

# Equipment, Accessibility and Productivity of Security Organizations in Nigeria

Ukwayi, J.K.<sup>1</sup>, Agba, A. M. Ogaboh<sup>2</sup> & Agba, M. S<sup>3</sup>.

*Lecturers<sup>1&2</sup> Department of Sociology and <sup>3</sup>Department of Public Administration, University of Calabar, Nigeria*

**Abstract:-**The concern of this study is on the effect of equipment and its accessibility on the performance of security organizations in Nigeria with particular reference to the Niger Delta region. The study specifically examines how crime prevention equipment, and arms/ammunition influence the effectiveness of private and public security outfits in the Niger Delta region. Information was gathered using open and closed ended questionnaire from 1200 participants selected from the region. Data were subjected to statistical analysis and presented for easy interpretations in tables, per cent and charts. Result shows that availability of security equipment and security personnel access to working tools significantly affect the performance of security organizations in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. We recommended among others urgent provision of security apparatus to security organizations through public-private partnership; and that security organizations should be granted guided and good access equipment available in their organizations.

**Keywords:** Equipment, accessibility, productivity, security organizations.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Security remains a high profile challenge in Nigeria. The country more than ever before is characterized by high level of social disorder, robbery, kidnapping, terrorism, and assassination. This phenomenon is gaining momentum daily as increasing number of Nigerians continue to die from social upheavals which ordinarily could have been stopped by security operatives. This situation has attracted many concerns in and outside the country. Consequently, government at various times has tried to address this challenges through enhanced salaries, trainings of the Nigeria police officials, immigration, civil defence, military, and custom. Government is also encouraging through her policies the establishment of private security organizations to check the security challenges in the country (Agba, Eteng & Titus, 2017; Ukwayi, Okpa, Adewoyin, Angioha & Udom, 2017).

The failure of the police and other security bodies to check the rising chain of crime has been impugned on inadequate working tools, which mostly branded most government establishment and some private organizations in the country. Annals also shows that the fundamental problem with security organisations in Nigeria is not the existence of, but the inadequate use of security equipment. These growths has impacted negatively on the operational efficiency and morale

of officers in public and private security organizations. The want of government aggressive approach towards equipping security organisations in the country is not unrelated to inadequate empirical facts from weathered research. The gulf in opinion on the security condition in the country suggests that more evidences and brainy information are needed to kerb these upheavals and this can only be accomplished through well-structured first-hand investigation. It is therefore apparent that the available flimsy and outmoded information is waning government in strategic security planning and policy formation. This study is pose to bridge this empirical gap and spawn concrete gen on the state security of equipment, usage and the efficacy of security outfits in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

## II. STUDY AREA

This study is carried out in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. The region is located in Southern part of Nigeria and it occupies approximately an area of 112, 110 km<sup>2</sup>, which represent 12 per cent of the country's total surface land mass (see Table 1) (FRN, n.d). The region is bordered to the South by the Atlantic Ocean and to the South by Republic of Cameroon (Hogan, 2013). The Niger Delta region lies between latitude 4 and 6 north of the Equator and 4 and 8 East of the Greenwich (Eyinla & Ukpo, 2006; Afinotan & Ojakorotu, 2009; Agba, Eteng & Titus, 2017). It consists of nine states including Abia, Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Cross River, Delta, Edo, Imo, Ondo and Rivers.

The states with the largest land mass respectfully are Cross River, Edo, Delta and Ondo. The the Niger Delta region has a population of 39,157,000 with the states of Rivers, Delta, Akwalbom, Imo and Abia having the highest population respectively (See Table 1).The statesof the region into senatorial, federal and state constituencies, local government areas and council wards for administrative convenience. The states are administered each by a governor with assistance from the deputy governor. The Senator represents each senatorial district at the national assembly and this runs across to the local and ward levels.

Table 1  
Demographic and land areas of the Niger Delta States

State	Land area	2015 Projected population	Capital
Abia	4,877	4,383,000	Umuahia
Akwalbom	6,806	4,537,000	Uyo
Bayelsa	11,007	2,320,000	Yenagoa
Cross River	21,930	3,712,000	Calabar
Delta	17,163	4,877,000	Asaba
Edo	19,698	4,096,000	Benin
Imo	5,165	4,535,000	Owerri
Ondo	15,086	4,105,000	Akure
Rivers	10,378	6,592,000	Port-Harcourt
<b>Total</b>	<b>112,110</b>	<b>39,157,000</b>	

Sources: FRN (nd.) Niger Delta Regional Development Master Plan; GTZ projections (2004) based on National Population Commission Data.

