < 0.05), then the observed variables are correlated with each other in the population.

Percentage of Variance (>50) represents the percentage of variation of the observed variables. This means that if the variation is considered 100%, this value indicates what percentage of the variation is explained by the factor analysis.

Cumulative Total Variance (Cummulative): This is the amount of variation of a variable that is explained collectively with other variables considered in the analysis. This is the component of variation explained by the common factors.

Eigenvalue: This is the value separated from each factor. Since the goal of factor analysis is to maximize variance, the minimum value is 1. When the variance is 1, the number of factors found will equal the original number of variables. Because the objective of factor analysis is to reduce the number of variables, the Eigenvalue must be greater than 1.

Results of the analysis of factors affecting the work motivation of female employees in the administrative and public service sector of Ca Mau province

With 33 observed variables, all of which met the reliability requirements after Cronbach's alpha test, factor analysis was conducted using the Principal Components method with Varimax rotation.

Based on the rotated factor coefficient matrix, variables with a variable-total correlation coefficient less than 0.5 were removed from the model. The factor analysis was performed four times. The first time showed that 3 variables were removed from the model: CT1, MT4, STC4. The second time showed that 2 variables were removed: TL3, STC3. The third time showed that variable BC1 was also removed. The fourth time, with 27 observed variables included in the analysis using the Eigenvalue criterion, 8 factors were extracted.

Table 3. KMO and Bartlett's Tests, KMO Coefficients

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin		0.839
Bartlett's test of the scale	**Chi-squared value**	2528.147
	df	528
	Sig. - observed significance level	0.000

The KMO coefficient of 0.839 indicates that the model meets the requirements of factor analysis. Simultaneously, Bartlett's test for the correlation of observed variables (Sig = 0.000 < 0.5%) shows that the variables are strongly correlated with each other.

The factor analysis results show that, according to the Eigenvalue greater than 1 criterion, 8 factors were extracted at an Eigenvalue of 1.036, and the factor loading coefficients of the variables are all greater than 0.5. In this table, the cumulative variance is 65.841% > 50%, indicating that the 8 factor groups in the model explain 65.841% of the data's variation.

The results of the rotated factor matrix show that the 27 observed variables are grouped into 8 factors, all of which have factor loading coefficients ≥ 0.5.

Based on the rotated factor matrix results, the variables that meet the requirements with factor loading coefficients > 0.5 are grouped into 8 different factors. These factors are grouped and named as follows:

Factor 1: Grouped using the average command Compute Variable TL = MEAN (TL1, TL2, TL4) and named "Salary and Benefits" denoted as TL.

Factor 2: Grouped using the average command Compute Variable BC = MEAN (BC2, BC3, BC4, BC5), and named "Nature of Work" denoted as BC.

Third factor: Grouped using the average command Compute Variable MT = MEAN (MT1, MT2, MT3) and named "Work Environment", denoted as MT.

Fourth factor: Grouped using the average command Compute Variable DN = MEAN (DN1, DN2, DN3, DN4) and named "Relationships with colleagues", denoted as DN.

Fifth factor: Grouped using the average command Compute Variable CT = MEAN (CT2, CT3, CT4) and named "Commitment to superiors", denoted as CT.

Sixth factor: Grouped using the average command Compute Variable NL = MEAN (NL1, NL2, NL3, NL4) and named "Psychological competence", denoted as NL.

Seventh Factor: Grouped using the average command Compute Variable STC = MEAN (STC1, STC2) and named "Job Autonomy", denoted as STC.

Eighth Factor: Grouped using the average command Compute Variable DT = MEAN (DT1, DT2, DT3, DT4) and named "Training and Career Advancement Opportunities", denoted as DT.

Table 4. Factor Rotation Matrix

Observations	**Group of factors**							
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**
NL1	0,687							
NL2	0,728							
NL3	0,818							
NL4	0,731							
DN1		0,760						
DN2		0,719						
DN3		0,748						
DN4		0,668						
DT1			0,569					
DT2			0,579					
DT3			0,759					
DT4			0,749					
TL1				0,870				
TL2				0,841				
TL4				0,592				
MT1					0,644			
MT2					0,786			
MT3					0,768			
BC2						0,733		
BC3						0,578		
BC4						0,650		
BC5						0,675		
CT2							0,789	
CT3							0,763	
CT4							0,612	
STC1								0,608
STC2								0,846
Eigenvalue	6,852	2,507	1,940	1,589	1,412	1,359	1,084	1,036
Variance extracted (%)	25,377	9,284	7,185	5,884	5,230	5,032	4,013	3,835
Cumulative (%)	25,377	34,661	41,847	47,731	52,961	57,992	62,006	65,841

Linear Regression Analysis

The Pearson correlation coefficient test is used to examine the linear relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable, as well as between independent variables themselves. If the correlation coefficient between independent and dependent variables is large, it indicates a relationship between them, and linear regression analysis may be appropriate. If the independent variables are strongly correlated, the issue of multicollinearity must be considered when conducting regression analysis.

According to the Pearson correlation coefficient analysis, all independent variables are correlated with the dependent variable at a 1% significance level. The correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and the independent variables is relatively high, ranging from 0.174 to 0.574. There is also correlation between the independent variables themselves, with correlation coefficients ranging from 0.172 to 0.397. This necessitates a multicollinearity test to determine if multicollinearity occurs.

Table 5. Correlation matrix between variables

	DL	TL	BC	MT	DN	CT	NL	STC	DT
DL	1	0.336**	0.460**	0.297**	0.156**	0.376**	0.577**	0.440**	0.405**
TL		1	0.264**	0.362**	0.138**	0.227**	0.327**	0.224**	0.264**
BC			1	0.197**	0.146**	0.190**	0.446**	0.308**	0.326**
MT				1	0.318**	0.421**	0.340**	0.205**	0.270**
DN					1	0.394**	0.337**	0.128**	0.320**
CT						1	0.393**	0.227**	0.421**
NL							1	0.466**	0.401**
STC								1	0.339**
DT									1

Determining a Specific Regression Model

The factors extracted in the factor analysis are used for multivariate regression analysis to test the research model and accompanying hypotheses. Statistical hypothesis tests are all applied at a 5% significance level.

Determining the level of influence: factors with larger beta coefficients can be considered to have a higher level of influence than other factors in the research model.

Based on the theoretical research model in the theoretical basis section, we have the following specific linear regression equations describing the factors affecting the work motivation of female employees in administrative and public service units in Ca Mau province:

$$DL = \beta0+\beta1*TL+\beta2*BC+\beta3*MT+\beta4*DN+ \beta5*CT+ \beta6*NL+STC\beta7 + DT\beta8$$

Dependent variable (DL), Independent variables (TL, BC, MT, DN, CT, NL, STC, DT), βk are regression coefficients (k = 0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8)

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

Testing The Impact Of The Model:

The regression analysis results show an adjusted R2 of 0.437. This means that 43.7% of the variation in the level of influence of work motivation is explained by the linear relationship of the independent variables included in the model. The remaining 56.3% is due to variables outside the model. However, this fit is only true for the sample data. To test whether the model can be inferred for the real population, we must test the model's goodness of fit.

In addition, the Durbin-Watson test (d) shows a result of d = 1.690 ($1 < d < 3$), so we can conclude that the residuals are independent of each other, meaning there is no correlation between the residuals.

Table 6. Model Fit Assessment

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Standard error of estimation	Durbin-Watson
	0.678	0.459	0.437	0.520	1.690

To test the model's fit, we use the F-value from the ANOVA analysis..

Table 7. ANOVA Analysis

Model		Total square	Degree of freedom	Mean square	F	Sig.
1	**Regression**	43.951	8	5.494	20.284	0.000[b]
	Residual	51.732	191	0.271		
	Total	95.683	199			

ANOVA analysis shows that the Sig. value is approximately 0, which is less than the significance level α = 0.05. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is at least one actual relationship between the causal variables in the model and the outcome variable, consumer demand. In other words, we reject the null hypothesis H0 (that all independent variables in the model do not affect the dependent variable) and accept the alternative hypothesis H1 → The model fits the dataset and can be generalized to the entire population.

Table 8. Regression Analysis Results

	Unstandardized coefficients		**Standardized coefficients**	**t**	**Sig.**	**Multicollinearity statistics**	
	B	**Sta. Dev.**	**Beta**			**Tolerance**	**VIF**
Constant	0.241	0.350		0.688	0.492		
TL	0.080	0.053	0.089	1.488	0.138	0.797	1.254
BC	0.228	0.071	0.197^{***}	3.224	0.001	0.757	1.322
MT	0.035	0.064	0.035	0.552	0.582	0.716	1.397
DN	-0.132	0.071	-0.113^{*}	-1.868	0.063	0.768	1.302
CT	0.159	0.072	0.145^{*}	2.219	0.028	0.662	1.510
NL	0.360	0.080	0.317^{***}	4.494	0.000	0.568	1.760
STC	0.156	0.064	0.150^{*}	2.429	0.016	0.742	1.348
DT	0.122	0.074	0.105	1.646	0.101	0.691	1.447

The analysis results show that the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) is less than 5, ensuring that no multicollinearity occurs. In addition, of the 8 independent variables included in the model, only 5 are statistically significant (significance level < 0.05): BC (Nature of work), CT (Attachment to superiors), NL (Psychological competence), STC (Autonomy in work). DN (Relationship with colleagues), although its Sig. value is 0.063 > 0.05, is still less than 10% and is therefore retained.

CONCLUSION

In the context of administrative reform and the pursuit of greater effectiveness and efficiency in the state administrative apparatus, developing a corps of civil servants with strong competence, integrity, dynamism, and modern working practices is an essential requirement at all levels of leadership.

Work motivation is inherently complex and requires managers to integrate both scientific evidence and managerial judgement. Although a wide range of motivational interventions is available, the selection of appropriate measures must be tailored to each organization’s specific environment and operating conditions.

This research establishes the theoretical foundations and examines determinants of work motivation among female employees in the administrative and public-service sector in Ca Mau Province. Based on this framework, the study assesses both the current level of motivation and existing motivational practices for female employees in these organizations. Drawing on primary survey data collected through a structured questionnaire and an explicit set of measurement criteria, the findings provide an integrated view of female employees’ work motivation and motivational conditions, with reference to comparisons with male employees.

Empirical results from exploratory factor analysis and regression indicate that five factor groups job characteristics, attachment to supervisors, psychological competence/empowerment, job autonomy, and coworker relationships are positively associated with the work motivation of female employees in the administrative and public-service sector in Ca Mau Province. Among these determinants, psychological competence/empowerment exhibits the strongest effect.

Based on the empirical evidence and the assessed current situation, the study proposes a set of policy and managerial solutions to strengthen motivation and encourage sustained work effort among female administrative and public-service employees.

Key recommendations include: (i) enhancing awareness and implementation of gender equality; (ii) improving job-related practices through clearer task assignment criteria and more innovative performance appraisal methods; (iii) strengthening leadership and workplace relationships, including supervisors' gender-equality awareness, leadership style, and collegial cooperation; (iv) expanding training, development, and promotion opportunities; and (v) improving gender-responsive recruitment and the effective deployment of female employees.

At the same time, this study is subject to several limitations. Work motivation is multidimensional and may be shaped by additional factors across the employment lifecycle. The explanatory power of the estimated model remains modest, and the final regression specification retained only five determinants (job characteristics, coworker relationships, attachment to supervisors, psychological competence/empowerment, and job autonomy). Potentially relevant factors—such as salary and benefits, the work environment, training and promotion opportunities, and other organizational influences—were not examined in depth. Future research should therefore extend the analysis by incorporating a broader set of determinants and alternative modeling strategies to refine and strengthen the evidence base.

Recommendations

The Law on Civil Servants enacted by the National Assembly has played an important role in clarifying civil servants' duties, rights, and responsibilities. However, in practice, remuneration and incentive mechanisms for female employees in the administrative and public-service sector remain insufficiently specific and lack clarity, limiting their capacity to support the development of female civil servants and, by extension, socio-economic development. Moreover, existing legal and policy instruments may be inconsistent, fragmented, overlapping, or incomplete in scope, reducing their coherence and effectiveness. To strengthen implementation and address these shortcomings, the study proposes the following recommendations.

Continuously update and improve policies and implementation mechanisms: Policy frameworks should be periodically revised to reflect evolving socio-economic conditions and human resource development needs.

Laws and policies should be proactive and forward-looking, serving as effective instruments for motivating female employees in public administration while also guiding implementation and mitigating unintended negative consequences.

