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SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

COURSE CODE: EHS 411

**COURSE TITLE: ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH
ADMINISTRATION**

**COURSE
GUIDE**

**EHS 411
ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH ADMINISTRATION**

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INTRODUCTION

Environmental Health Administration is a semester course. It is a 2-credit unit course available to all students of Bachelor of Science (B.Sc.) Environmental Health.

Administration is the organisation and direction of persons in order to accomplish a specific end. The simplest and shortest definition of administration is the one which says that ‘when two men co – operate to roll a stone that neither could move alone, the rudiments of administration have appeared’.

If you think of the church, the army, the university, an industry, business concern or purely a social organisation, there has to be administration because each one consists of people brought together in a hierarchical set-up, making use of financial, human and material resources, all in the quest to attain the objective for which the organisation is established. In other words, the bishop in the church, the field marshal in the army, the vice-chancellor in the university, the managing director or chairman of an industrial or business enterprise, each has under him a hierarchy of subordinates, each with functions and responsibilities assigned for the accomplishment of the objective or purpose of the organisation. This process requires planning, organisation, command, co-ordination, and control. All these constitute administration.

WHAT YOU ARE TO LEARN IN THIS COURSE

The course content consists of a unit of the Course Guide which tells you briefly what the course is about, what course materials you need and how to work with such materials. It also gives you some guideline for the time you are expected to spend on each unit in order to complete it successfully.

It guides you concerning your tutor-marked assignment which will be placed in the assignment file. Regular tutorial classes related to the course will be conducted and it is advisable for you to attend these sessions. It is expected that the course will prepare you for challenges you are likely to meet in the field of environmental health administration.

COURSE AIMS

The course aim is to provide you with an understanding of environmental health administration. It is intended to let you appreciate the proportion occupied by environmental health administration in a developing country like Nigeria.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

To achieve the aim set out, the course has a set of objectives. Each unit has specified objectives which are stated at the beginning of the unit. You are advised to read the objectives before you study the unit because you may need to make reference to them during your study to check on your own progress. It is also good that you endeavour to check the unit objectives after completion of each unit to decipher level of accomplishment. After going through the course, you should be able to:

- explain the definitions, concepts, administrative management theories and historical background of environmental health.
- identify the administrative management functions of planning, organising, staffing, funding and budgeting.
- explain the institutional arrangements of establishment matters at the federal, state and local governments as well as inter-sectoral collaboration.
- describe the environmental health service delivery of quality assurance, equity, and cost controls.
- appreciate the role of government in supportive supervision and monitoring and evaluation.

WORKING THROUGH THIS COURSE

To complete this course you are expected to read each study unit, read the textbooks and other materials which may be provided by the National Open University of Nigeria. Each unit contains self-assessment exercises. In the course, you would be required to submit assignment for assessment. At the end of the course there is final examination. The course should take about 15 weeks to complete.

Listed below are the components of the course, what you have to do and how to allocate your time to each unit, in order to complete the course successfully and timely.

The course demands that you should spend good time to read and my advice for you is that you should endeavour to attend tutorial session where you will have the opportunity of comparing knowledge with colleagues.

COURSE MATERIALS

The main components of the course are:

1. The Course Guide
2. Study Unit

3. References/Further Reading
4. Assignments
5. Presentation Schedule

STUDY UNITS

There are fifteen study units in this course as follows:

MODULE 1

1. Definitions and Concepts
2. Administrative Management Theories
3. Historical Background of Environmental Health.

MODULE 2

1. Planning
2. Organising
3. Staffing
4. Funding
5. Budgeting.

MODULE 3

1. Establishment Matters – Federal, State, and LG.
2. Inter Sectoral Collaboration – FMOH, FMOE, FMOWR, and PSP.

MODULE 4

1. Quality Assurance
2. Equity
3. Cost Controls
4. Supportive Supervision
5. Monitoring and Evaluation.

In module 1, unit 1 focuses on definitions, and concepts. The second unit deals with administrative management theories. Unit three is about historical background of environmental health. Unit 1 of module 2 deals on planning in administration of the environment in health service delivery. Unit 2 has to do with organising while unit 3 explains staffing. Funding is treated in unit 4 and unit 5 is about budgeting. Module 3 discusses establishment matters of federal, state and local governments. Module 4 and all the units in it are concerned with quality assurance, equity, cost controls, supportive supervision, and monitoring and evaluation.

Each unit consists of one or two weeks' work and include an introduction, objectives, main content, reading materials, exercises, conclusion, summary, tutor-marked assignments (TMAs), references and other resources. The various units direct you to work on exercises related to the required reading. In general, the exercises test you on the materials you have just covered or require you to apply it in a way that will assist you to evaluate your own progress and to reinforce your understanding of the material. Alongside the TMAs, these exercises will help you achieve the stated learning objectives of the individual units and course as a whole.

PRESENTATION SCHEDULE

Your course materials have important dates for the early and timely completion and submission of your TMAs and attending tutorials. You are expected to submit all your assignments by the stipulated time and date and guard against falling behind in your work.

ASSESSMENT

There are three parts to the course assessment and these include self-assessment exercises, tutor-marked assessments and the written examination or end-of-course examination. It is advisable that you do all the exercises. In tackling the assignments, you are expected to use the information, knowledge and techniques gathered during the course. The assignments must be submitted to your facilitator for formal assessment in line with the deadlines stated in the presentation schedule and assignment file. The work you submit to your tutor for assessment will count for 30% of your total course work. At the end of the course, you will need to sit for a final end-of-course examination of about three hours duration. This examination will count for 70% of your total course mark.