The region is the economic nerves of the country accounting for over 90 per cent of the total foreign exchange income of the nation. The region has the largest deposit of gas and a home huge oil and gas multinational companies. Oil and gas multinationals in the Niger Delta region include Agip, Exxon Mobil, Chevron-Texaco, Total, FinalElf, Shell Petroleum Development Company (SPDC), Liquefied Natural Gas (LNG), Shell Gas, CLEAG a subsidiary of Elf, and Agip Gas. Farming constitutes another major economic activity in the region. A number of household produce livestock such as goats, sheep, poultry, grass-cutter, rabbits, pigs, etc. The huge economic activities in the Niger Delta region are not without damaging consequences on the physical and social environments. It is largely responsible for unemployment among farmers whose lands have been polluted because of oil spillage (Okonata & Douglas, 2003; Obi & Rustad, 2011).

Increase in migrants from different countries into the Niger Delta region comes with crimes such as robbery, kidnapping, and cyber-crimes. This situation occasioned the formation of a number of security task force, private security organisations among others. Despite government and private efforts to address the upheavals in the Niger Delta, the region is still bedevilled with crises. The concern of this study therefore is to unearth what is rendering security organisations in the region ineffective; with specific reference to the effect of crime prevention and arms/ammunition equipment on the operational effectiveness of private and public security outfits in the Niger Delta region.

### III. METHODOLOGY

Survey method which allows for the use of structured and closed ended questionnaire (Ntamu, Eneji, Edinyang & Omang, 2013; Hien, Jin & Omang, 2013; Omang, Yonggong, Chris-Valentine, Eneji, 2012) was utilized in this study. The instrument was designed to capture major variables such as

security equipment and its accessibility, the performance of security organizations in Nigeria with particular reference to the Niger Delta region. The instrument specifically gathered information on how crime prevention equipment, and arms/ammunition affect the effectiveness of private and public security organizations in Nigeria.

Participants for this study were sampled from the Niger Delta region. Two states were selected out of the region-Akwalbom and Cross River States. A total of 1120 respondents were selected; 560 participants were selected from each of the states. Information gathered was coded and analysed using SPSS and results were presented in tables and charts.

### IV. THEORETICAL SURVEY

This study utilized the goal-setting theory of performance.

#### (i) Goal-setting theory of performance

Goal-setting theory of performance has its origin from the works of Peter Drucker on *management by objective*, published in 1954. The theory was redeveloped and publicised by Edwin Locke and Garry Latham in 1986, 1990, and in 2004 (Brown, 2007). The theory holds that, for performance to increase at individual and organisational levels, tasks should be split into number of specific objectives, goals, or interests (Locke, 1968, 2004; Locke & Latham, 1990).

The theory is based on the assumption that setting individual's challenging and specific goals urges workers to bring out their best at workplace (Latham, 2004). This suggests that security officials in the Niger Delta if given the right tools and challenging tasks can perform better than ever. It further suggests that if worker's/security officials are given the right working tools, without setting goals for them, their output will be insignificant.

### V. LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Vanscotter, Motowidlo and Cross (2000), Agba and Ushie (2014) organisational goals attainment is dependent on: highly performing workers or individuals. Kanfer (1990) posit that institutional performance is behavioural or actions of individuals that leads to acceptable outcome in the organisation. This suggests that what individual security officer does in work situation given the right working tools is highly significant in achieving optimal performance in the organisation. Thus, Campbell, et al., (1993) define institutional performance as what the organisation hires an employee/security official to do, and "do well". It implies that institutional performance is measurable, can be sealed, evaluated and subject to judgemental processes.

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) argue that performance is a multidimensional concept that includes two major variables - task and contextual performance. The former deals with the proficiency with which a worker or security officer carries out or performs his or her activities, which significantly

contribute to the organisations “technical core”. While the later describes workers’ activities, which do not necessary contribute to the “technical core” but supports the social and psychological environment that enables the organisation to achieve its set goals. It suggests that proficiency is essential ingredient to individual and organisational performance. It means that, a security officer who is well equipped with sophisticated tools may still not be able to boost his/her organisation’s performance because of lack of professional skills or experience.