Ensure policy coherence, uniformity, and timely implementation guidance: Policy mechanisms should be developed in an integrated and consistent manner, supported by clear and timely implementing regulations to ensure uniform enforcement nationwide. Strengthening incentives and motivation while aligning them with responsibilities and obligations can help employees (including female staff) better understand their roles within the administrative system and increase their commitment to performance and professional identity. Such measures are particularly important for capable female employees seeking advancement and recognition within their organizations.

Advance performance-oriented reforms in compensation and evaluation: Although the regression results do not identify salary and benefits as statistically significant predictors of motivation in the estimated model, descriptive statistics reveal substantial income dispersion (from 2 million VND to 35 million VND). This disparity warrants attention in policy discussions. Vietnam's current salary structure - largely based on seniority, qualifications, and graded ranks—does not always reflect actual performance. In some agencies, higher salaries may not correspond to higher productivity. To address this misalignment, reforms should be implemented in parallel, including: more scientific and rational work allocation and staffing arrangements; improved performance standards; and innovations in performance evaluation to ensure clarity, accuracy, methodological rigor, objectivity, and transparency.

Effective salary reform is more likely when employees understand the rationale for performance-based pay and recognize its tangible benefits, thereby strengthening incentives to improve productivity and accountability.

Implement comprehensive salary reform to improve competitiveness and retain talent: Compensation reform should be pursued as a fundamental restructuring of the salary system for officials and civil servants, grounded in modern principles of public-sector pay.

Policy should also address disparities in remuneration across administrative agencies, Party committees, mass organizations, the armed forces, and the enterprise sector, to improve the state's ability to attract and retain qualified personnel.

Strengthen research and policy design on income, benefits, and job-based pay: Further research is needed to refine wage and income policies that match the positions, functions, and tasks of specific agencies and units. The goal should be to ensure that civil servants can maintain a decent living standard from their salaries, sustain their work capacity over time, accumulate savings, remain committed to public service, and reduce incentives for corrupt behavior.

Overall, salary reform plays a critical role in strengthening motivation and constructive work attitudes among female employees in the administrative and public-service sector. Improved compensation systems can enhance economic security, support family responsibilities, and create conditions for female employees to pursue additional training and professional development, thereby improving both individual performance and organizational effectiveness.

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CHAPTER 2
MILITARY-ECONOMIC CYCLES AND THE EMERGENCE OF A MOBILIZATION-MILITARIST SOCIETY AND STATE

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INTRODUCTION

Military-Economic Cycles: The Nature And Historical Retrospective

Societal development is a cyclical process driven by the internal contradictions of each of the historical forms of societal structure. Crises are a cyclic-forming factor in the historical process of societal development. Crisis stages of societal development are the periods of the highest aggravation of the contradictions of societal reproduction and, at the same time, the determination of ways and means of their resolution. Crises are a complex phenomenon, which manifests itself not only in economic collapse, but primarily in the inability of societal institutions to smooth out the most acute inter-class, inter-country, inter-civilisational contradictions. Periodic aggravation of these contradictions leads to the deployment of crisis-militaristic phases of military-economic cycles.

In historical retrospect, even today, complex societal organisms compete for resources that guarantee the winners in this competition economic and military-political leadership, and thus the possibility of long-term dominance in the local or global geopolitical space. That is, military-economic cycles are a form of socio-economic cyclicality, which is generated by the struggle of the leading actors of geopolitics for the status of hegemon (regional or global, depending on the specific historical conditions). The establishment of each historical form of political and economic system of domination of the geopolitical hegemon creates grounds for the formation, accumulation, aggravation of deep socio-economic, political, civilisational contradictions, which determines the cyclicality of military-economic processes. Partial resolution of these contradictions occurs in the process of deployment of crisis-militaristic phases of military-economic cycles (Podliesna, 2024).

Military-economic cycles are one of the most relevant forms of socio-economic cycles for all historical epochs, since it is wars (an integral component of civilisational development) - a way of redistribution of resources necessary for the process of societal reproduction. One of the most ancient forms of military-economic cycles is represented by the cyclical interaction of nomadic and agricultural civilizations.

The most vivid examples of such interaction are cycles of power, which were expressed in the synchronous formation, strengthening, and decline of ruling dynasties in China and steppe empires in Mongolia, as well as cycles of xenocratic state inherent in the medieval Maghreb. The cycle-forming factor of interaction between nomads of the central steppes and China is the dynamics of socio-economic and state-forming processes in China. The cyclical interaction between nomads and sedentary agriculturalists in the medieval Maghreb consisted of the following phases: 1) conquest and forcible establishment of a system of exploitation of agriculturalists by nomads; 2) relatively stable socio-economic and political interaction between nomads and sedentary agricultural civilizations exploited by them; 3) the destruction of institutional practices of exploitation of sedentary civilizations by nomads, accompanied by aggravation of political or military-political conflicts.

The preconditions for the formation of a cyclically developing world political-economic system emerged already in ancient times. The historical prototypes of world hegemony were the Roman and Chinese empires, as well as the Mongol Empire, which created trade-economic and geopolitical grounds for the emergence of the capitalist world-system, the cyclical dynamics of which is formed by the unity of the diversity of socio-economic cycles, the leading role among which is played by global military-economic cycles.

After the fall of the Mongol Empire, Western European civilization from the beginning of the "long" XVI century became the initiator of the cyclical process of struggle for gaining world leadership. This process is presented in the theory of long cycles of world politics by G. Modelski and W. Thompson, the theory of cycles of hegemony by I. Wallerstein and others. The cyclical nature of wars is clearly traceable in the deployment of long cycles of world politics, cycles of hegemony. The mentioned cycles are coordinated with the deployment of Kondratiev cycles, the beginning and end of which are marked by wars. Global military-economic cycles, the rhythm of which is set by world wars, are generated by the competition between the leading actors of geopolitics. Global cycles create the basis for the deployment of regional cycles derived from them and set the rhythm of their deployment (Podliesna, 2024).

The theory of long cycles of world politics by J. Modelski and W. Thompson conceptualizes the cyclical process of certain states acquiring the status of a world leader. In particular, according to the model of long cycles of "accumulation of experience", which explains the process of "rise" of a world power, each such 120-year cycle consists of four phases: 1 - "agenda setting," 2 - "coalition building," 3 - "macro-decision," and 4 - "execution." The "macro-decision" phase is characterized by a global confrontation, at the end of which a global leader emerges; it lasts approximately 30 years (Modelski, 1995).

Beginning with the "long 16th century" and continuing to the present day, the crisis-militaristic phases of global cycles unfold in the form of "thirty-year wars". According to Immanuel Wallerstein (1983), in the historical process of development of capitalism, three independent cases of hegemony were formed. In the historical retrospective of capitalism development, these were the United Provinces (Holland), the United Kingdom (Great Britain) and the United States of America. In each case, hegemony was achieved through the Thirty Years of World War, a land war that involved (not necessarily constantly) almost all the major military powers of the era in large-scale conflicts that were extremely devastating to the land and population. These were the Thirty Years' War of 1618-1648; cycle of the Napoleonic wars 1792-1815; Euro-Asian Wars 1914-1945.

According to the theory of long cycles in world politics, around 2026, a "macro-decision" phase will begin, which in previous cycles unfolded as a 30-year period of global confrontation, leading to world wars (Modelski, 1995).

A deep systemic crisis has been unfolding in the capitalist world-system since 2008; in the process of overcoming such crises of capitalism there is a partial resolution of its internal contradictions, which leads to the transformation of the capitalist system. Due to the current systemic crisis of capitalism, the world-system has critically approached the bifurcation point, i.e. a very important stage of the historical process for humanity is beginning.

The current geopolitical situation creates conditions for long-term geopolitical confrontation. In the 2020-2050s there will be a sharp increase in the amplitude of cyclical fluctuations of the world-system, which is due to the coordinated deployment of crisis-militaristic phases of the most relevant forms of global cycles, namely: “intermediate war” that stimulates the economy at the beginning of the upswing phase of the 6th Kondratiev cycles; the “macro-decision” phase of the modern long cycle of world politics; the “thirty-year world war” phase of the modern hegemony cycle; the phase of territorialism (material expansion) of the new systemic cycle of capital accumulation.

The unfolding of global military-economic cycles in the near future largely depends on the domestic political, foreign policy, and institutional cycles of the hegemon of the modern capitalist world-system - the United States. According to J. Friedman's forecasts, around 2025, the fourth institutional cycle should begin in the United States; in historical retrospect, the beginning of each such cycle was a war. It should be taken into account that "the pressure of American cycles from within inevitably affects the rest of the world in the form of the same pressure" (Friedman, 2021), so the deployment of cyclical geopolitical processes in the near future largely depends on whether this form of cycles will continue to exist in the United States. The current societal-political crisis in the United States is so large and permeates all spheres of socio-political life that it is quite capable of leading to an internal societal catastrophe with a military component, or to a world war in hybrid form, which will be the starting point for the deployment of the next 80-year institutional cycle in the United States.

Apparently, there was a failure in the unfolding of the US foreign policy cycle - the Klinberg cycle. According to the logic and chronology of the deployment of Klinberg cycles (Schlesinger, 1986), in the early 2010s the extroverted phase of the foreign policy cycle should have been replaced by an intraverted one, lasting about 21 years, but already in the early 2020s the U.S. foreign policy became more active in the context of using not only "soft power" but also participation in hybrid wars and influence on the unleashing of local-global conflicts.

This transformation of the Klingberg cycle corresponds to the rhythm of unfolding of the current long cycle of world politics, namely the approaching phase of "macro-decision", in other words, global war, the ideological justification for which is already being actively formed in the course of information warfare.

Local-global conflicts, which is unfolding in the form of a large-scale Russian-Ukrainian military-political conflict, the intensified hybrid conflict in Syria, and the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, which alternates between escalation and de-escalation, in April 2025, another escalation of the Indo-Pakistani conflict began, followed by the Iranian-Israeli conflict in June 2025 - constitute components of a hybrid “global war”, which is expected to bring about the resolution of aggravated geopolitical contradictions and the emergence of a new global geopolitical hierarchy.

The unfolding of the crisis-militaristic phases of global military-economic cycles leads to the transformation of the global geopolitical system. As a result of this transformation, either a new leader of the global geopolitical system emerges, or the geopolitical strategy of the old leader, who has retained its dominance, changes. In any case, the leader of the global geopolitical system further determines the technical-technological, socio-economic, military-political, environmental and cultural guidelines of development for the whole world.

1. THE HISTORICAL FORMS OF MOBILIZATION SOCIETY AND STATE

The generalized form of cyclical development of civilizations is the renewed, with a certain and not always strict periodicity, deployment of such phases as origin (formation), development (prosperity) and maturity, which passes into decline (degradation). Within the framework of this cycle, civilization is periodically shaken by crises of varying strength, generated both by internal contradictions and external impacts, in particular the aggravation of intercivilizational competition. The interaction of civilizations, including many contradictions, determines the form, and also sets the direction and dynamism of the cyclical development of the entire world-system.

The turning points of the cyclical processes of civilizational development are crisis periods, when the exacerbated interclass, intercountry or intercivilization contradictions, or a complex of these contradictions, are revealed with particular force. Overcoming the crisis occurs in a revolutionary way, which opens the next wave of socio-political, technical-technological, cultural-ideological innovations. For cardinal societal innovations, some form of emergency and mobilization of society and state are necessary to carry out revolutionary actions and further overcome their consequences, after which a period of relatively stable evolutionary societal development begins.

The formation of a mobilization society means the formation of a certain ecosystem of interaction between societal classes and public institutions, in which public consciousness is subordinated to the main idea, for the sake of which some exceptional, extraordinary means and resources are necessary to achieve it. That is, society voluntarily or forcibly switches to a mode of functioning in a state of emergency.

The formation of a mobilization society and a mobilization regime of state functioning are interrelated. In the broadest sense, the state is a universal form of organization of social life, inherent in all forms of society in which there is a division into social classes. The state is also interpreted as one of the most important societal institutions.

In the process of establishing a mobilization society and state, their main historical forms arose as:

- In the Ancient World – the ancient Eastern despotisms of Egypt, Babylon, China. Irrigated agriculture was the grounds of these countries's economic system. This required the mobilization of community efforts for the construction and maintenance of irrigation systems, which led to the restriction of private land ownership, large-scale public works and ultimately led to the formation of state power in the despotism form.
- In the Middle Ages – nomadic empires – historical forms of society that can be called a society of rapid mobilization. The economic basis of nomadic society (nomadic cattle breeding, remote exploitation of settled neighbours, control over trade routes) determined the possibility of rapid mobilization of a significant part of the population.

Over the course of three historical periods, the Great Silk Road was almost completely controlled by nomadic empires:

- the Turkic Khaganate in the last third of the VI century;
- the empire of Genghis Khan in the second quarter of the XIII century;
- the empire of Timur (Tamerlane) in the last third of the XIV century.