TUTOR- MARKED ASSIGNMENT

The TMAs is a continuous assessment component of your course. It accounts for 30% of the total score. You will be given four (4) TMAs to answer. Three of this must be answered before you are allowed to sit for the end-of-course examination. The TMAs would be given to you by your facilitator and returned after you have done the assignment.

Assignment questions for the units in this course are contained in the assignment file. You will be able to complete your assignment from the information and material contained in your reading, references and study units. However, it is desirable in all degree level of education to

demonstrate that you have read and researched more into your references, which will give you a wider view point of the subject.

Make sure that each assignment reaches your facilitator on or before the deadline given in the presentation schedule and assignment file. If for any reason you cannot complete your work on time, contact your facilitator before the assignment is due to discuss the possibility of an extension. Extension will not be granted after the due date unless there are exceptional circumstances.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

The end-of-course examination for Environmental Health Administration will be for three (3) hours with a value of 70% of the total course work. The examination will consist of questions, which will reflect the type of self-testing, practice exercise and tutor-marked assignment problems you have previously encountered. All area of the course will be assessed.

When you have read all the units of this course, I advise you revise the whole units again for more clarification, before the final examination. You might find it useful to review your self-test, TMAs and comments on them before the examination. The end-of-course examination covers information from all parts of the course.

COURSE MARKING SCHEME

Assignment	Marks
Assignments 1 – 4	Four assignments, best three marks of the four count 10% each of the 30% course marks.
End of course examination	70% of overall course marks
Total	100% of course materials

FACILITATORS/TUTORS AND TUTORIALS

There are 15 hours of tutorials provided in support of this course. You will be notified of the dates, times and location of the tutorials as well as the name and the phone number of your facilitator, as soon as you are allocated a tutorial group.

Your facilitator will mark and comment on your assignments, keep a close watch on your progress and any difficulties you might face and

provide assistance to you during the course. You are expected to mail your tutor- marked assignment to your facilitator before the scheduled date (at least two working days are required). They will be marked by your tutor and returned to you as soon as possible.

Do not delay to contact your facilitator by telephone or e-mail if you need assistance.

The following might be circumstances in which you would find assistance necessary, hence you would have to contact your facilitator if:

- You do not understand any part of the study or the assigned readings.
- You have difficulty with self-tests.
- You have a question or problem with an assignment or with the grading of an assignment.

You should endeavour to attend the tutorials. This is the only chance to have face-to-face contact with your course facilitator and to ask questions which are answered instantly. You can raise any problem encountered in the course of your study.

To gain more benefit from course tutorials prepare a question list before attending them. You will learn a lot from participating actively in discussions.

SUMMARY

Environmental Health Administration is a course that provides you with the definitions, concepts, theories and application of administration in environmental health.

Upon completing this course, you will be equipped with the knowledge of environmental health administration. You will be able to define what is meant by environment, health, environmental health, and explain administrative management theories.

You will be able to state the administrative management functions of planning, organising, staffing, funding, and budgeting.

You will recognise the institutional/organisational arrangement/chart of the federal, state, and local government.

You will understand environmental health service delivery of quality assurance, equity, and cost controls.

You will also know the role of government in supportive supervision, and monitoring and evaluation.

In addition, you will be able to answer questions on the subject such as:

- What does administration mean?
- Of what importance is the knowledge of administration to environmental health?
- State administrative management functions.
- Draw organisational chart of federal, state, and local government department.
- Explain environmental health service delivery of quality assurance, equity, and cost controls.

The above list is just a few of the questions expected and is by no means exhaustive. To gain most from this course, you are advised to consult relevant books to widen your knowledge on the topic. I wish you success in the course. It is my hope you will find it both illuminating and useful.



**MAIN
COURSE**

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MODULE 1

Unit 1	Definitions and Concepts
Unit 2	Administrative Management Theories
Unit 3	Historical Background of Environmental Health

UNIT 1 DEFINITIONS AND CONCEPTS

CONTENTS

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2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Meaning of Environment
3.2	Meaning of Health
3.3	Meaning of Administration
3.4	Meaning of Environmental Health
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will learn the objectives, the meaning of environment, and health. You will also learn the meaning of administration as well as environmental health.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the meaning of environment
- explain the meaning of health
- highlight the meaning of administration
- explain the meaning of environmental health.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Environment

The world health organisation defines environment as all modifiable physical, chemical, and biological factors external to the human host, and all related behaviours that are critical to establishing and

maintaining a healthy livable environment. Davis (1969) quoted in Ogbalu (1977) defines environment as the combination of external or extrinsic conditions that affect the growth and development of organisms.

The environment is the collective term used to describe all the living and non-living things that make up the surroundings. Basically, man's environment consists of three main components namely: physical, biological, and socio-cultural.

(a) Physical Environment

The physical environment consists of the non-living (a biotic) part of the environment, which is, land, water, air, light, heat, and radiation etc.

(b) Biological Environment

The biological environment consists of all living things in the area, which include, plants, animals (including man), and micro-organisms.

(c) Socio-cultural Environment

The socio-cultural environment consists of man as member of society, cultural beliefs, and traditions. These three components mentioned above affect the health of man in one way or another.