The associates between working tools, employees, and institutional output are great (Agba & Ushie, 2014). The level of technology use in any establishment meaningfully affect the quality of production (Dauda & Akingbade, 2011). Organisational productivity is influence by the systematic application of working tools. Working equipment includes machine, information and communication technology (ICT), software, surveillance camera, and computers which enables task accomplishment in formal organisations (Khalil, 2000, Agba, Attah, & Ebong, 2015). Dauda and Akingbade (2011) posit that employees of different groups have benefited from internet and multimedia working equipment, which provide technical solution to their individual and organisational challenges as well as increase productivity.

Office equipment are vital in maintaining comfortable, safe and supportive work environment that enhances productivity (Parveen, Sohail, Naeem, Azhar & Khan, 2014). According to Carnevale (1992) posit that better working tools boost employees’ and final productivity of the organisation. Keeling and Kallaus (1996) posit that selecting and using proper working tools importantly enhances employees’ and institutional performance. The effectiveness of business organisations depends on the availability of working tools, skills and competencies of working (Akpomi & Ordu, 2009). This suggests that employees and organisational performance is a function of working tools and technology. Edwin (2008) observe that exposure to modern technology makes work much easier for the employees. Osuala (2004) posit that working tools makes a hardworking employee more productive.

Leblebici (2012) argue that workplace physical environment or conditions influence both employee and organisational performance. The workplace physical environment here includes all working tools or equipment that supports task accomplishment and enhances efficiency at all levels in the organisation. According to Ryan and Deci (2000) observe that most executives across the world are under the mistaken impression that employees’ compensation package which has limited short-term effect on the worker increases performance. Rather a wider and more acceptable assumption is that workplace physical environment, that is, the availability and use of proper working tools motivate employees’ better and produces high level of performance in the organisation.

Advance working tools makes workers more effective and the organisation more efficient. It has enormous influence on employees and organisational performance (Nohria & Gulati, 1996; Laules & Anderson, 1996; Li & Deng, 1999; Agba & Ushie, 2010). Similarly, Abbas, Muzaffar. Mohmood, Ramzan, and Rizvi (2014) posit that technology or working tools has fundamental importance in service delivery in organisations especially financial institutions. According to Kim and Davidson (2004), expenses on advanced working tools increases productivity of workers as well as market share of banking organisations. Gagnon and Dragon (2012) posit that working tools significantly penetrate government and private sectors and is importantly a major force in performance enhancement in these establishments.

#### *Accessibility of working tools and institutional performance*

Availability and acceptance of improved working tools is pivotal to institutional performance. Availability of advanced working tools or technology alone is not a prediction for enhance job performance. That is, workers must accept available tools as a precaution for their performance (Hasan & Hadzar, 2010). This is because not all workers can adjust to modern working tools that require training (Gallivan, 2004). Change in working tools is an inevitable and inalienable part of organisational life. These changes are important contributing fact to organisational dynamics. It also informed workflow amongst workers in public and private organisations across the world (Morgan, 2001; Bameth, 2005; Ramlah, Nor Shahriza & MohdHasan 2007; Ushie, Agba, Ingwe & Igbaji, 2015).