The Mongol Empire created by Genghis Khan is the only empire of nomads from the central steppes that established its power throughout the territory of China. It ensured the security of international trade and created the conditions for the formation of the first world system, which became an important prerequisite for the formation of the capitalist world system.

Mobilization forms of societal life of agricultural civilizations were slow mobilization. This form of mobilization of society was long-term and aimed at concentrating efforts for survival and long-term preservation of its identity, which implied not quick militaristic forms of achieving goals, but long-term cultural and ideological mobilization based on religion or a philosophical concept (for example, Confucianism). It is China that represents the most large-scale and long-term project of a mobilization society, starting from ancient despotism to the modern hybrid model of Chinese society.

- The new era is the period of the formation of the capitalist world-system and the formation of national states (states for each specific, distinctive nation with certain borders) and the establishment of absolute monarchy in Western Europe, which was a historical form of societal mobilization after the period of feudal fragmentation. The processes of the formation of multinational empires, in particular the British, Austro-Hungarian, Ottoman, Russian, were the implementation of large-scale projects of mobilization of different nations within the geographical and ideological borders of these empires.
- The newest times and the present day – bright historical examples of the mobilization society and state during this period were the Soviet society, the German model of the mobilization society during the Nazi era, the Iranian, Israeli, Chinese, North Korean models of the mobilization society. Modern relevant forms of the mobilization society, which have existed for several decades, are the political and economic systems of Iran, North Korea, China, Israel.

- These countries are characterized by their own original religious and ideological basis. All of them have a hybrid character, but differ in the degree of authoritarianism, autarky, level of economic development and form of economic structure (Podliesna, 2025).

The formation of specific historical forms of mobilization society is coordinated with the cyclicality of societal development, in particular with the unfolding of global cycles. First of all, this concerns the long cycles of world politics by G. Modelski and W. Thompson and the hegemony cycles by I. Wallerstein.

In the cyclical process of civilisational development, both in historical retrospect and in modern conditions, there is a struggle for resources that provide the winners in the competition for economic and military-political leadership with the ability to dominate in the long term and to develop successfully for some time. Each historical form of political-economic system of domination, which was established as a result of war, contained in itself the preconditions of the next war - deep socio-economic, political, civilisational contradictions. Since the times of ancient civilisations and to this day, wars are one of the main ways of resolving the contradictions of societal development. Wars are a component of the cyclical process of civilisational development.

Depending on historical conditions and the level of development of specific civilisations, for some civilisations the wars they initiate or the wars they are forced to engage in, as well as the processes of aggressive colonisation, stimulate their dynamic development, while for other civilisations they are destructive. For civilisations that are in the process of active and successful formation, or those civilisations in the cyclical development of which the phase of prosperity has come, wars predominantly become a source of growth and strengthening of their influence; waging wars by civilisations in the phase of decline-decay most often intensifies internal destructive processes for these civilisations (Podliesna, 2024).

The leading countries of each specific civilization in certain historical periods reach a level of development that allows them to enter the struggle for global leadership; this occurs cyclically and requires them to apply mobilization scenarios for their functioning.

The essence of cyclical processes of struggle for world leadership is presented in the theory of long cycles of world politics and the concept of hegemonic cycles.

A hegemon country sets the rules of the game for the entire interstate system, dominates the world economy, it is a leader in production, trade and finance, achieves political decisions that are convenient for it, minimizes the use of military force while being militarily strong, and forms the cultural vocabulary used by the whole world (Wallerstein, 2004).

Long cycles of world politics and cycles of hegemony are global forms of cyclical military-economic processes. During the development of crisis-militaristic phases of these cycles, the idea of a mobilization society is actualized in one form or another. According to the theory of long cycles of world politics, from the 10th century to 1973, nine long cycles of world politics unfolded, and from approximately 2026 the macro-decision phase of the 10th long cycle of world politics begins (Modelski, 1995).

The crisis-militaristic phase of the military-economic cycle should be understood as a phase of manifestation of extreme aggravation of contradictions in the system of interactions of certain competing societal organisms, which leads to a military-political conflict, the outcome of which determines the balance of power in a particular regional or global geopolitical system and creates the basis for overcoming the systemic crisis.

Various forms of mobilization society of countries that dominated the geopolitical system were formed during the crisis-militaristic phases of global cycles. The mobilization society of the Mongol Empire – during the macro-decision phase (proto-global war) of the 3rd long cycle of world politics, the empire of Timur (Tamerlane) – during the macro-decision phase of the 4th long cycle of world politics.

In the era of capitalism, the phases of macro-decisions of long cycles of world politics and the phases of the "thirty-year wars" of hegemony cycles coincide chronologically. The most important geopolitical result of these phases is the establishment of the leadership of a specific state in the capitalist world-system.

At the end of the global confrontation in the macro-decision phase of the 5th long cycle of world politics, Portugal became the leader of the world-system, the 6th – the Netherlands, the 7th and 8th – Great Britain, the 9th – the USA. There are short-term and long-term forms of mobilization society. Short-term mobilization of societal forces for a revolutionary solution to the crisis in the societal system is more characteristic of Western civilization. Longer periods of societal mobilization were observed in the process of historical development of the Orthodox-Slavic, Chinese, and Muslim civilizations – periods of self-preservation, survival, and accumulation of potential.

Civilizations that survived and achieved success in the competitive struggle of societal organisms, in certain historical crisis periods in one form or another applied mobilization scenarios. To a greater extent, the mobilization form of societal life (especially long-term) is characteristic of Chinese, Muslim and Orthodox-Slavic civilizations.

The process of civilisational development is a complex cyclical process of contradictory interaction between different civilisations, in which military-political conflicts play an important role. The entry of the leading countries of the capitalist world-system into the stage of a deep civilisational crisis today is evidenced by the fact that the cyclical crises of the world economy are becoming increasingly destructive and more frequent, and the crisis-militaristic phases of global military-economic cycles are acquiring a hybrid form (Podliesna, 2024).

In an article published in 1993, "The Clash of Civilisations?". S. Huntington suggested that "identity at the level of civilisation will become increasingly important, and the shape of the world will be shaped to a large extent by the interaction of seven or eight major civilisations. These include: Western civilisation, Hindu civilisation, Islamic civilisation, Confucian civilisation, Latin American civilisation, Orthodox Slavic civilisation, Japanese civilisation, African civilisation (possibly)" (Huntington, 1993).

Modern global society is a complex societal organism in which the Western, or rather European-American civilisation, the core of which is the USA and the EU; the Chinese civilisation, the Muslim civilisation, the Indian civilisation, and the Slavic civilisation are closely intertwined and carry out a full of contradictions interaction.

The aggravation of contradictions between these civilisations today is expressed in the intensification of geopolitical confrontation, acquiring a protracted and increasingly conflictual nature, which corresponds to the logic of the deployment of crisis-militaristic phases of the modern long cycle of world politics and the cycle of hegemony (Podliesna, 2024).

Since the beginning of the "long XVI century" and up to now, the most successful in inter-civilizational competition has been the Western civilization, for which mobilization approaches to the organizing the life of society are less characteristic. However, at the present time, when the world-system has entered another crisis-militaristic period of its cyclical development, the Muslim, Orthodox-Slavic, Chinese, Hindu civilizations are capable of creating an alternative to the dominance of the Western civilization precisely on the basis of mobilization and synergy of their collective actions.

Depending on specific historical circumstances, the following types of mobilization of societal forces were formed: 1) mobilization "from above" - mobilization imposed by the ruling class in the role of the state; 2) mobilization "from below" - relatively independent mobilization of the masses, in particular as a reaction to increased exploitation by the ruling class; 3) comprehensive mobilization, which arises from a temporary coincidence of interests between the ruling class and the broad masses; 4) quasi-mobilization "from below" - in other words, the mobilization of the people under the influence of manipulation by the ruling class or a social class that claims to have gained power.

The modern crisis-militaristic stage of the cyclical development of the world-system actualizes the mobilization form of societal life. This is manifested, first of all, in the processes of militarization of the economy and public consciousness, strengthening of autocratic tendencies in the countries – leading actors of geopolitics, as well as in the strengthening of right-wing political forces.

The aggravation of geopolitical contradictions forces the opposing countries to mobilize their economy, public institutions, public opinion to achieve their goals in the geopolitical struggle. Today we are witnessing this process with our own eyes. It is happening quickly, in a hybrid form, and unstable, situational geopolitical alliances are often formed.

Starting from the "long XVI century" and up to the present day, the leaders of the world-system have been the countries of Western European civilization. Under modern conditions of the beginning of the macro-decision phase of the 10th long cycle of world politics, the leading countries of all other civilizations are entering the struggle for world leadership, this struggle will continue for about 20–30 years.

2. CONTEMPORARY MILITARIZATION AND THE EMERGENCE OF A MOBILIZATION-MILITARISTIC FORM OF SOCIETAL LIFE

The unfolding of crisis-militaristic phases of global and local-global cycles causes a comprehensive militarization of the economy and public consciousness. A certain ecosystem of coexistence and constant interaction between the state; business, which provides for the needs of the military sphere; and civil society, whose consciousness becomes militaristically oriented under the influence of political and ideological instruments, is being formed. In such an ecosystem, the actions of all actors are subordinated to the needs of the military sphere in its broadest sense, which includes the military economy and a special strictly regulated way of social life, limited by the requirements of the state of emergency conditioned by the ideology of war. Such a system is a mobilization-militaristic form of social life, which ensures that society acquires relative stability, thanks to which it survives, mobilizes for the sake of achieving certain declared goals of the ruling class and creates an economic basis for overcoming cyclical socio-economic crises through the commercialization of war. In the twentieth century, the most successful example of the commercialization of war, which made it possible to overcome the Great Depression, was the application of the economic policy of military Keynesianism by the leading countries of the capitalist world-system.

The fact that a new cycle of militarization and the establishment of mobilization forms of public life has begun in the global economy is evidenced, first of all, by economic indicators. For example, according to the Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI), global military spending increased by 37 percent between 2015 and 2024 and rose in all five geographical regions.

The United States remained by far the largest military spender in the world. Its expenditure of $997 billion in 2024 was 3.2 times more than the second largest 16 spender, China (SIPRI, 2025a). From 2022, despite the socio-economic challenges due to the constraints on economic activity justified by the proliferation of COVID-19, the share of military expenditures in government expenditures globally increases (Fig. 1).

That is, in the global dimension, the importance of militarization in government expenditure policies is again increasing.

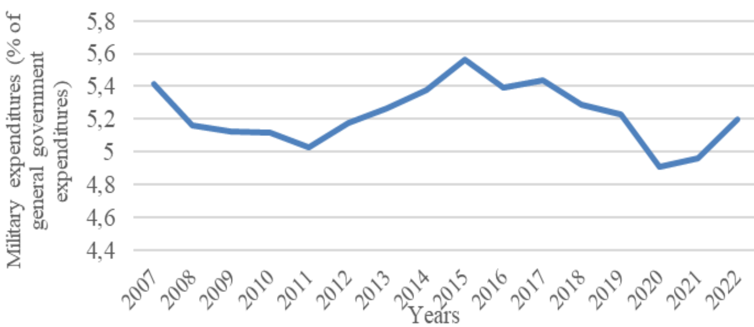

Figure 1. Trendhe dynamics of world military expenditures (% of general government expenditures)

According to Akçagün and Elveren (2021), the absolute dominance of the dollar has secured the US's global economic leadership, making it the center of global financialization. This economic power allows the US to have an impressive military budget (Fig. 2), which strengthens US political power, thereby ensuring the dominance of the dollar.