3.2 Meaning of Health

The World Health Organisation defines health as a complete state of mental, physical, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity (WHO: 1946). The enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health is one of the fundamental rights of every human being without distinction of race, religion, and political belief, social or economic condition. Even though the above definition of health given by WHO may be regarded as an ideal state of health, it enables us to recognise the variables which contribute to a healthy condition. It reflects the basic requirements for ensuring a happy and productive life and a quality of life that have always been associated with the characteristics of a healthy person.

The three perspectives from which health can be considered: physical, emotional, and social, are dynamic and interrelated. To be optimally healthy, a person must not only be physically fit but must also be emotionally and socially stable. The physical health of an individual will definitely determine his emotional health, his social stability, and also his economic output.

Some scholars argue that the best way to define health is to do so in functional or operational terms. That is, health has to be considered in terms of what distinguishes a healthy person from a sick (unhealthy) person. A healthy person is able to go about his normal life, performing any chosen functions to the limit of his productive potentials except if he is prevented from doing so by external forces beyond his control. Under normal circumstances, the more productive a person is in the context of his latent ability, the healthier he is.

The prevention, protection, and promotion of health are ultimately an individual's responsibility. For example, if a person is well informed about the causes of gonorrhoea, he will still be a victim of it if he fails to protect himself against it. The same is true of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS), smoking etc. A person must, therefore work for health before he can be healthy.

3.3 Meaning of Administration

Adebayo (1989) defines administration as the organisation and direction of persons in order to accomplish a specified end adding that the simplest and shortest definition of administration is the one which says that 'when two men co-operate to roll a stone that neither could move alone, the rudiments of administration have appeared'.

3.3.1 Purpose of Administration

Administration must exist in any organisation set up for a defined purpose or objective. Whether you think of the Church, the army, a university, an industrial or business concern or a purely social organisation, there has to be administration because each one consists of human beings brought together in a hierarchical set up, making use of tools, equipment, human and material resources, all in the quest to attain the objective for which the organisation is established. Thus, the Bishop in the church, the field marshal in the army, the vice chancellor in the university, the managing director or chairman of an industrial or business enterprise, each has under him a hierarchy of subordinates, each with functions and responsibilities assigned for the accomplishment of the objective or purpose of the organisation. This purpose requires planning, organisation, command, co-ordination, and control. All these constitute administration.

Every organisation in modern society consists of many different groups of people woven together in a complicated process to achieve the objectives of an organisation. For example, any industry on a large scale depends upon organisation. Large numbers of employees have to be

supervised, coordinated and controlled. In some industries the span of activities is nationwide; sometimes it is even international. Thousands of workers have to be brought together and distributed for work among the various departments of which the establishment is composed. These workers are graded in different levels of authority, from directors and managers at the top to messengers and labourers at the bottom. Everyone has to be assigned his specific function and the contribution of each must be towards the objective of the whole.

As it is in the world of industry, so it is in the realm of the state, in the Church, in the army and in any establishment in which large numbers of people are employed at different levels of authority, but all working towards the achievement of the objective of the establishment. All these call for organisation on a massive scale. In short, they depend and rest on administration, because 'administration is the capacity of coordinating many, and often conflicting, social energies in a single organism, so adroitly that they shall operate as a unity'. It is this process of organisation and management which constitutes administration.

3.3.2 Significance of Administration

The administrator's position within an establishment or organisation is therefore strategic and pivotal. It is true to say that the place of administration has come to be clearly recognised in every sector of human endeavour, as being the key stone to the success and indeed to the very existence of the enterprise. Being concerned with the planning, co-ordination, supervision and control of the enterprise or establishment with which it is involved, it is no over-statement to declare that 'whatever may be the future; the science of administration will be an essential instrument of human welfare'. Indeed so significant is the importance of this instrument of human welfare that one can agree with the scholars on administration who asserted that 'if our civilisation breaks down, it will be mainly a breakdown of administration', and that 'the future of civilised government, and even of civilisation itself, rests upon our ability to develop a science and a philosophy and practice of administration competent to discharge the public functions of civilised society'.

From the foregoing, it is not difficult to say that administration is the process on which social stability rests. This is because administration ensures the establishment of institutional processes and machinery through which the function of the state or an enterprise is carried out from day to day. In the state, institutional machineries like the judiciary, the legislature, regulatory commissions, the civil service, etc. are set up to ensure the smooth working of the various components that make up the state. Each component is designed to perform a specialised purpose.

Laws, rules, mechanisms are set up and their operation is coordinated, controlled, and supervised. These are processes of organisation and management and they constitute administration. The effect of these institutional mechanisms is that they ensure stability and continuity in periods of change and stress. Without them, changes in government, especially when accompanied or occasioned by violent means, will result in disintegration of society and general chaos. The administrative function therefore ensures the continuance of the existing order. In this way, administration can be regarded as the stabiliser of society and the guardian of tradition.

3.4 Meaning of Environmental Health

The World Health Organisation defines environmental health as the control of all factors in man's physical environment, which exercise, or may exercise, deleterious effects on his physical development, health or survival. Environmental health, therefore, takes account of the various aspects of human health, including quality of life, which is determined by physical, chemical, biological, social and psychosocial factors in the environment. It also refers to the theory and practice of assessing, correcting, controlling, and preventing these factors that can potentially affect adversely the health of present and future generations.