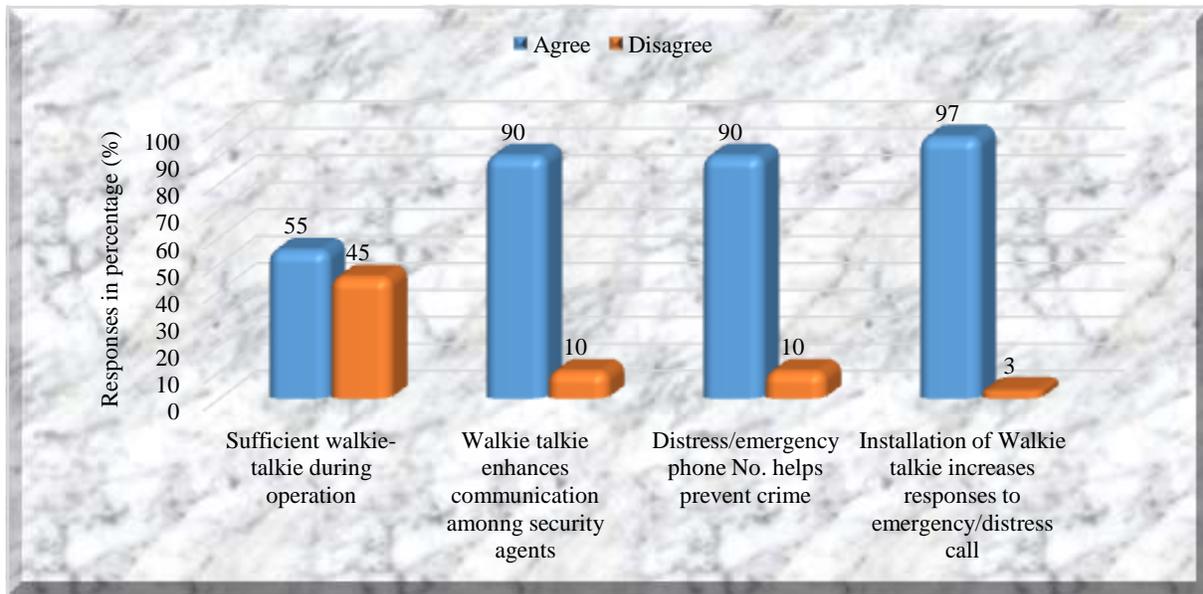
Acceptability is important in selecting working equipment for employees. Acceptability the function of “ease of use,” and “perceived usefulness” (Davis, 1989). An employee who views a given working tool as difficult technology to work with, will not support not support it use at workplace. This may also affect the employee’s efficiency if forced to use it. Perceived usefulness is also an important determinant of working tool deployment at workplace. An employee who perceived that a given working tool is important to the productivity of the organization will more desirous to use it.

## VI. FINDINGS

#### *Crime prevention equipment and institutional performance*

The study showed that 90% of respondents agreed that walkie-talkie enhances communication among security agents. Again, 90% of the participants agreed that walkie-talkie enable them respond to emergency as well as help them prevent crime. More so, 97% agreed that installation of walkie-talkie increases responses to emergency/distress call (see Fig. 11).