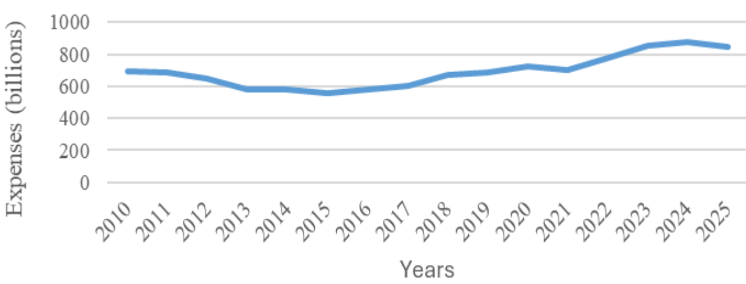

Figure 2. US Department of Defense budget for fiscal years 2010–2025

According to Keynesian theory, military spending, as a component of the state budget, has a multiplier effect on the economy. Keynesians defend the role of military spending in stimulating aggregate demand during periods of economic recession (Chary & Singh, 2024). In historical retrospect the increase in military spending in the US was a response to the crisis in the economy. The sharp increase in military spending in the early 1950s, early 1980s, and early 2000s occurred in the United States immediately after periods of economic recession. The increase in military spending during World War II brought the US economy out of the prolonged effects of the 1930s depression. The sharp increase in military spending in the early 1950s helped reverse the recession of the late 1940s, and an equally large increase in Pentagon spending in the early 1980s helped end the recession of 1980–1982 (Hossein-Zadeh, 2006). The beginning of this new cycle of militarization is also evidenced by the militaristic statements of leading figures in the global political establishment, as well as the adoption of long-term development strategies in countries – leading actors in geopolitics, aimed at increasing defense budgets, stimulating the development of the military-industrial complex. Arms trade is growing, which is an important argument in favor of choosing militarization as a way to overcome the global economic crisis. According to SIPRI, the volume of international deliveries of major weapons in 2020-2024 was the second highest for any five-year period since the end of the Cold War, but still about 35 percent lower than during the peak years of the Cold War (1980-1984) (SIPRI, 2025a). The fact that the trend of militarization is increasing in the modern world-system is evidenced by the growth of total sales of weapons supplied by the 100 largest arms manufacturing and military services companies (Fig. 3).

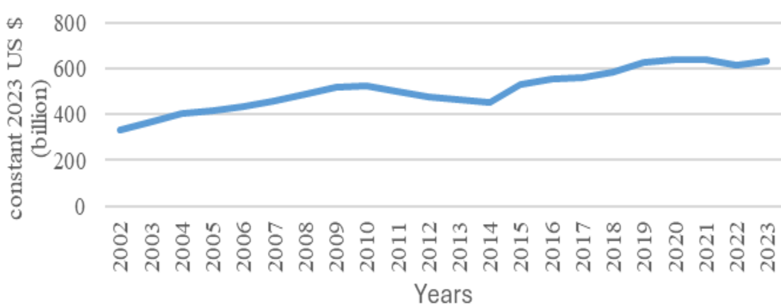

Figure 3. Total arms sales for the SIPRI Top 100

Compared to 2002, the value of total arms sales of the top 100 companies in 2023 have doubled (from $331 billion to $632 billion) (SIPRI, 2025). In the cyclical development of the capitalist world system, a crisis-militaristic stage is now beginning, manifested in the outbreak of local and global conflicts, increased arms sales, and rising global military spending.

CONCLUSION

The beginning of the next crisis-militaristic stage of the cyclical process of development of the capitalist world system initiates the transition to the war footing of the states where local-global wars are taking place, as well as large-scale militarization of the political economic systems of the states - pretenders to the role of world leader and their allies. Any reformatting of the structure of the political-economic system, due to the change of strategic guidelines of its development, in particular, from the priority of building a "consumer society" to the priority of forming a militaristic society, leads to the destabilization of established socio-economic and institutional practices of social life. That is, the stability of the political-economic system is temporarily reduced, while at the same time transformation processes are taking place, forming a mobilization-militaristic society as an intermediate form that provides relative stability of socio-economic development. States, on whose territory the militaristic processes of geopolitical confrontation are localized, should choose the most effective political-economic model for their survival and development, that is, make a fundamental decision: to create a militarized society of mobilization character, oriented towards decades of war, or to choose a model oriented towards stabilization and solidarization of society, turning towards the implementation of the concept of the social state.

The resolution of geopolitical contradictions by militaristic means, both in the form of "global" wars (crisis-militaristic phases of global cycles) and in the form of smaller-scale military-political conflicts (crisis militaristic phases of local-global cycles) temporarily hinders the achievement of sustainable development goals, declared today by the leading actors of geopolitics as the most important guidelines for the development of human civilization.

The unfolding of the crisis-militaristic phases of global and local-global military-economic cycles is a period of deviation from the benchmarks of sustainable development in the conditions of geopolitical turbulence, but it is precisely at this time economic, technical-technological, political and institutional grounds are being created to overcome the crisis of the geopolitical system and return to the trajectory of movement towards sustainable development.

Militarization of the economy and public consciousness is rather effective tool for implementing the mobilization scenario of overcoming deep crises of the capitalist economy, but at the same time it generates contradictions and disproportions of social reproduction, destruction of public consciousness, which ultimately leads to even deeper crises. Therefore, militarization allows temporarily stabilizing the political economic system, returning it to the path of achieving sustainable development goals, but creates grounds for destabilization of society in the long term.

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CHAPTER 3
EFFECT OF ENTREPRENEURIAL RESOURCES ON PERFORMANCE OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS IN ZARIA LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF KADUNA STATE

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INTRODUCTION

The effect of entrepreneurial resources on the performance of women entrepreneurs has emerged as a critical area of research, shedding light on the factors that contribute to the success and sustainability of women-owned businesses. Across various countries, entrepreneurship is increasingly recognized as a key driver of economic growth, innovation, and job creation (Sagar, Anand, Varalaxmi, & Raj, 2023). However, women entrepreneurs often face distinct challenges that impede their ability to fully capitalize on the opportunities within the entrepreneurial landscape. These challenges include limited access to essential resources such as financial capital, entrepreneurial education and skills, networks, technology, and social support systems (Kitole, & Genda, 2024). As a result, the study of entrepreneurial resources what they are, how they are accessed, and how they influence business outcomes has garnered significant attention. Understanding this dynamic is essential for both improving women's entrepreneurial performance and addressing the underlying systemic barriers they face.

On a global scale, entrepreneurship has long been recognized as a key engine of economic development, employment generation, and a powerful means of promoting innovation and social transformation (Challoumis, 2024). Scholars such as Schumpeter (1934) argue that entrepreneurship drives economic progress through innovation and creative destruction, while Audretsch and Thurik (2001) emphasize its role in fostering competitiveness and structural economic change. Within this context, although men have traditionally dominated the entrepreneurial space, women have increasingly entered entrepreneurship, demonstrating significant potential, adaptability, and resilience in the face of structural constraints (Finney, 2019). According to Minniti and Naudé (2010), women's participation in entrepreneurship is particularly important for inclusive growth, as it expands the productive base of economies and enhances social welfare.

Despite these contributions, extensive literature indicates that women entrepreneurs continue to face disproportionate challenges arising from entrenched gender biases, restrictive socio-cultural norms, and systemic inequalities within financial and institutional frameworks.

Ahl (2006) and Brush et al. (2019) contend that entrepreneurship ecosystems are largely gendered, often privileging male-owned enterprises in access to finance, networks, and business support services. Similarly, OECD (2020) reports that women entrepreneurs are less likely than men to secure formal credit and venture capital, limiting their capacity for business expansion and innovation. These constraints frequently result in women-owned businesses remaining smaller in scale, less profitable, and more vulnerable to failure, thereby undermining their ability to compete on equal footing with male-owned enterprises (Mabemba, 2024).

Consequently, scholars argue that entrepreneurial resources play a pivotal role in addressing these disparities. From a resource-based perspective, Barney (1991) asserts that access to valuable, rare, and inimitable resources is essential for achieving competitive advantage. In line with this view, Brush, de Bruin, and Welter (2009) emphasize that improving women's access to financial, human, social, and technological resources can significantly enhance entrepreneurial performance and sustainability. Hence, understanding the role of entrepreneurial resources in mitigating gender-based constraints is critical to advancing women's entrepreneurial success and fostering inclusive and sustainable economic development.

In Africa, the entrepreneurial landscape for women is evolving; however, the continent continues to grapple with significant structural and institutional barriers. Gender inequality, restrictive cultural norms, and limited access to capital remain persistent challenges confronting women entrepreneurs across many African countries (Olarewaju & Fernando, 2020). According to the World Bank (2019), women-owned enterprises in Sub-Saharan Africa are less likely than those owned by men to obtain formal credit and business support services, largely due to discriminatory financial systems and weak property rights. Despite these constraints, women in Sub-Saharan Africa play a pivotal role in driving economic activity, particularly within the informal sector, where they dominate small-scale trade and micro-enterprises that contribute substantially to poverty reduction, job creation, and household welfare (ILO, 2020). In Nigeria, women entrepreneurs are making notable contributions to the national economy despite facing multiple constraints.

Women-owned businesses operate across diverse sectors such as agriculture, retail, manufacturing, and services, and their economic contributions are critical to national development (Ogundana, Simba, Dana, & Liguori, 2021). Nonetheless, empirical studies indicate that access to entrepreneurial resources remains a key determinant of women's business success in Nigeria (Alene, 2020). This challenge is particularly pronounced in northern Nigeria, including Kaduna State, where women entrepreneurs face entrenched socio-cultural, economic, and infrastructural barriers that limit their participation and growth in entrepreneurial activities. Although the region has witnessed a gradual increase in women-led enterprises, these entrepreneurs continue to require substantial support in the form of financial capital, entrepreneurial skills development, mentorship, and networking opportunities to achieve sustainability and growth. The absence of gender-responsive policies and targeted support programs further exacerbates these challenges and constrains the growth potential of women-owned businesses (Adetunji, 2024).

Focusing on Zaria Local Government Area in Kaduna State, the entrepreneurial environment presents a mix of opportunities and persistent constraints for women entrepreneurs. Zaria, as one of the major commercial and educational centres in Kaduna State, has witnessed a gradual increase in women-led micro and small enterprises, particularly in sectors such as agro-processing, tailoring, food vending, retail trade, and home-based services. This growth aligns with findings by Daspan (2022), who observes that urban centres in Kaduna State are experiencing a steady rise in female entrepreneurial participation driven by economic necessity, rising education levels, and urbanization. Nevertheless, empirical studies focusing on Kaduna State reveal that women entrepreneurs in Zaria continue to face significant barriers that hinder business growth and sustainability. Yusuf and Sadiq (2020) report that limited access to affordable finance remains one of the most critical challenges for women entrepreneurs in northern Nigeria, largely due to collateral requirements, high interest rates, and limited inclusion in formal financial systems.

In addition, Abdulwahab and Mohammed (2021) highlight that inadequate infrastructure, such as unreliable electricity supply, poor road networks, and limited access to modern production facilities, significantly increases operational costs for women-owned businesses in Zaria and surrounding communities.

Socio-cultural norms further compound these challenges. According to Suleiman and Ahmed (2019), deeply rooted cultural expectations regarding women's domestic roles, mobility, and decision-making authority often restrict women's ability to fully engage in entrepreneurial activities in Kaduna State. These norms can limit women's access to markets, training opportunities, and business networks, thereby constraining enterprise expansion. Despite these structural and cultural barriers, women entrepreneurs in Zaria have demonstrated remarkable resilience and adaptability. Studies by Daspan (2022) and Yusuf and Sadiq (2020) note that many women rely on informal savings groups, family support, religious associations, and local trade networks as alternative sources of capital, mentorship, and market access. Zaria offers a supportive market environment due to its population size and commercial vibrancy, but the success of women entrepreneurs remains heavily influenced by their access to entrepreneurial resources and the extent to which socio-cultural and institutional barriers are addressed. This underscores the need for localized, gender-responsive policies and targeted support programs to enhance women's entrepreneurial performance in Zaria Local Government Area and Kaduna State at large.

The study seeks to examine the effect of entrepreneurial resources on the performance of women entrepreneurs in the Zarai Local Government Area of Kaduna State. The paper hypothesizes that there is no significant relationship between entrepreneurial resources and the performance of women entrepreneurs in the Zarai Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

1. CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

1.1. Concept of Entrepreneurial Resources

According to Lyons, Lyons, & Samson (2021). Entrepreneurial resources refer to the skills, knowledge, experience, and abilities that an entrepreneur possesses, which are essential for starting and growing a business.

These resources include both the entrepreneur's personal competencies and the talent within their team. Entrepreneurial resources are the bundle of inputs, such as human capital, financial capital, and physical assets, which entrepreneurs use to create value and drive business growth. These resources enable entrepreneurs to exploit business opportunities and build competitive advantages. Entrepreneurial resources are the tangible and intangible assets that entrepreneurs acquire, accumulate, and deploy to create and exploit business opportunities. These include human, social, financial, and physical resources that enhance the entrepreneur's ability to innovate and succeed (Adam, Abdullah, Maruhun, Anwar, & Salin, 2022). Entrepreneurial resources are valuable, rare, and difficult-to-imitate assets that contribute to a firm's competitive advantage. These resources include both internal capabilities (e.g., skills and knowledge) and external assets (e.g., relationships and networks) that help entrepreneurs achieve superior performance (Baia, Ferreira, & Rodrigues, 2020). Entrepreneurial resources are the assets and capabilities that entrepreneurs leverage to identify, evaluate, and exploit opportunities. These resources include human resources (entrepreneurial skills and experiences), financial resources (capital), and social resources (networks and relationships) (Zahra, 2021). Davidsson (2015) defines entrepreneurial resources as the tangible and intangible assets, such as financial capital, human skills, knowledge, and social networks, that entrepreneurs mobilize and combine to identify opportunities, create ventures, and achieve business growth. According to Kuratko, Morris, and Covin (2017), entrepreneurial resources refer to the financial, human, organizational, and relational assets available to entrepreneurs that support venture creation, strategic decision-making, and competitive performance.