3.4.1 Components of Environmental Health

The key components of environmental health in Nigeria include waste management; food hygiene and control; pest and vector control; environmental health control of housing and sanitation; epidemiological investigation and disease control; air quality management; occupational health and safety; water resources management and sanitation; noise control; protection of recreational environment; radiation control; health control of frontiers, air and sea ports and border crossing; pollution control and abatement; educational activities (health promotion and education); promotion and enforcement of environmental health quality standards; collaborative efforts to study the effects of environmental hazards (through research); environmental health impact assessment (EHIA) and the management of emergency situations (disasters, flooding, disease outbreaks) etc. (EHORECON:2007).

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt the objectives, and the meaning of environment, health, as well as administration. You have learnt also the meaning of environmental health. In the next unit, you will be introduced to administrative management theories.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the objectives, the meaning of environment, and the meaning of health. You have learnt also the meaning of administration, the purpose of administration and the significance of administration. Finally, you learnt the meaning of environmental health as well as the components of environmental health.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. (a) Define environment.
(b) Explain three (3) components of environment.
2. Define health.
3. (a) Define Administration.
(b) Explain the purpose and significance of administration.
4. (a) Define environmental health.
(b) State five (5) components of environmental health.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Adebayo, A. (1989). *Principles and Practice of Public Administration in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books Ltd.
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UNIT 2 ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT THEORIES

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- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Theory
 - 3.2 Bureaucratic Theory
 - 3.3 Systems Theory
 - 3.4 Motivation Theory
 - 3.5 Theory X and Theory Y
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt definitions and concepts of environmental health administration. In this unit, you are going to be exposed to the meaning of theory, bureaucratic theory, systems theory, motivation theory, and theory X and theory Y. You will also learn the objectives of the unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, you should be able to:

- explain the meaning of theory
- identify bureaucratic theory
- discuss systems theory
- highlight motivation theory
- discuss theory x and theory y.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Theory

Cane (1964) as quoted in Nwizu (1997) defines theory as speculation, the analysis of a set of facts in their ideal relations to one another, the general or abstract principles of any body of facts; pure as distinguished from applied science or art; a more or less plausible or scientifically

acceptable general principles offered to explain phenomenon, loosely, a hypothesis, a guess.

Fred N. Kerlinger defines theory as a set of interrelated constructs (concepts), definitions and propositions that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables with the purpose of explaining and predicting the phenomena.

Theories are attempts to accurately describe and to successfully predict relationships among elements of the physical, social and psychological worlds. They are not vague abstractions having little or no practical value. The administrative/organisation theory is yet to attain the scope and precision of the theories of the physical sciences. Impetus to organisation theory comes from an effort to improve administrative productivity or performance as well as from a disposition to learn more and more about human behavior in administrations. Naturally administrative theory evokes universal interest. Let this be also remembered that there is no one theory of administration. The more correct way is to say that there are administrative theories. The main theories which seek to study administrations are: bureaucratic theory, systems theory, motivation theory, and theory X and theory Y.

3.2 Max Weber Bureaucratic Theories

Meaning of Bureaucracy

The word bureaucracy had an undisguised negative image even at the time of its origin. Even today especially in the eyes of the uninitiated, the term continues to be one of abuse, even if it is of a mild intensity. Bureaucracy tends itself to two usages. It refers to the tasks and procedures of administration, as well as a collective word for a body of administrative officials. Frequently, it also stands for inefficiency and improper exercise of power on the part of officials, and thus has become a term for abuse.

Rao (1990) defines bureaucracy as an organisation characterised by rules, procedures, impersonal relations, and an elaborate and fairly rigid hierarchy of authority – responsibility relationships. In simple terms it implies this proposition: In an ideal sense, the most efficient and rational organisation is that in which there is clearly defined hierarchy of offices, each office with a clearly defined area of jurisdiction, each office filled by an individual tested to possess the highest technical qualifications and the entire set of offices linked together by a system of rules, procedures and impersonal relationships. (Nwizu, 1997).

Weber developed the model as a reaction against personal subjugation, nepotism, cruelty and subjective judgments' which passed for managerial practices in the early days of industrial revolution. He believed that bureaucracy provides an ideal weapon to harness and routines' human and mechanical energy which fuelled the industrial revolution. Weber firmly believed that everything about an organisation should help in achieving its goals. His views of bureaucracy were thus, internally oriented. External pressures on bureaucracies were viewed by Weber as a threat to the organisation's pursuit of its goals.

2. Elements of Bureaucracy

Weber has provided a number of features of bureaucratic structures. These features described the perfect or ideal bureaucracy. However, in practice, administrations meet these criteria only partially. The elements include:

(i) Hierarchy

This requires that the organisation of offices follow the principle of hierarchy whereby each lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one and in which authority flows downwards from the top.

(ii) Fixed Rules

This feature requires that regular activities required for the purpose of the structure are distributed in fixed ways as official duties. This entails division of labour principles.

(iii) Recruitment/Appointment Based on Competence

The bureaucratic officials are recruited or appointed on the basis of technical competence and qualification. According to Weber, in most cases, this is tested by the possession of diploma or certificate, authenticating competence. This emphasises the need for specialisation.

(iv) Formalistic Impersonality

Administrative officials are personally free, observing only the impersonal duties and obligations of their offices. The principle of formalistic impersonality requires the bureaucratic officials to discharge their responsibility quite dispassionately and objectively in such a manner that they are neither sympathetic with, nor show hatred toward any of their clients. In other words, the bureaucratic officials should treat all like cases alike irrespective of the people concerned.