Fig 11: Prevention of crime

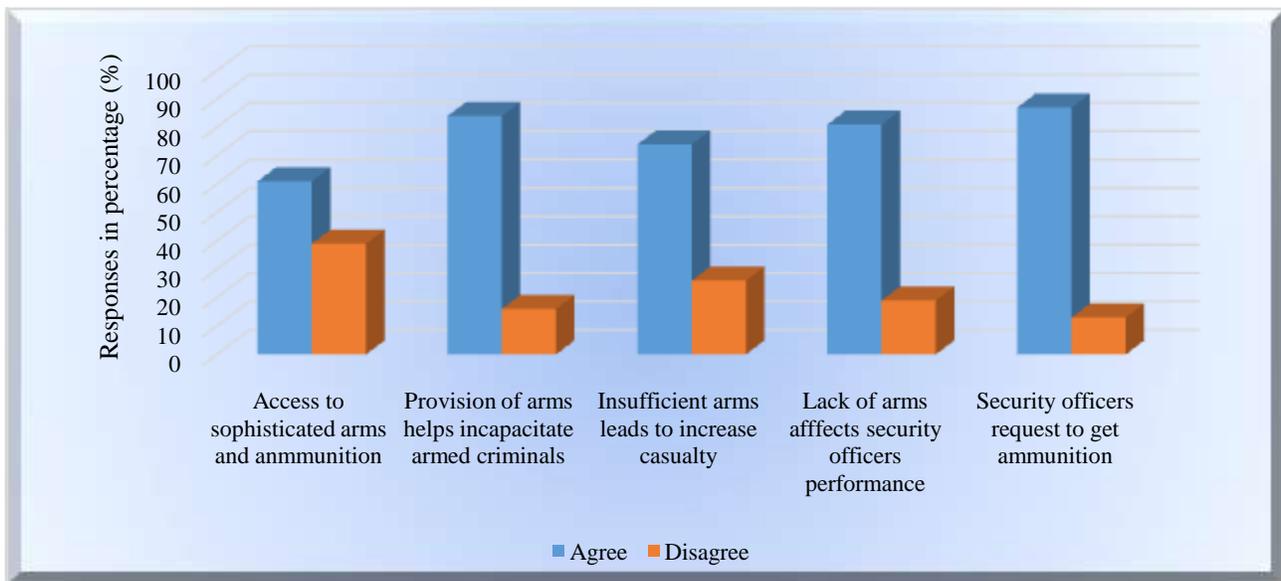


*Arms/ammunition and arrest of offenders*

Findings revealed that over 58% of respondents agreed that they have access to sophisticated arms and ammunition. Eighty percent (80%) posits that the provision of arms and

ammunition helps in incapacitating armed criminals during operations. While over 70% agreed that lack of insufficient arms leads to increase casualty and negatively affect officers' performance (see Fig. 12).

Fig 12: Arrest of offenders



*Discussion of findings*

The links between crime prevention equipment and the performance of private and public outfits in Niger Delta region of Nigeria was established. The study revealed that working tools such as walkie-talkie enhances security operatives' response to emergencies and distress calls. It

showed that public and private security organisations with adequate walkie-talkie were more effective in crime prevention than those without. According to Leblebia (2012), workplace equipment influence both employees' and organisational output. Working tools supports task accomplishment and enhances productivity at all levels in the organisation.

According to Ryan and Deci (2000), although employee compensation increases performance, more vital in this regards is the availability and use of proper office equipment. This suggests that, security personnel should not only be motivated through monetary incentives, but by providing adequate working tools. Similarly, Hampel and Martinsons (2009) observe that advancement in working tools has continued to accelerate the frontier of performance in formal organisations including security outfits. In the same vein, Imran, Maqbool and Shafique (2004) posit that competition and advanced working tools enhances the performance of organisations across the world.

Morgan (2001), Barneth (2005), Ramlah, Norshahriza, and MohdHasan (2007) argued that change in working tools are important contributing factor to organisational dynamics; and this informs work-low among workers and enhances productivity at all levels. Hennessey (1998) argue that, apart from working tools, leadership style, organisational policies, beliefs shared among workers influences output of establishment across the world.

The study revealed that arms/ammunition helps security operatives arrest suspects. Sophisticated arm/ammunition reduces casualties during suspect arrests. The study also showed that arms helps in incapacitating armed criminals during operations, thereby improving the performance of both private and public security outfits. This finding stresses the links between working tools and institutional performance. According to Nohria and Gulati (1996); Li and Deng (1999), advanced tools makes employees more effective and their establishments more efficient. Working tools enormously propels employees and institutional performance.

Similarly, Abbas, Muzaffar, Mohmood, Ramzan and Rizvi (2014) posit that working tools are fundamental in service delivery in formal organisations. Kim and Davidson (2004) observe that working tools increase workers' productivity as well as boosts the overall performance of the organisation. Gagnon and Dragon (2012) argue that office equipment are important major force in enhancing the performance of private and public institutions.

However, the importance of other factors in institutional performance should not be played down. According to Rainey (1997), human capital and capacity are vital to organisational performance. Similarly, Gore (1993) posit that organisational policy is important driver to enhance performance. Again, Brewes, Seldon and Facer (2000) observe that organisational structure, public motivation and workers' performance are essential in promoting institutional output.

## VII. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study examined the effect of equipment and its accessibility by officials on the performance of security organizations in Nigeria. The study particularly investigated how crime prevention equipment, and arms/ammunition influence the effectiveness of private and public security

outfits in the Niger Delta region. The findings of the study was revealing, it shows availability of security equipment, and security personnel access to working tools importantly affect the performance of security organizations in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. This suggests that working tools are essential ingredients to organizational effectiveness. It means that an organization that wants to increase performance must address critical equipment that make productivity possible. We therefore recommended the urgent provision of security apparatus to security organizations through public-private partnership; and that security organizations should be granted guided and good access equipment available in their organizations. Workers especially security personnel should be trained on how to use new equipment introduced into the organization.