1.2 Concept of Women Entrepreneurship

A woman entrepreneur is defined as a woman who organizes, manages, and assumes the risks of a business or enterprise, while playing a key role in creating economic opportunities and empowering other women within the African context. Cardella, Hernández-Sánchez, & Sánchez-García,(2020).

A woman entrepreneur is a woman who organizes, manages, and assumes the risks of a business enterprise, often overcoming societal, cultural, and economic barriers while contributing to innovation and business development. Women entrepreneurs are individuals who initiate, develop, and sustain businesses while demonstrating high levels of resourcefulness and creativity, often balancing the demands of entrepreneurship with societal expectations of women (Kakeesh, 2024). Women entrepreneurs are women who start and operate their own businesses, typically characterized by their ability to take on risk, innovate, and create value, all while dealing with gender-related challenges in both formal and informal sectors (Byrne, Fattoum, & Diaz Garcia, 2019). A woman entrepreneur is defined as a female individual who identifies business opportunities, mobilizes resources, and takes the initiative to create and manage a new business, driving economic growth and contributing to society's development. UN Women (2022) describes women entrepreneurship as the economic activities through which women own, operate, and scale businesses as a means of achieving financial independence, empowerment, and inclusive economic growth. Amine and Staub (2009) conceptualize women entrepreneurship as the process through which women organize and control productive resources to establish and grow enterprises, emphasizing autonomy, risk-taking, and strategic decision-making in business operations. Ratten (2020) defines women entrepreneurship as women-led entrepreneurial initiatives that integrate innovation, opportunity recognition, and value creation, often influenced by social networks, institutional support, and environmental factors.

1.3 Review of Empirical Studies

Sulaimon and Olayanju (2020) examined the role of financial resources in the success of women entrepreneurs in rural areas. They found that access to finance, such as loans, grants, and microfinancing, directly impacted the growth and performance of women-led businesses. Financial constraints were identified as a significant barrier to business expansion, particularly in rural local governments like Zarai. Women with access to financial capital showed improved business performance, including increased revenue, job creation, and sustainability.

Another study by Adeleke and Alabi (2018) examined the impact of entrepreneurial resources such as financial capital, human capital, and social networks on the performance of women entrepreneurs in Ogun State. The study found a positive correlation between access to these resources and business performance, with financial capital playing a significant role in enhancing business growth and sustainability. Olutunla and Akinlabi (2019) explored the role of resources like training, business networks, and information in Lagos State, highlighting that women with access to specialized training and networks experienced better business performance. However, financial constraints were identified as a major challenge. Oluwadare et al. (2022) conducted a study on the role of technological resources, including digital tools, internet access, and e-commerce platforms, in rural women's businesses. Their findings showed that technology adoption significantly improved the efficiency, reach, and competitiveness of women-led businesses. Women who utilized digital platforms for marketing and customer engagement reported increased visibility, revenue, and market share. Lastly, Ekanem and Alabi (2023) examined the role of psychological and personal resources, such as resilience, self-efficacy, and motivation, in the success of women entrepreneurs in Zarai. Their research highlighted that women with high levels of self-confidence, resilience, and a strong sense of purpose performed better in business, overcoming societal barriers and limited resources.

These personal traits helped women navigate obstacles like gender bias and lack of funding, resulting in improved overall business performance. Here's a review of five empirical studies on the effect of entrepreneurial resources on the performance of women entrepreneurs in Nigeria. These studies explore different aspects of entrepreneurial resources and how they influence business outcomes. Inegbedion and Okoye (2020) focused on the importance of human capital, including skills and education, in Edo State, concluding that human capital had a stronger impact on business performance than financial resources. They recommended supporting women entrepreneurs with skill development and modern technology training. Adeola and Adebayo (2021) focused on the role of social capital, including social networks, mentorship, and community support, in enhancing entrepreneurial performance in Zaria.

They discovered that women entrepreneurs with strong social capital were better able to access market opportunities, gain customers, and form partnerships, which ultimately improved business outcomes. In Zarai, women with greater social capital exhibited increased resilience and innovation, allowing them to overcome market challenges effectively. Additionally, Ibrahim and Oyebanji (2019) explored the impact of human capital, such as education, skills, and experience, on the performance of women entrepreneurs. Their study revealed that women with higher levels of education and industry-specific skills experienced better business growth and profitability. They emphasized that access to training programs and continuous skill development was essential for enhancing business performance. Suleiman and Ibrahim (2021) examined the relationship between entrepreneurial resources and business growth in Kano State, finding that access to financial resources and social networks positively affected business growth, with women participating in business networks experiencing increased sales and profits. Finally, Oluwaseun and Fagbohun (2022) investigated the role of various entrepreneurial resources, including financial, social, and psychological capital, in Oyo State. The study found that access to financial capital and support networks, as well as psychological resilience and self-confidence, played vital roles in overcoming challenges and sustaining business growth. The study called for improved access to capital and stronger support systems for women entrepreneurs.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

Human Capital Theory, propounded by Theodore Schultz and Becker (1964), emphasizes that individuals' knowledge, skills, abilities, and experience constitute valuable forms of capital that can be accumulated, invested in, and enhanced to improve productivity and economic outcomes. The theory posits that investments in education, training, and work-related experience enhance an individual's productive capacity, thereby leading to improved efficiency, higher earnings, and better economic performance at both the individual and organizational levels.

According to Human Capital Theory, individuals who deliberately invest in developing their competencies through formal education, vocational training, and experiential learning become better equipped to perform complex tasks, adapt to changing environments, and make informed decisions. This investment increases their capacity to utilize available resources effectively and to respond strategically to economic opportunities and constraints. As a result, higher levels of human capital are associated with increased innovation, improved problem-solving abilities, and greater overall success in economic activities.

In the situation of entrepreneurship, human capital is particularly critical because entrepreneurial activities require a diverse set of skills, including opportunity recognition, risk assessment, financial management, strategic planning, and innovation. Entrepreneurs with higher levels of education, relevant skills, and prior business experience are more likely to identify viable business opportunities, manage resources efficiently, and sustain competitive advantage. Furthermore, strong human capital enables entrepreneurs to navigate market uncertainties, adapt to technological and environmental changes, and make sound strategic decisions that enhance business performance and growth.

For women entrepreneurs, especially in developing economies, Human Capital Theory underscores the importance of capacity-building initiatives such as entrepreneurship education, skills acquisition programs, mentorship, and continuous learning. Strengthening women's human capital can help mitigate structural and socio-cultural constraints, enhance self-efficacy, and improve business performance. Therefore, the theory provides a strong theoretical foundation for examining the role of entrepreneurial resources particularly human capital in influencing the performance and sustainability of women-owned enterprises.

2.1 Research Methodology

This study adopted a quantitative survey research design to examine the relationship between entrepreneurial resources and the performance of women entrepreneurs. Primary data were collected using structured questionnaires, while secondary data were obtained from relevant published sources.

A sample size of 384 respondents was determined using Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table, and respondents were selected through stratified and simple random sampling techniques to ensure representativeness. The collected data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistical methods, with SmartPLS 4 employed to test the study's hypotheses through Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM), ensuring reliable and valid results.

3. STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL (SMART PLS4) AND TEST OF HYPOTHESES

3.1 Measurement of Variables

The effect of entrepreneurial resources on the performance of women entrepreneurs was measured using five items derived from a standardized measurement scale, with responses rated on a six-point Likert scale. Likewise, the performance of women entrepreneurs was assessed using five items, also rated on a five-point Likert scale.

The structural model assessed individual item reliability, internal consistency reliability, and discriminant validity. Firstly, the individual item reliability was assessed by examining the outer loadings of each construct's measure (Hair et al., 2017). This is depicted in the figure 1 below:

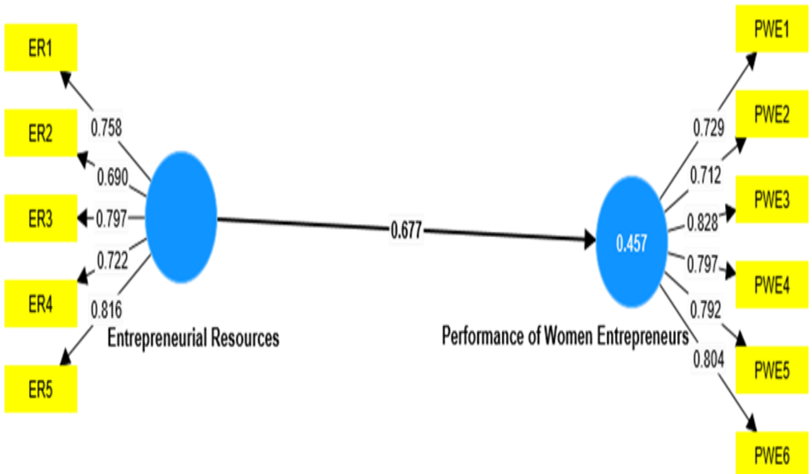

Figure 1. Measurement Model

As shown in Figure 1 above, the factor loadings of the respective constructs meet the recommended threshold for individual item reliability, with all indicator loadings exceeding the minimum acceptable value of 0.70, indicating that the items adequately represent their underlying constructs (Hair et al., 2019). This confirms that each measurement item contributes meaningfully to its associated latent variable.

Secondly, this study employs composite reliability (CR) to assess the internal consistency reliability of the constructs, as CR is considered more appropriate than Cronbach's alpha in PLS-SEM due to its sensitivity to differing indicator loadings. According to Hair et al. (2019), a CR value of 0.60 and above is considered acceptable for exploratory research, while values above 0.70 indicate satisfactory reliability. As presented in Table 1, the CR values range from 0.927 to 0.927, demonstrating a high level of internal consistency and indicating that the measurement items are reliably measuring their respective constructs.

Thirdly, convergent validity was assessed using the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), which measures the extent to which a construct explains the variance of its indicators. Hair et al. (2017) recommend an AVE value of 0.50 or higher, signifying that a construct explains at least 50% of the variance in its indicators. As shown in Table 1, all constructs recorded AVE values above the recommended threshold, thereby confirming that the constructs exhibit adequate convergent validity.

Furthermore, the satisfactory results for factor loadings, composite reliability, and AVE collectively indicate that the measurement model demonstrates strong reliability and validity. This suggests that the constructs are measured with sufficient accuracy and consistency, providing a robust foundation for subsequent structural model analysis and hypothesis testing.

Table 1. Construct reliability and validity

Table 1	**Construct reliability and validity.**	
Construct	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted
ER	0.835	0.575
PWE	0.874	0.605

Table 1 indicates that both Entrepreneurial Resources (ER) and Performance of Women Entrepreneurs (PWE) exhibit strong measurement properties, as evidenced by their high levels of reliability and convergent validity. Specifically, the composite reliability (CR) values for both constructs exceed the recommended minimum threshold of 0.70, demonstrating a high degree of internal consistency among the measurement items. This suggests that the indicators used to measure ER and PWE are stable and consistently reflect their respective latent constructs. In addition, the average variance extracted (AVE) values for both ER and PWE are above the recommended benchmark of 0.50, indicating that each construct explains more than half of the variance in its observed indicators. This confirms the presence of adequate convergent validity, as the measurement items are sufficiently correlated and converge to represent the same underlying construct. The combined evidence of high composite reliability and satisfactory AVE values confirms that the measurement model is both reliable and valid. Consequently, the constructs of Entrepreneurial Resources and Performance of Women Entrepreneurs are measured with precision and accuracy, providing confidence in the quality of the data and establishing a solid foundation for subsequent structural model analysis and hypothesis testing.

Table 2. Measurement Model: Discriminant Validity (Fornell and Larcker)

Construct	**ER**	**PWE**
Entrepreneurial resources	0.773	
Performancewomen entrepreneurs	0.677	0.778

Table 2 presents the results of the discriminant validity test using the Fornell and Larcker criterion. According to this criterion, the square root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for each construct should be greater than its correlation with other constructs in the model. In this study, the square roots of the AVE values are 0.773 for Entrepreneurial Resources (ER) and 0.778 for Performance of Women Entrepreneurs (PWE). These values are higher than the inter-construct correlation value of 0.677 between ER and PWE.