(v) Career Service

Appointment as a bureaucratic official is based on career whereby once appointed the official remains in service until he attains retirement age. Within this period, the official, subject to satisfactory performance advances upwards through the hierarchy through predictable process of promotion based on seniority and/or merit until retirement, of course barring official misconduct. Bureaucratic officials are remunerated in salaries, pensions and gratuity.

(vi) Discipline

All bureaucratic officials are subjected to strict unified and systematic discipline and control in the conduct of their official responsibility.

(vii) Codified Rules

All rules and regulations governing the bureaucratic organisation as well as those governing the actions of the officials are clearly codified in form of status. Weber's contention is that every modern government will necessarily exhibit this kind of officialdom. Weber clearly reminds us that bureaucratic officials are only those appointed officials of bureaucracy and not the elected officials. However, in actual practice, the bureaucratic model is rarely found in pure form. Bureaucracies exist in degrees; very few conform to the ideal type visualised by Weber.

3. System Theory

Systems theory attempts to view administrative organisation as a unified, purposeful entity composed of inter-related parts. Rather than dealing separately with the various parts of an organisation, the systems theory gives managers a way of looking at an organisation as a whole and as part of the larger, external environment. In so doing, systems theory tells us that the activity of any part of an organisation affects the activity of every other part. The job of a manager is to ensure that all parts of the organisation are coordinated internally so that the organisation's goal can be achieved. A systems view of administrative management, for instance, would recognise that, regardless of how efficient the production department might be, if the marketing department does not anticipate changes in consumer taste and work with the product development department in creating what the consumers want, the organisation's overall performance will be hampered.

4. Some Key Concepts

Many of the concepts of systems theory are finding their way into the language of administrative management in recent years. In order to keep pace with current developments it would be necessary for us to discuss the systems vocabulary here.

1. Sub – Systems

The parts that make up a whole of a system are called sub-systems. And each system in turn may be a sub-system of a still larger whole. Thus, a department may be a sub-system of a plant, which may be a sub-system of a company, which may be a sub-system of an industry and so on. Kast and Rosenzweig identify five organisational sub-systems within an organisation.

(i) Goal Sub - System

People working together in organisations will have common purposes that bind their efforts together. Group goals and objectives define a sub-system essential for total systems effectiveness.

(ii) Technical Sub - System

The collective knowledge of individuals using techniques, equipment, and tools establish a sub-system of technical processes. This system may include facilities, methods of work and elements of skill.

(iii) Structural Sub – System

Individuals and groups with inter-related activities illustrate obvious structural sub-systems. Less obvious inter-dependent relationships exist that also form part of the system. These may include, for example, the inter-dependence of purchasing and production scheduling activities.

(iv) Managerial Sub-System

Managers provide links throughout their organisations to co-ordinate other sub-systems and to plan, organise, lead and control organisational processes.

(v) Psychological Sub – Systems

Psychological factors influence groups' behavior as well as behavior of individuals within the groups. The social aspect of people working in a close proximity influences group activities. These two dimensions are

important factors that affect other sub-systems, and in turn they are influenced by other sub-systems.

1. Synergy

Synergy means that the whole is greater than the sum of its part. A watch that is disassembled has the same number of parts as one that is properly assembled. However, the assembled watch has a phenomenon that the disassembled one lacks – it keeps time (synergy). When the parts of an organisation are properly inter-related (such as an assembly line), the output is much greater than it would otherwise be. Synergy represents one of the basic challenges management getting all of the elements of an organisation functioning together so that output is optimal.

2. Open and Closed Systems

A system is considered an open system if it interacts with its environment. It is considered closed system if it does not. Clearly, all organisations must interact with its environment since they are dependent on their environment. An organisation that is not adaptive and responsive to its environment would not survive or grow over any extended period of time. It has to be responsive to demands placed on it by bits its internal and external environments.

3. System Boundaries

Every system has boundaries that separate it from other systems and from its environments. For example, if we are to think of a business firm as a system, then we must be able to identify those elements that are in the system and those elements that are out of the system. In a closed system, the system boundaries are more flexible. The system boundaries of many organisations have become increasingly flexible in recent years. Oil companies that wished to engage in off-shore drilling, for example, have increasing had to consider public reaction to the potential environmental harm. Identifying appropriate system boundaries is a skill that can differentiate effective from ineffective managers.

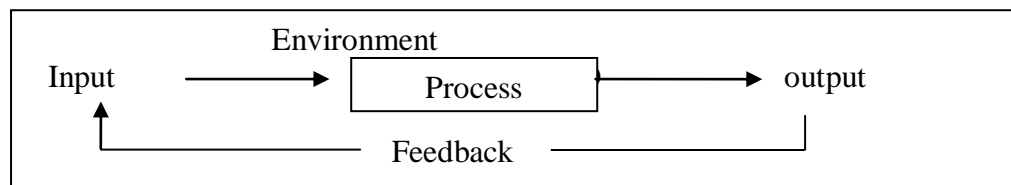
4. Input – Transformation – Output Model

An open system receives inputs from its environment which it transforms into output in interaction with environmental variables. For a business firm, input would be material, labour and capital. The transformations process would turn these inputs into finished products or services. The system's success depends on successful interactions with its environment: that is, those groups or institutions upon which it

is dependent. These might include suppliers, unions, financial institutions, government agencies and customers. The sale of outputs generate revenue, which can be used to pay wages and taxes, buy inputs, repay loans, and generate profit for shareholders. If revenues are not large enough to satisfy environmental demands, the organisation shrinks or dies. Thus, a system has flows of information, materials and energy. These enter the system from the environment as inputs, undergo transformation process within the system and exit the system as outputs.