Crime prevention equipment and institutional performance, arms/ammunition and arrest of offenders

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We strongly acknowledged the Federal Government of Nigeria through its agencies -Tetfund and the University of Calabar for sponsoring this study. The contributions of other team members whose names for want of space could not be listed at the front page of this publication and at the proposal stage is warmly appreciated. They include John T. Okpa, Dr Steve Odey, Mr Pius Angioha, Dr Achoda Thomas Omang, Assoc. Prof. Edinyang S. David, Miss Hannah Udom, Alice Apejoye, and Miss Obasisam Ikpi.

## REFERENCES

- [1]. Afinotan, L. A. & Ojajorotu, V. (2009). The Niger Delta crisis: Issues, challenges and prospects. *African Journal of Political Science and International Relations*, 3(5), 191-198.
- [2]. Agba, A. O. M. & Ushie, E. M. (2010). Managing Employee-employer Relations for increased Industrial Peace and Harmony in the Workplace. *Labour Law Review: Nigerian Journal of Labour Law and Industrial Relations*, 4(2), 73-83.
- [3]. Agba, A.M. O, Eteng, F.O. & Titus, T. C. (2017). Effect of Workplace Gossip on Work-Relations and Organizational Performance. *Kuwait Chapter of Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review* 33 (81)1-12.
- [4]. Agba, A.M. O, Attah, F.M. & Ebong, E. (2015). Enhancing the operational effectiveness of cooperative organizations for sustainable job creation in Nigeria. *International Journal of Public Administration and Management Research*, 2 (5)95-100.
- [5]. Akpomi, M. & Ordu, P. (2009). Modern office technology and the secretary's productivity in private business organisations. *African Journal of Business Management*, 3(3), 333-339.
- [6]. Borman, W. C. & Motowidlo, D. A. (1993). Task performance and contextual performance: The meaning for personnel selection research. *Human Performance*, 10, 99-109.
- [7]. Brown, A. (2007). Measuring the performance of England's primary school teachers: Purposes, theory, problems and tensions. In A. Neely (ed.), *Business performance measurement: unifying theory and integrating practice* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.), Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [8]. Campbell, J.P., McCloy, R. A., Oppler, S. H. & Sager, C. E. (1993). A theory of performance. In E. Schmitt, W. C. & Associates (eds.), *Personnel selection in organisations* (pp. 35-70). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- [9]. Carnevale, D. G (1992). Physical setting of work. *Public Productivity and Management Review*, 15, 423-436.
- [10]. Dauda, Y. A. & Akingbade, W. A. (2011). Technological change and employee performance in selected manufacturing industry in Lagos State of Nigeria. *Australian Journal of Business and Management Research*, 1(5), 32-43.
- [11]. Davis, F. D. (1989). Perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and user acceptance of information technology. *MIS Quarterly*, 13(3), 319-340.
- [12]. Eyinla, P. & Ukpo, J. (2006). *Nigeria: The travesty of oil and gas wealth*. Lagos: The Catholic Secretariat of Nigeria.
- [13]. FRN (n.d). Niger Delta regional development master plan. Online available at: [www.nddc.gov.ng/NDRMP\\_per\\_cent20Chapter\\_per\\_cent201.pdf](http://www.nddc.gov.ng/NDRMP_per_cent20Chapter_per_cent201.pdf). Retrieved 15/8/16.
- [14]. Gagnon, Y. & Dragon, J. (2012). The impact of technology on organisational performance. *The Journal of Public Sector Management*, 28(1), 19-31.
- [15]. Gore, A. (1993). *From red tape to results: Creating a government that works better and costs less*. Report of the National Performance Review. Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office.
- [16]. Hampel, P. S. & Martinsons, M. G. (2009). Developing international organisational change: Theory using cases from China. *Haman Relations*, 62(4), 459-499.
- [17]. Hasan, H. & Nadzar, F. H. M. (2010). Acceptance of technological changes and job performance among administrative support personnel in the government offices in Maran, Pahang Durul Makmur. *Gading Business and Management Journal*, 14, 21-32.
- [18]. Hennessey, J. T. (1998). Reinventing government: Does leadership make a difference? *Public Administration Review*, 58, 522-532.
- [19]. Hien, N.G. X., Jin, L.S. & Omang, T.A. (2013). Payment for Forest Environment Services: Experience and Lessons from Vietnam. *Journal of Agriculture, Biotechnology and Ecology*, 6 (1).