This indicates that each construct shares more variance with its own indicators than with other constructs, thereby confirming adequate discriminant validity. In other words, the constructs are distinct and measure different concepts within the model.

Table 3. Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

Construct	ER	PWE
Entrepreneurial resources	0.773	
Performancewomen entrepreneurs	0.677	0.778

Table 3 presents the discriminant validity results using the Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) for the study variables. The diagonal bold figures represent the square root of the AVE, all of which fall within the acceptable threshold. This confirms that the study meets the required criterion for discriminant validity.

R-Squared The coefficient of determination (R2) illustrates the amount of variance in the endogenous constructs. It indicates that the threshold value of 0.25 (as weak), 0.5 (as moderate), and 0.7 (as substantial respectively (Chin 1998). Thus, below is the R square value for the study.

Table 4. Coefficient of Determination

R Square	R -Square	R-Square Adjusted
Performance of women entrepreneurs	0.459	0.457

Table 4 presents the coefficient of determination (R^2) and adjusted R^2 values for the model predicting the Performance of Women Entrepreneurs. The R^2 value of 0.459 indicates that approximately 45.9% of the variation in the performance of women entrepreneurs is explained by the independent variables included in the model. The adjusted R^2 value of 0.457, which shows only a marginal reduction after adjusting for the number of predictors, confirms the robustness and reliability of the model and suggests that the model is not overfitted.

This result implies that the explanatory variables, such as entrepreneurial resources and related factors, collectively make a meaningful contribution to explaining variations in women entrepreneurs' performance in the study area. An R^2 value of this magnitude can be considered moderate to substantial in social science research, indicating good explanatory power. However, the remaining 54.1% of unexplained variance suggests that other factors not captured in the model such as market conditions, personal motivation, government policies, technological adoption, and macroeconomic influences may also play important roles in shaping women entrepreneurs' performance.

These findings indicate that while entrepreneurial resources are a key determinant of women entrepreneurs' performance, future studies could incorporate additional variables to further enhance the explanatory power of the model and provide a more comprehensive understanding of performance outcomes.

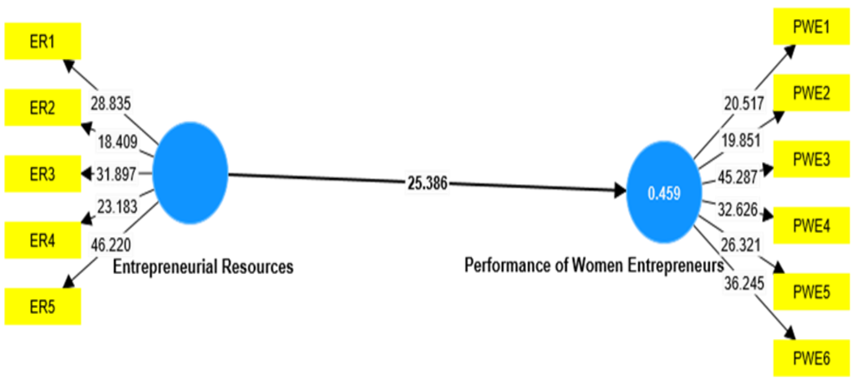

Figure 2. Structural Model

Table 5. Hypotheses test

Hyp	Construct	Beta	Standard deviation	T statistics	P values	Decision
HO	ER-> PWE	0.680	0.027	25.386	0.000	Rejected

Table 5 presents the results of the hypothesis testing for the relationship between Entrepreneurial Resources (ER) and the Performance of Women Entrepreneurs (PWE).

The path coefficient ($\beta = 0.680$) indicates a strong positive effect, suggesting that as access to entrepreneurial resources increases, the performance of women entrepreneurs also improves substantially. The T-statistic value of 25.386, which exceeds the critical value of 1.96, and the p-value of 0.000, which is well below the 0.05 significance level, demonstrate that this relationship is statistically significant.

These results lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis (H_0), confirming that entrepreneurial resources play a critical role in shaping the performance outcomes of women-owned enterprises in Zaria Local Government Area of Kaduna State. In practical terms, this finding implies that enhancements in key entrepreneurial resources such as financial capital, managerial and technical skills (human capital), and social networks can directly contribute to better business outcomes, including increased profitability, business growth, and sustainability.

The strong positive relationship observed aligns with prior studies (e.g., Brush, de Bruin, & Welter, 2009; Afolayan, Ogunlela, & Abodunde, 2021), which emphasize that entrepreneurial resources act as enablers, equipping women entrepreneurs with the tools and capabilities required to overcome structural challenges and compete effectively. Furthermore, the magnitude of the path coefficient underscores the critical importance of targeted interventions and policies that improve women's access to these resources. For instance, programs that facilitate credit access, entrepreneurial training, mentorship, and networking opportunities are likely to yield substantial gains in performance for women-owned businesses. These findings highlight the centrality of resource availability in enhancing women entrepreneurs' performance, reinforcing the argument that addressing resource gaps is key to promoting inclusive economic development and empowering women within the entrepreneurial ecosystem of Kaduna State.

3.1.2 Summary of Finding

The findings indicate a strong positive relationship between entrepreneurial resources and the performance of women entrepreneurs in the Zaria Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

This suggests that adequate access to and effective utilization of financial, human, and social capital significantly enhance the growth, productivity, and overall success of women-owned enterprises.

CONCLUSION

The study concludes that entrepreneurial resources play a crucial role in determining the performance of women entrepreneurs in the Zaria Local Government Area of Kaduna State. Adequate access to and effective utilization of financial, human, and social capital significantly contribute to business growth, productivity, and sustainability among women-owned enterprises. Enhancing these resources is therefore essential for promoting entrepreneurial success and advancing women's economic empowerment.

Recommendation

The study recommended that the Kaduna State Government, in collaboration with local financial institutions and entrepreneurship development agencies, establish targeted empowerment programs in Zaria Local Government Area to improve women entrepreneurs' access to financial support, skill development, and networking opportunities, thereby enhancing their business performance and sustainability.

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CHAPTER 4

DESIGNING REINTEGRATION POLICIES IN POST-WAR CONTEXTS: EDUCATION SYSTEMS, EMPLOYMENT MEASURES, AND REGIONAL RESILIENCE

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INTRODUCTION

Post-war recovery is not a purely technical or infrastructural process; rather, it is a deeply political and institutional endeavor that requires carefully designed public policies sensitive to the specific historical, social, and economic conditions of affected territories. Empirical evidence from multiple post-conflict contexts demonstrates that the long-term success or failure of reconstruction efforts largely depends on the strategic choices made during the early phases of recovery. Uniform or externally imposed policy models often fail to address local vulnerabilities, leading to persistent inequality, social fragmentation, and weakened institutional trust. Consequently, the selection of an appropriate reintegration and reconstruction policy framework becomes a decisive factor in shaping regional development trajectories in post-war environments.

Within this context, reintegration should be understood not merely as the physical return of territories or populations, but as a multidimensional process encompassing social, economic, institutional, and human dimensions (Rosamond, B., 2000, p.46-47). Contemporary Western European scholarship increasingly conceptualizes reintegration as a policy-driven effort aimed at restoring functional cohesion between individuals, communities, and state institutions. This approach emphasizes the necessity of aligning reintegration strategies with local capacities, demographic structures, and socio-cultural specificities (Hooghe, L., 2019). Failure to do so risks reproducing pre-war structural weaknesses or generating new forms of marginalization, particularly in regions already affected by displacement, educational disruption, and labor market exclusion.

A central pillar of effective reintegration policy design is the development of human resources, with education playing a pivotal role. Education systems in war-affected territories are often severely disrupted, resulting in long-term losses of human capital, reduced employability, and limited social mobility. These educational deficits extend far beyond immediate humanitarian concerns, exerting lasting influence on regional labor markets, productivity, and economic resilience.

Without targeted investment in education and skills development, post-war employment policies are likely to remain ineffective, as the workforce lacks the competencies required for sustainable economic recovery.

Moreover, education functions not only as a mechanism for human capital restoration but also as a foundation for social cohesion and institutional legitimacy. By enabling reintegration into formal labor markets and civic life, education contributes to rebuilding trust between citizens and public institutions. Therefore, designing reintegration policies that strategically integrate education systems with employment measures is essential for enhancing regional resilience and ensuring long-term stability. Our research argues that post-war recovery strategies must prioritize human-centered policy design, where education and workforce development are treated as core instruments of reintegration rather than auxiliary sectors of reconstruction.

1. EDUCATION GOVERNANCE IN POST-CONFLICT AND FROZEN-CONFLICT TERRITORIES: COMPARATIVE LESSONS

Comparative analysis of post-war and frozen-conflict territories demonstrates that prolonged crises in education governance represent a structural barrier to both territorial recovery and human resource development (Schaal, G. S., 2021). Across different post-conflict contexts, disruptions in education systems produce long-term effects that extend far beyond the education sector itself, shaping labor markets, institutional stability, and regional development trajectories. The experiences of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Transnistria, and Georgia illustrate how fragmented or non-integrated education policies hinder post-war reintegration and weaken regional resilience (British Institute …, 2020).

In Bosnia and Herzegovina, the post-Dayton institutional settlement formalized ethnically segregated education systems within a single state framework. Education governance was divided along ethnic lines, resulting in parallel curricula, administrative structures, and educational standards. Rather than serving as a mechanism for social reconciliation, education became a factor in preserving ethnic divisions and political fragmentation.

This institutional separation has contributed to uneven human capital formation, limiting labor mobility and reinforcing structural inequalities across regions.

The long-term consequences include persistent economic stagnation, limited productivity growth, and sustained outmigration of young and skilled individuals seeking education and employment opportunities abroad (Ilievski, N. L., 2015). As a result, the country's capacity for territorial recovery and sustainable development has been significantly constrained.

A comparable pattern can be observed in Transnistria, where the emergence of a de facto education system following the 1992 conflict has produced enduring challenges for both human resource development and regional integration. The lack of international recognition of educational institutions restricts academic cooperation, prevents diploma recognition, and isolates the region from international educational and labor markets . Graduates of local institutions face limited employment prospects beyond the territory, reducing incentives for skills investment and innovation. Furthermore, the absence of external quality assurance and monitoring mechanisms has contributed to governance deficits within the education sector, including declining educational standards and increased vulnerability to corruption (Cenusa, D., 2024). These dynamics have reinforced economic marginalization and weakened the region's long-term development potential.

Georgia's experiences in Abkhazia and South Ossetia further demonstrate how fragmented education systems impede post-war reintegration and territorial recovery. The establishment of separate, internationally unrecognized education systems under de facto authorities has restricted access to international funding, educational mobility, and academic exchange. These constraints have resulted in reduced educational attainment and limited opportunities for workforce development, producing a predominantly low-skilled labor force with restricted economic prospects. Educational fragmentation has also deepened social and institutional distance between the conflict-affected territories and the central government, complicating reintegration efforts and delaying the normalization of governance structures (Parliamentary Assembly of the CE, 2009).

Across these cases, common structural features can be identified: political isolation of education systems, fragmentation of governance frameworks, lack of international recognition of qualifications, restricted educational and labor mobility, and sustained human capital losses. These conditions collectively undermine post-war reconstruction by weakening the human resource base necessary for economic recovery and institutional consolidation. The absence of coherent and inclusive education policies not only delays reintegration but also reinforces regional disparities and social fragmentation.

Consequently, post-war recovery strategies must prioritize the restoration and integration of education systems as a core component of reintegration policy (British Institute …, 2020). Education should be treated as a strategic investment in human resources and territorial resilience, rather than as a secondary or auxiliary sector of reconstruction. Without addressing education governance and human capital development, territorial recovery remains fragile, and long-term reintegration objectives are unlikely to be achieved.

In the contemporary global environment, characterized by persistent instability, accelerating globalization, and intensifying integrative pressures, states are increasingly confronted with the challenge of identifying new factors capable of stabilizing socio-political relations and sustaining long-term development. The search for effective value-based and strategic frameworks of governance has become particularly urgent in contexts where national policy-making lacks coherence or strategic orientation, both domestically and externally. Under such conditions, the capacity of states to engage in anticipatory and adaptive strategic action emerges as a decisive determinant of resilience and recovery.

External military aggression, experienced by numerous states since the mid-twentieth century, has generated a complex set of methodological and practical contradictions that continue to shape contemporary debates on post-war governance. These contradictions require critical reassessment in terms of the effectiveness of political decision-making, as well as the formulation and implementation of public policies aimed at balancing integration processes with national interests and broader civilizational norms.