5. Feedback

According to J. F. Stoner, feedback is the key to systems controls. As operations of the system proceed, information is feedback to the appropriate people or perhaps to a computer so that the work can be accessed, and if necessary, corrected. Feedback provides warning signals regarding impending dangers; for example, complaints from clients provide negative feedback calling attention to production or service improvements and so on.



Source: Nwizu: 1997

6. Evaluation

Systems theory makes organisation theorists search for integrative models rather than be satisfied with making lists of unrelated principles. It also emphasises looking at the forest rather than the trees. It uses a way of thinking that highlights underlying relationships. The practical implications of systems theory for managers are enormous. Most effective managers operate with a systems mentality even though they may not be consciously aware of it. As a matter of course, executives ask what effect a decision will have on others. They think before they act, implying a process of evaluating the impact of their actions will have.

A conscious commitment to systems thinking requires explicit responsibility for forming decisions in terms of how the entire organisation will be affected. According to Stoner, “systems theory provides a framework within which we can plan actions and anticipate immediate and far-reaching consequences, and at the same time, it allows us to understand unanticipated consequences, as they may

develop. With a systems perspective, general managers can more easily maintain a balance between the needs of the various parts of the enterprise and goals of the firm as a whole”.

3.4 Motivation Theory

1. Meaning of Motivation

Motivation is the word derived from the word ‘motive’ which means needs, desires, wants or drives within the individuals. It is the process of stimulating people to actions to accomplish the goals. In the work goal context the psychological factors stimulating the people’s behaviour can be desire for money, success, recognition, job-satisfaction and team work, etc.

The process of motivation consists of three stages; namely, a felt need or drive; stimulus, in which needs have to be aroused and when needs are satisfied, the satisfaction or accomplishment of goals.

Therefore, we can say that motivation is a psychological phenomenon which means needs and wants of the individuals have to be tackled by framing an incentive plan.

2. Importance of Motivation

Motivation is very important for an organisation because of the following benefits it provides. The benefits include:

(i) Puts Human Resources into Action

Every concern requires physical, financial and human resources to accomplish the goals. It is through motivation that the human resources can be utilised by making full use of it. This can be done by building willingness in employees to work. This will help the enterprise in securing best possible utilisation of resources.

(ii) Improves Level of Efficiency of Employees

The level of a subordinate or an employee does not only depend upon his qualifications and abilities. For getting best of his work performance, the gap between ability and willingness has to be filled which helps in improving the level of performance of subordinates. This will result into:

- (a) Increase in productivity
- (b) Reducing cost of operations, and

(c) Improving overall efficiency.

(iii) Leads to Achievement of Organisational Goals

The goals of an enterprise can be achieved only when the following factors take place:

- (a) There is best possible utilisation of resources.
- (b) There is a co-operative work environment.
- (c) The employees are goal-directed and they act in a purposive manner; and
- (d). Goals can be achieved if co-ordination and co-operation take place simultaneously which can be effectively done through motivation.

(iv) Builds Friendly Relationship

Motivation is an important factor which brings employees satisfaction. This can be done by keeping in mind and framing an incentive plan for the benefit of the employees. This could initiate the following:

- (a). Monetary and non-monetary incentives.
- (b). Promotion opportunities for employees.
- (c). Disincentives for inefficient employees.

In order to build a cordial, friendly atmosphere in a concern, the above steps should be taken by a manager. This would help in:

- (d). Effective co-operation which brings stability.
- (e). Industrial dispute and unrest in employees will reduce.
- (f). The employees will be adaptable to the changes and there will be no resistance to the change.
- (g). This will help in providing a smooth and sound concern in which individual interests will coincide with the organisational interests.
- (h). This will result in profit maximisation through increased productivity.

(v) Leads to Stability of Work Force

Stability of workforce is very important from the point of view of reputation and goodwill of a concern. The employees can remain loyal to the enterprise only when they have a feeling of participation in the administration. The skills and efficiency of employees will always be of advantage to employees as well as employers. This will lead to a good public image in the market which will attract competent and qualified people into a concern. As it is said, "Old is gold" which suffices with the

role of motivation here, the older the people, more the experience and their adjustment into a concern which can be of benefit to the enterprise.

From the above discussion, we can say that motivation is an internal feeling which can be understood only by manager since he is in close contact with the employees. Needs, wants and desires are inter-related and they are the driving force to act. These needs can be understood by the manager and he can frame motivation plans accordingly. We can say that motivation therefore is a continuous process since motivation process is based on needs which are unlimited. The process has to be continued throughout. We can summarize by saying that motivation is important both to an individual and a business.

Motivation is important to an individual as:

- (a) Motivation will help him achieve his personal goals.
- (b) If an individual is motivated, he will have job satisfaction.
- (c) Motivation will help in self-development of individual.
- (d) An individual would always gain by working with a dynamic team.

Similarly, motivation is important to a business as:

- (a) The more motivated the employees are, the more empowered the team is.
- (b) The more is the team work and individual employee contribution, the more profitable and successful is the business.
- (c) During period of change, there will be more adaptability and creativity.
- (d) Motivation will lead to an optimistic and challenging attitude at work place because it has been discovered that by and large, with respect to workplace motivation – Carrot or Stick approach doesn't work anymore.
- (e) While salary and promotions could do a great job of demotivating people if handled ineffectively, they aren't so much effective in motivating people.