- [20]. Hogan, C. M. (2013). Niger River. In M McGinley (ed.), *Encyclopaedia of earth*. Washington, DC. National Council for Science and Environment.
- [21]. Imran, M., Maqbool, N. & Shafique, H. (2014). Impact of technological advancement on employee performance in banking sector. *International Journal of Human Resource studies*, 4(1), 57-70.
- [22]. Kanfer, (1990). Work motivation: New direction in theory and research. In C. L. Copper & I. T. Robertson (eds.), *International review of industrial and organisational psychology* (Vol. 7, pp. 1-53). Chichester: Wiley.
- [23]. Keeling, B. L. & Kallaus, N. F. (1996). *Administrative office management* (11<sup>th</sup>ed.). Ohio: International Thompson Publishing.
- [24]. Khalil, T. (2000). *Management of technology. The key to competitiveness and wealth creation*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- [25]. Latham, G. P. (2004). Motivate employee performance through goal-setting. In E. A. Locke (ed.), *The Blackwell handbook of principles of organisational behaviour*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- [26]. Lawless, M. W. & Anderson, P. C. (1996). Generational technological change: Effects of innovation and local rivalry on performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 1185-1217.
- [27]. Lebars, M. & Euske, K. (2006). *A conceptual and operational delineation of performance. Business Performance Measurement*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [28]. Li, Y. & Deng, S. L. (1999). A methodology for competitive advantage analysis and strategy formulation: an example n transitional economy. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 118 259-270
- [29]. Locke, E. A. & Latham, G. P. (1990). *A theory of goal setting and task performance*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- [30]. Morgan, J. M. (2001). Are we out of the box yet? A case study of change. *Communication Studies*, 52, 85-102.
- [31]. Nohria, N. & Gulati, R. (1996). Is slack good or bad for innovation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 245-264.
- [32]. Ntamu, G. U., Eneji, S.D., Edinyang, C.V.O. & Omang, T.A. (2013). Religion! A course or blessing for national integration and development in Nigeria. Boko Haram in Perspective, *Journal of Sociological research. Macro-think Institute*, 2 (4).
- [33]. Obi, C. & Rustad, S. A. (2011). *Oil and insurgency in the Niger Delta: Managing the complex politics of petro-violence*. London: Zed Books.
- [34]. Okonata, I. & Douglas, O. (2003). Where vultures feast. Online available at: [e.wikippdia.org/wikilconflict-in-the-Niger-Delta](http://e.wikippdia.org/wikilconflict-in-the-Niger-Delta). Retrieved 18/08/16.
- [35]. Omang, T. A., Yongyang, Chris-Valentine, O., Eneji, M.A. (2012). Cash Cropping as an Effective Strategy for poverty Reduction in Nigeria: The Case of Cocoa Farming in Etung Local Government Area of Cross River State. *Journal of Agriculture, Biotechnology and Ecology*, 5 (3).
- [36]. Osuala, E. C. (2004). *Principles and methods of business and computer education*. Enugu: Cheston Agency.
- [37]. Parveen, S., Sohail, M. M., Naeem, F., Azhar, Z. & Khan, S. H. (2014). Impact of office facilities and workplace milieu on employees' performance: A case study of Sargodha University. *Asian Journal of Empirical Research*, 2(4), 96-117.
- [38]. Rainey, H. G. (1997). *Understanding and managing public organisations* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.), San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- [39]. Ramlah, H., NorShahriza, A. K. & MohdHasan, S (2007). The impact of technological factors on information systems success in the electronic government context. *Business Process Management Journal*, 13(5), 613- 627.
- [40]. Ryan, R. M. & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic social development, and well-being. *American Sociological Review*, 22, 534-540.
- [41]. Ukwaiyi, J. K. Okpa, J. T. Adewoyin, S. A. Angioha, P. U. Udom, H. T. (2017). Security Equipment and Policing in Central Senatorial District of Cross River State, Nigeria. *IOSR Journal of Humanities And Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)*, 22, (2).
- [42]. Ushie, E. M., Agba, A. M. O., Ingwe, R. & Igbaji, P. M. (2015). Workers' productivity enhancement in Nigeria: Evidence on mentorship in a Nigerian university. *International Journal of Current Research*, 7(4), 15299-15307.