Armed conflicts, whether national, regional, or global, regardless of their specific triggers, including territorial control, linguistic dominance, religious identity, or cultural values, tend to produce a comparable configuration of structural challenges for societies and states (Marks, G., 2022). Among the most persistent of these challenges are population displacement, institutional disruption, and the erosion of social trust.

Internal and external migration has become one of the primary mechanisms through which societies attempt to localize and mitigate the consequences of war. However, displaced populations often remain insufficiently prepared for the socio-political transformations that accompany post-war reconstruction (Hiltz, J., 2023). This vulnerability is frequently exacerbated by the weakness, rigidity, or conservatism of state policies that fail to provide effective protection, inclusion, or long-term integration pathways for affected citizens. In such contexts, migration ceases to function as a stabilizing factor and instead becomes a source of prolonged social fragmentation and human capital loss (Spindelegger, M., 2021).

This tendency is particularly evident in the policy practices of many European states, where, under conditions of prolonged or large-scale military conflict, strategic priorities are often centered on the preservation of territorial integrity and institutional continuity. While such objectives are undoubtedly fundamental to state survival, they are frequently pursued at the expense of human-centered policy considerations (Cornett, A. P., 2023). As a result, citizens' interests (especially those related to education, employment, and social mobility) are relegated to a secondary position within post-war recovery agendas. This imbalance undermines the long-term sustainability of reconstruction efforts and weakens the foundations of reintegration.

Against this backdrop, the design of post-war reintegration policies requires a fundamental shift toward integrated, human-centered frameworks that recognize education and human resource development as core instruments of territorial recovery. Sustainable reconstruction cannot be achieved solely through physical rebuilding or administrative consolidation. Instead, it depends on the continuity of educational processes, the restoration of human capital, and the alignment of education systems with labor market and regional development strategies (Tavassoli Naini, M., 2011).

By embedding education and workforce development into the design of reintegration policies, states can enhance institutional legitimacy, reduce migration pressures, and foster resilient regional economies. Thus, the strategic integration of education policy, human resource development, and territorial reconstruction offers a viable pathway toward coherent, long-term post-war recovery and reintegration.

International recognition of education programs in conflict-affected territories plays a decisive role in mobilizing external support, financial resources, and institutional cooperation. Recognition enables access to international academic networks, donor funding, and labor market mobility, thereby transforming education from a humanitarian concern into a strategic instrument of post-war recovery (Piccolino, G., 2019). However, managing education systems in conditions of armed conflict or prolonged insecurity remains exceptionally complex. In such environments, education governance is often forced to prioritize immediate survival needs: physical safety, basic access, and emergency provision; over quality, continuity, and long-term development. Understanding these trade-offs is essential for addressing educational crises in conflict zones in a manner that supports sustainable reintegration rather than temporary stabilization (Spindelegger, M., 2021).

The crisis of education management in territories affected by military conflict significantly constrains human capital development. Quality education is a foundational prerequisite for enabling individuals to contribute productively to their communities and economies, particularly in post-war contexts where reconstruction depends on skilled labor, institutional capacity, and social cohesion (Tavassoli Naini, M., 2011), (Oliynyk, L., 2022). Human capital (understood as the aggregate of knowledge, competencies, and adaptive capacities of individuals) constitutes a critical driver of economic recovery and innovation. When education systems are disrupted or degraded by conflict, affected populations face long-term disadvantages in acquiring the skills necessary for rebuilding both physical infrastructure and institutional systems. In the absence of sustained investment in education quality, post-conflict regions risk entering cycles of underdevelopment characterized by low productivity, labor market exclusion, and outward migration.

Education governance in conflict zones is further complicated by structural constraints such as damaged infrastructure, limited financial resources, and persistent security threats. Educational institutions often become direct or indirect targets of violence, undermining their ability to function as stable social spaces. As a result, state and international actors frequently prioritize humanitarian assistance and emergency responses, while long-term education strategies are postponed or fragmented. Although such prioritization may be unavoidable in acute phases of conflict, prolonged neglect of education quality and governance generates cumulative negative effects. Balancing urgent humanitarian imperatives with the strategic necessity of preserving education systems remains one of the most enduring challenges of post-war policy-making.

The war in Ukraine exemplifies these dynamics but is not an isolated case within the European context. Several regions, including Bosnia and Herzegovina, Transnistria, and Georgia's conflict-affected territories, have experienced prolonged educational crises over multiple decades. These cases demonstrate that the deterioration of education systems in conflict environments produces long-term political and economic consequences that extend well beyond the cessation of hostilities. Fragmented education governance, lack of international recognition, and limited mobility of students and educators contribute to persistent regional disparities, weakened institutional trust, and delayed reintegration (European Commission, 2022, May 18).

In Ukraine, the educational crisis predates the full-scale invasion of 2022. Since 2014, the occupation of Crimea and parts of the Donetsk and Luhansk regions has resulted in the systematic isolation of educational institutions from national and international academic frameworks. Schools and universities in these territories have been deprived of access to international mobility programs, recognized qualifications, and global knowledge exchange. Diplomas issued by institutions operating under occupation often lack recognition, severely restricting graduates' employment prospects and further accelerating human capital loss (Ministry of Education, 2024, May 25). These conditions illustrate how education systems can become structurally detached from national development trajectories in prolonged conflict settings.

The full-scale war has dramatically intensified these challenges. A substantial proportion of Ukraine's educational infrastructure has been damaged or destroyed, with thousands of institutions affected and hundreds rendered completely inoperable. According to international assessments, the financial resources required to restore the educational sector reach tens of billions of dollars, underscoring the scale of the challenge (World Bank, 2024, February 15). Beyond physical destruction, the disruption of schooling has deeply affected children's and youth's access to education, the quality of learning, socialization processes, and integration into broader social and economic systems.

As of mid-2024, large numbers of Ukrainian students remain engaged in distance or hybrid learning formats, often for prolonged periods. While these modalities ensure a degree of educational continuity, they cannot fully replace face-to-face interaction, social development, and the formation of civic and professional identities (World Bank, 2024, RDNA3)). The prolonged absence of stable educational environments risks generating long-term deficits in social capital and workforce readiness. Moreover, the deliberate targeting of civilian infrastructure, including schools, kindergartens, and hospitals, has exacerbated humanitarian pressures and created conditions for enduring socio-economic instability in frontline and occupied territories.

Within this context, contemporary scholarly approaches to reintegration offer critical insights for policy design. Research on reintegration highlights the multidimensional nature of the process, emphasizing its dependence on a complex interaction of political, economic, social, and institutional factors. Reintegration is increasingly understood not as a singular event or administrative outcome, but as a prolonged and adaptive process aimed at restoring disrupted patterns of social life, institutional trust, and territorial cohesion (Pérez Ortega, M., 2022). This conceptual breadth necessitates a detailed examination of the conditions under which reintegration becomes viable, as well as the identification of shared and divergent factors shaping its outcomes across contexts.

Importantly, reintegration theory underscores the centrality of human-centered policies in addressing migration pressures, labor market dislocation, and social fragmentation.

Education occupies a strategic position within this framework, serving as both a mechanism of individual empowerment and a structural instrument for restoring societal continuity. The absence of coherent education policies undermines reintegration efforts by weakening human capital, intensifying migration flows, and disrupting the intergenerational transmission of skills and values. Effective post-war reintegration requires an integrated policy design that aligns education governance with human resource development and territorial reconstruction (USAID, 2013). Education systems must be treated not as peripheral sectors, but as core components of national reintegration strategies. Ensuring continuity of education, recognition of qualifications, and alignment with labor market needs creates the foundation for sustainable recovery. By embedding education into reintegration policy design, states can transform post-war reconstruction from a reactive process into a forward-looking strategy that restores territorial integrity, strengthens human capital, and enhances long-term regional resilience.

2. RETURN MIGRATION, TRANSITIONAL JUSTICE, AND EDUCATION-CENTERED POLICY DESIGN

Within contemporary reintegration scholarship, a conceptually significant contribution is offered by A. Cornett's approach, which reframes reintegration through the lens of population return and human-centered policy design. Cornett systematizes reintegration measures not as abstract institutional objectives, but as practical instruments facilitating the re-entry of citizens into a disrupted or lost social reality. In this perspective, reintegration is understood as a process of socio-economic stabilization grounded in the creation of conditions for rehabilitation, adaptation, and renewed participation of individuals in social and economic life following crisis-induced displacement (Cornett, A. P., 2023, p.260-265).

Importantly, Cornett conceptualizes reintegration as an underdeveloped and largely project-based phenomenon within postmodern governance. Its fragmented and often declarative nature reflects institutional attempts to manage shared territorial or population-related challenges without sufficiently accounting for the structural drivers of displacement and return.

As a result, many state-led reintegration initiatives remain symbolic rather than transformative, failing to address the actual conditions under which displaced populations might realistically return and reintegrate. This conceptual gap becomes particularly evident in cases of military aggression and territorial occupation, where states face the dual challenge of territorial loss and population displacement (Cornett, A. P., 2023, p. 268).

Cornett's critique highlights that conventional reintegration policies frequently overlook the lived realities of displaced populations, especially those residing in occupied or conflict-affected territories. When reintegration is framed primarily as a territorial or administrative objective, insufficient attention is paid to human security, social protection, and long-term socio-economic inclusion (Cornett, A. P., 2023, p. 270). This policy imbalance often leads to weakened state legitimacy, persistent insecurity, and the erosion of social guarantees for populations unable or unwilling to return under precarious conditions.

To address these limitations, Cornett advances the concept of return migration as a more analytically precise and policy-relevant category than reintegration. In a postmodern context characterized by fluid borders, hybrid governance arrangements, and intensified transnational mobility, return migration foregrounds the primacy of the individual rather than territory as the central unit of policy concern. From this standpoint, the strategic function of the state is not merely the preservation of material or territorial assets, but the creation of institutional conditions that expand human security and enable voluntary return.

Within this framework, return migration is positioned as a key policy instrument for restoring disrupted social systems and labor markets. Effective return policies require more than physical relocation; they demand structured pathways for re-entry into education systems, recognition of qualifications, access to employment, and opportunities for skills development (Williams, A. R., & Johnson, K. F., 2000). Education and human resource development thus emerge as critical mediating mechanisms between population return and territorial recovery. By ensuring continuity of education and facilitating the reintegration of human capital into national labor markets, states can transform return migration into a catalyst for regional reconstruction.

Cornett's emphasis on the "absolute value of human capital" (Cornett, A. P., 2023, p. 265-266) reorients reintegration policy toward an explicitly anthropocentric model of governance. In this model, the preservation and development of human resources precede(and ultimately enable) the restoration of territorial integrity. Education policy plays a decisive role in this process by equipping returnees with adaptive skills, supporting social mobility, and fostering civic attachment to the state. Investments in education and lifelong learning enhance the state's "technological sensitivity" to population return, which Cornett identifies as a strategic precondition for the recovery of lost territories (Cornett, A. P., 2023, p. 270), (Richmond, O. P., & Visoka, G., 2021, p.132-136).

From a policy design perspective, this approach suggests that territorial reintegration cannot be sustainably achieved through coercive or purely administrative means. Instead, it must be built upon the voluntary return of populations empowered by access to education, employment, and social protection. Human-centered education policies (integrated with labor market strategies and regional development plans) create the structural incentives necessary for return migration and long-term settlement (Özerdem, A., 2006, p.98). In this sense, education functions not only as a social right, but as a strategic governance tool linking population return to territorial resilience.

Overall, Cornett's conceptualization provides a valuable analytical foundation for rethinking reintegration policy in post-war contexts. By foregrounding return migration, human capital preservation, and education-led development, it offers a coherent framework through which states can align population-centered policies with the broader objectives of territorial recovery and post-conflict stabilization (Borodin, Ye., & Kalashnyk, N., 2020).

In post-war contexts, territorial reintegration cannot be reduced to administrative restoration or physical reconstruction alone. Sustainable reintegration requires addressing the legacies of violence, displacement, and institutional rupture through coherent policy frameworks that combine justice, human development, and social restoration. Within this framework, transitional justice provides a critical normative and operational foundation for designing education and human resource development policies that support long-term territorial recovery.

As articulated in the United Nations' approach, transitional justice encompasses a comprehensive set of judicial and non-judicial mechanisms aimed at accountability, reconciliation, and the prevention of renewed conflict (United Nations, 2010).

Education and human resource development occupy a central position within transitional justice due to their direct relationship with economic, social, and cultural rights. Armed conflict systematically undermines these rights through the destruction of educational infrastructure, exclusion from learning opportunities, and the fragmentation of professional trajectories. If left unaddressed, such violations translate into long-term deficits in human capital, weakened labor markets, and persistent migration pressures. Consequently, post-war education policy must be designed not merely as a sectoral intervention, but as a justice-sensitive instrument for restoring dignity, agency, and equal opportunity.