What should be done therefore for effective motivation at workplace?

(i) Link Rewards Directly to Performance

An organisation should adopt a fair reward structure which provides incentive to the most deserving employee. Having an incentive structure in place doesn't solve the problem... what makes it workable is the employees trust in the system and believe that they will be rewarded if they perform.

(ii) Compliment Employees

Even though an employee's name has not appeared in the list of people getting incentives, go ahead and compliment that employee for a job well done – no matter how small. There is nothing more satisfying to an employee than a pat on his back.

(iii) Be Transparent

While there may be some strategic decisions which you might want to share with the employees at a later stage, make sure employees do not give in to the rumours. Stay in touch with the employees.

(iv) Work on your Personal Development Plan (PDP)

Every employee is responsible for his or her own career. He or she should work towards his 'Personal Development Plan' (PDP) as discussed and agreed by his manager. Find out what the training company offers and which is best suited to his development needs. How this will motivate you - remember training always increases your marketability and enhance your career.

(v) Participate and Network- Employees

Remember you work for a company where a one-on-one attention might not be possible. Do not wait for an invitation to participate in a discussion. If you are a part of a forum, then you have full right to express your opinion and be a part of the process. Expressing yourself is a good way of motivating yourself.

1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Abraham Maslow is renowned for proposing the Hierarchy of Needs Theory in 1943. This theory is a classical depiction of human motivation. This theory is based on the assumption that there is a hierarchy of five needs within each individual. The urgency of these needs varies. These five needs include: Physiological Needs; Security Needs; Social Needs; Esteem Needs; and Self – Actualisation Needs.

Maslow's Hierarchy Model**1. Physiological Needs**

These are the basic needs of air, water, food, clothing, sex and shelter. In other words, physiological needs are the needs for basic amenities of life.

2. Safety Needs

Safety needs include physical, environmental and emotional safety and protection. For instance, job security, financial security, protection from animals, family security, health security, etc.

3. Social Needs

Social needs include the need for love, affection, care, belongingness, and friendship.

4. Esteem Needs

Esteem needs are of two types: internal esteem needs (self- respect, confidence, competence, achievement and freedom) and external esteem needs (recognition, power, status, attention and admiration).

5. Self-Actualisation Needs

This includes the urge to become what you are capable of becoming or what you have the potential to become. It includes the need for growth and self-contentment. It also includes desire for gaining more knowledge, social- service, creativity and being aesthetic. The self-actualisation needs are never fully satiable. As an individual grows psychologically, opportunities keep cropping up to continue growing. According to Maslow, individuals are motivated by unsatisfied needs.

As each of these needs is significantly satisfied, it drives and forces the next need to emerge. Maslow grouped the five needs into two categories - Higher-order needs and Lower - order needs. The physiological and the safety needs constituted the lower-order needs. These lower – order needs are mainly satisfied externally. The social, esteem, and self-actualisation needs constituted the higher-order needs. These higher-order needs are generally satisfied internally, that is, within an individual. Thus, we can conclude that during boom period, the employees lower-order needs are significantly met.

A. Implications of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory for Manager

As far as the physiological needs are concerned, the administrators should give employees appropriate salaries to purchase the basic necessities of life. Breaks and eating opportunities should be given to employees.

As far as the safety needs are concerned, the administrators should provide the employees job security, safe and hygienic work environment, and retirement benefits so as to retain them.

As far as social needs are concerned, the administration should encourage teamwork and organise social events.

As far as esteem needs are concerned, the managers can appreciate and reward employees on accomplishing and exceeding their targets. The management can give the deserved employee higher job rank and/or position in the organisation.

As far as self-actualisation needs are concerned, the administrators can give the employees challenging jobs in which the employees' skills and competencies are fully utilised. Moreover, growth opportunities can be given to them so that they can reach the peak. The managers must identify the need level at which the employee is existing and then those needs can be utilised as push for motivation.

B. Limitations of Maslow's Theory

It is essential to note that not all employees are governed by same set of needs. Different individuals may be driven by different needs at same point of time. It is always the most powerful unsatisfied need that motivates an individual. The theory is not empirically supported. The theory is not applicable in case of starving artist as even if the artist's basic needs are not satisfied, he will still strive for recognition and achievement.

3.5 Theory X and Theory Y

In 1960, Douglas McGregor formulated Theory X and Theory Y suggesting two aspects of human behaviour at work, or in other words, two different views of individuals (employees): one of which is negative, called Theory X and the other is positive, referred to as Theory Y. According to McGregor, the perception of administrators on the nature of individuals is based on various assumptions.

(1). Assumptions of Theory X

An average employee intrinsically does not like work and tries to escape it whenever possible. Since the employee does not want to work, he must be persuaded, compelled, or warned with punishment so as to achieve organisational goals. A close supervision is required on the part of administrators. The administrators adopt a more dictatorial style. Many employees rank job security on top, and they have little or no

aspiration and /or ambition. Employees generally dislike responsibilities. Employees resist change. An average employee needs formal direction.