From a transitional justice perspective, education policies should first be aligned with the principle of victim-centeredness. Large segments of post-war populations (children, youth, displaced persons, veterans, and civilians who remained in occupied territories) have experienced education-related harm, including interrupted schooling, ideological distortion, or the non-recognition of qualifications. Reintegration-oriented education systems must therefore incorporate mechanisms for academic recognition, bridging programs, and psychosocial support that acknowledge these harms and enable equitable re-entry into national education and labor systems. Such measures correspond to the reparative dimension of transitional justice, which emphasizes redress not only through compensation but also through access to services, including education.

Second, transitional justice requires that education and human resource development policies contribute to guarantees of non-recurrence. This implies institutional reform within education governance, including curriculum revision, teacher retraining, and the introduction of human rights–based standards. Education systems that previously operated under occupation, authoritarian control, or militarized narratives must be transformed into institutions that promote critical thinking, civic competence, and respect for the rule of law.

In this sense, education becomes a preventive tool, reducing the likelihood that structural inequalities, misinformation, or exclusionary identities will reproduce conflict dynamics (United Nations, 2010).

Human resource development policies further extend the logic of transitional justice into the economic sphere. Reintegration processes often coincide with large-scale return migration, demobilization, and labor market restructuring. Without coordinated workforce policies, returnees risk marginalization, underemployment, or secondary migration. Transitional justice frameworks emphasize the importance of addressing economic and social rights violations, which includes access to employment and professional development (Basu, S., & Nunes, J., 2013). Skills recognition, requalification programs, and inclusive labor market policies thus serve as justice-oriented mechanisms that restore individuals' capacity to participate meaningfully in post-war economies.

Importantly, the United Nations approach underscores the need to situate transitional justice within national context and institutional capacity. Education and human resource policies should therefore be designed through broad consultations with affected communities, educators, employers, and civil society actors. Such participatory processes enhance policy legitimacy and ensure that interventions respond to actual reintegration needs rather than abstract reconstruction goals (United Nations, 2010). Moreover, coordination between education policy, labor market institutions, and broader rule-of-law reforms strengthens the overall architecture of post-war governance.

The integration of transitional justice into education and human resource development also supports territorial reintegration by re-establishing functional linkages between populations and the state. Education institutions often serve as the first stable public structures reintroduced into post-conflict territories (United Nations, 2010), (Piccolino, G.,2019). When these institutions embody principles of justice, inclusion, and rights protection, they reinforce trust in public authority and facilitate the reintegration of contested or formerly occupied regions into the national institutional space.

In sum, incorporating transitional justice into education and human resource development policies enables states to move beyond symbolic reintegration toward substantive recovery.

By addressing past violations, restoring human capital, and preventing future exclusion, justice-sensitive education and workforce policies become key drivers of return migration, social cohesion, and regional resilience. Such an approach transforms post-war reintegration into a forward-looking process grounded in human dignity, institutional reform, and sustainable territorial development.

In post-war contexts, education policy plays a decisive role in shaping the trajectory of territorial reintegration and the restoration of market-based economic relations. Beyond the reconstruction of physical infrastructure, education systems function as institutional bridges between justice, social recovery, and economic revitalization. When aligned with the principles of transitional justice, education becomes a strategic mechanism for restoring human capital, enabling return migration, and re-establishing trust between citizens and the state. However, international experience demonstrates that post-war education policies may follow divergent paths, producing fundamentally different outcomes for human resource development and regional resilience.

An optimistic scenario, exemplified by post-war Germany, is characterized by the deliberate integration of education policy into a comprehensive transitional justice framework. In this model, education is not treated as a neutral service sector but as a rights-based instrument of social transformation. Transitional justice principles – truth, reparations, institutional reform, victim-centeredness, and guarantees of non-recurrence – are embedded directly into education governance and human resource development strategies (Federal Government of Germany, 2019).

Educational reforms include curriculum revision that addresses historical injustices and promotes civic responsibility, thereby operationalizing the right to truth within formal learning environments. At the same time, targeted educational reparations, such as scholarships, retraining programs, and lifelong learning opportunities, function as mechanisms of rehabilitation for conflict-affected populations. Crucially, this scenario emphasizes institutional reform within education systems themselves.

Transparent governance, merit-based recruitment, and human-rights-oriented training for educators and administrators serve as guarantees of non-recurrence by preventing the reproduction of exclusionary or politicized practices. Education policy is closely coordinated with labor market institutions, social protection systems, and regional development strategies, ensuring that learning outcomes translate into employability and entrepreneurship. This interministerial and intersectoral coordination, strongly emphasized in German post-conflict and post-authoritarian practice, reinforces the legitimacy of the state and accelerates return migration by creating credible prospects for social mobility and economic participation (Federal Government of Germany, 2019). In such a scenario, education becomes the backbone of human capital recovery and a catalyst for sustainable territorial reintegration.

By contrast, a pessimistic scenario, observed in cases such as Abkhazia or Bosnia and Herzegovina, illustrates how fragmented education policies can undermine both transitional justice and economic reintegration. In these contexts, education systems often become segmented along political, ethnic, or administrative lines, resulting in parallel curricula, unequal standards, and limited recognition of qualifications (Calic, M.-J.,2014). Transitional justice mechanisms, if present, tend to be partial or declarative, focusing narrowly on symbolic reconciliation or selective accountability while neglecting socio-economic and cultural rights. The absence of a comprehensive justice framework weakens education's capacity to function as a reparative or integrative institution.

Under such conditions, education fails to support labor market integration and instead reinforces social divisions. Graduates face restricted mobility, both geographically and professionally, while young people increasingly pursue opportunities abroad, accelerating human capital depletion. The lack of victim-centered educational measures, such as bridging programs, psychosocial support, or recognition of disrupted learning trajectories, further marginalizes conflict-affected groups. Institutional reforms within education governance are often postponed or politicized, undermining trust in public institutions and eroding the credibility of reintegration policies.

As emphasized in United Nations guidance (United Nations, 2010), transitional justice that is disconnected from social services and economic recovery risks reproducing instability rather than preventing it. In this scenario, territorial reintegration remains "frozen," (Visoka, G., & Musliu, V., 2019) and market integration occurs unevenly or not at all.

Between these two extremes lies a pragmatic or acceptable scenario, which may be particularly relevant for states facing severe resource constraints or prolonged insecurity. In this model, education policy does not fully realize the transformative potential of transitional justice, yet it adheres to its core principles sufficiently to enable functional reintegration. The focus shifts toward targeted, cost-effective interventions that prioritize continuity of education and employability. Rather than comprehensive reparations, educational support is directed toward the most affected groups (children, youth, displaced persons, and returning migrants) through modular training programs, recognition of prior learning, and short-cycle professional education aligned with reconstruction needs.

Within this scenario, transitional justice is operationalized through minimum standards: non-discrimination, inclusion of victims, participatory policy design, and basic institutional reform. Education governance reforms aim to ensure transparency and quality assurance, even if broader structural transformations proceed gradually. Truth-related measures are incorporated into education in a depoliticized and conflict-sensitive manner, emphasizing shared civic values and future-oriented narratives rather than contested historical interpretations. Coordination with labor market policies remains selective but strategic, focusing on sectors critical for post-war recovery, such as construction, public services, education, and healthcare.

While this pragmatic approach may not immediately reverse migration trends or fully restore social trust, it can stabilize human capital and create incremental incentives for return migration. Importantly, it preserves the institutional link between education, justice, and economic participation, preventing further erosion of state capacity. As noted in international transitional justice practice, even limited but well-coordinated measures can generate cumulative effects when grounded in local ownership and realistic policy sequencing.

Across all three scenarios, a common conclusion emerges: the success of post-war territorial reintegration depends less on the speed of physical reconstruction than on the strategic design of education and human resource development policies within a transitional justice framework. Education systems that acknowledge past harms, restore rights, and align learning with economic opportunities create the conditions for voluntary return, social cohesion, and market integration. Conversely, education policies that ignore justice considerations risk entrenching divisions and perpetuating economic marginalization.

Thus, post-war education policy should be understood as a central pillar of reintegration strategy rather than a secondary component of recovery. By embedding transitional justice principles into education governance and human capital development, states can transform post-war uncertainty into a pathway toward resilient territories, inclusive economies, and sustainable peace.

Wewant to demonstrate that post-war territorial reintegration cannot be achieved through infrastructural reconstruction or administrative normalization alone. Instead, sustainable recovery depends on the strategic design of education policies that are deeply integrated with human resource development, return migration frameworks, and economic revitalization strategies. Education emerges not as an auxiliary sector of post-war recovery, but as a foundational institution through which social trust, institutional legitimacy, and long-term economic capacity are restored.

3. INSTITUTIONAL CAPACITY AND INTEGRATED GOVERNANCE FOR SUSTAINABLE REINTEGRATION

Education emerges not as an auxiliary sector of post-war recovery, but as a foundational institution through which social trust, institutional legitimacy, and long-term economic capacity are restored.

First, education policy plays a decisive role in stabilizing post-war societies by ensuring continuity of learning, restoring access to knowledge, and addressing educational losses caused by conflict (United Nations, 2010). Where education systems are reconstructed in isolation from broader justice and governance reforms, their capacity to contribute to reintegration remains limited.

Conversely, education policies embedded within peacebuilding and transitional justice frameworks function as instruments for restoring rights, addressing past harms, and preventing the recurrence of violence. Through curriculum reform, inclusive governance, and recognition of disrupted educational trajectories, education systems become spaces of reconciliation and civic renewal rather than sites of fragmentation.

Second, education constitutes the structural foundation of human resource development in post-war contexts. Human capital recovery requires more than short-term training initiatives; it demands coherent education systems capable of translating learning into employability, innovation, and institutional capacity (Langer, A., & Brown, G. K., 2016). When education policy is aligned with labor market needs and regional development priorities, it enables individuals to participate meaningfully in reconstruction processes, supports entrepreneurship, and strengthens state capacity. Education-driven skill formation thus represents the principal mechanism through which post-war societies convert demographic recovery into sustainable economic growth.

Third, education plays a central role in enabling return migration and mitigating long-term population loss. Voluntary return is unlikely in the absence of credible prospects for education, professional advancement, and social mobility. Post-war education systems that ensure qualification recognition, provide bridging and requalification programs, and offer psychosocial support create tangible incentives for displaced populations to return (Langer, A., & Brown, G. K., 2016). By reintegrating returnees into national education and labor systems, states restore their human capital base and reinforce territorial cohesion.

Fourth, the interdependence between education and economic reconstruction underscores the necessity of integrated policy design. Education systems supply the skilled workforce required for rebuilding infrastructure, restoring public services, and modernizing post-war economies. When education policies are coordinated with industrial, employment, innovation, and regional development strategies, they enhance productivity and competitiveness. Conversely, neglecting education undermines economic recovery by perpetuating skills mismatches, labor shortages, and dependence on external assistance.

Fifth, the success of education-led reintegration policies critically depends on the capacity of the public administration as a whole. The implementation of post-war recovery strategies cannot be confined to ministries or agencies responsible for education alone. All public servants (across central, regional, and local levels of governance) must be systematically prepared to understand, support, and operationalize education-centered reintegration policies (Darby, J., & Mac Ginty, R., 2003). This includes officials working in public finance, social protection, labor, regional development, justice, security, and local self-government. Without a shared conceptual understanding of peacebuilding, transitional justice, and human capital development, education policies risk being fragmented, inconsistently applied, or undermined during implementation.

Accordingly, comprehensive capacity-building for public servants becomes a prerequisite for effective post-war recovery. Training programs should equip officials with competencies in transitional justice principles, conflict-sensitive governance, rights-based policy design, and intersectoral coordination (Kalashnyk, N., et al.,2024). Such cross-cutting professional preparation enables public administrations to translate strategic policy frameworks into coherent administrative practice, ensuring that education-led reintegration measures are reinforced rather than diluted across governance levels.

CONCLUSION

Finally, the effectiveness of post-war education policy is significantly enhanced when grounded in the principles of peacebuilding and transitional justice. Transitional justice provides the normative framework for addressing past violations, restoring dignity, and guaranteeing non-recurrence, while peacebuilding emphasizes inclusive governance, social cohesion, and institutional resilience. Education systems that reflect these principles contribute to rebuilding trust between citizens and the state and to fostering a shared vision of the future.

In conclusion, education policy occupies a pivotal position in post-war reintegration strategies. Its organic integration with human resource development, return migration, economic reconstruction, and justice-oriented governance (supported by a professionally prepared public service at all levels) determines whether post-war societies merely survive or achieve sustainable, inclusive, and resilient development.

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