(2). Assumptions of Theory Y

Employees can perceive their job as relaxing and normal. They exercise their physical and mental efforts in an inherent manner in their jobs. Employees may not require only threat, external control and coercion to work, but they can use self-direction and self-control if they are dedicated and sincere to achieve the organisational objectives. If the job is rewarding and satisfying, then it will result in employees' loyalty and commitment to organisation. An average employee can learn to admit and recognise the responsibility. In fact, he can even learn to obtain responsibility. The employees have skills and capabilities. Their logical capabilities should be fully utilised. In other words, the creativity, resourcefulness and innovative potentiality of the employees can be utilised to solve organisational problems.

Thus, we can say that Theory X presents a pessimistic view of employees' nature and behaviour at work, while Theory Y presents an optimistic view of the employees' nature and behaviour at work.

If we correlate it with Maslow's theory, we can say that Theory X is based on the assumption that the employees emphasise on the physiological needs and the safety needs; while Theory Y is based on the assumption that the social needs, esteem needs and the self-actualisation needs dominate the employees. McGregor views Theory Y to be more valid and reasonable than Theory X. Thus, he encouraged cordial team relations, responsible and stimulating jobs, and participation of all in decision-making process.

(3) Implications of Theory X and Theory Y

Quite a few organisations use theory X today. Theory X encourages use of tight control and supervision. It implies that employees are reluctant to organisational changes. Thus, it does not encourage innovation.

Many organisations are using theory Y techniques. Theory Y implies that the administrator should create and encourage a work environment which provides opportunities to employees to take initiative and self-direction. Employees should be given opportunities to contribute to organisational well-being. Theory Y encourages decentralisation of authority, teamwork and participative decision making in an organisation. Theory Y searches and discovers the ways in which an employee can make significant contributions in an organisation. It harmonises and matches employees' needs and aspirations with organisational needs and aspirations.

(4) Motivation Incentives - Incentives to Motivate Employees

Incentive is an act or promise for greater action. It is also called a stimulus to greater action. Incentives are something which is given in addition to wages. It means additional remuneration or benefit to an employee in recognition of achievement or better work. Incentives provide a spur or zeal in the employees for better performance. It is a natural thing that nobody acts without a purpose behind. Therefore, a hope for a reward is a powerful incentive to motivate employees. Besides monetary incentive, there are some other stimuli which can drive a person to better. This will include job satisfaction, job security, job promotion, and pride for accomplishment. Therefore, incentives really can sometimes work to accomplish the goals of a concern. The needs of incentives include:

- (a) To increase productivity.
- (b) To drive or arouse a stimulus work.
- (c) To enhance commitment in work performance.
- (d) To psychologically satisfy a person - this leads to job satisfaction.
- (e) To shape the behavior or outlook of subordinate towards work.
- (f) To inculcate zeal and enthusiasm towards work.
- (g) To get the maximum of their capabilities so that they are exploited and utilised maximally.

Therefore, management has to offer the following two categories of incentives to motivate employees:

(5) Monetary Incentives

Those incentives which satisfy the subordinates by providing them rewards in terms of rupees:

Money has been recognised as a chief source of satisfying the needs of people. Money is also helpful to satisfy the social needs by possessing various material items. Therefore, money not only satisfies psychological needs but also the security and social needs. Therefore, in many factories, various wage plans and bonus schemes are introduced to motivate and stimulate the people to work.

(6) Non-Monetary Incentives

Besides the monetary incentives, there are certain non-financial incentives which can satisfy the ego and self-actualisation needs of employees. The incentives which cannot be measured in terms of money are under the category of "Non-monetary incentives". Whenever a manager has to satisfy the psychological needs of the subordinates, he makes use of non-financial incentives. Non-financial incentives include:

(a) Security of Service

Job security is an incentive which provides great motivation to employees. If his job is secured; he will put maximum efforts to achieve the objectives of the enterprise. This also helps since he is very far off from mental tension and he can give his best to the enterprise.

(b) Praise or Recognition

The praise or recognition is another non- financial incentive which satisfies the needs of the employees. Sometimes praise becomes more effective than any other incentive. The employees will respond more to praise and try to give the best of their abilities to a concern.

(c) Suggestion Schemes

The organisation should look forward to taking suggestion and inviting suggestion schemes from the subordinates. This inculcates a spirit of participation in the employees. This can be done by publishing various articles written by employees to improve the work environment which can be published in various magazines of the company. This also is helpful to motivate the employees to feel important and they can also be in search for innovative methods which can be applied for better work methods. This ultimately helps in growing a concern and adapting new methods of operations.

(d) Job Enrichment

Job enrichment is another non- monetary incentive in which the job of a worker can be enriched. This can be done by increasing his responsibilities, giving him an important designation, increasing the content and nature of the work. This way efficient worker can get challenging jobs in which they can prove their worth. This also helps in the greatest motivation of the efficient employees.

(e) Promotion Opportunities

Promotion is an effective tool to increase the spirit to work in a concern. If the employees are provided opportunities for the advancement and growth, they feel satisfied and contented and they become more committed to the organisation. The above non- financial tools can be framed effectively by giving due concentration to the role of employees. A combination of financial and non- financial incentives help together in bringing motivation and zeal to work in a concern.

(f) Positive Incentives

Positive incentives are those incentives which provide a positive assurance for fulfilling the needs and wants. Positive incentives generally have an optimistic attitude behind and they are generally given to satisfy the psychological requirements of employees. For example, promotion, praise, recognition, perks and allowances, etc. It is positive by nature.

(g) Negative Incentives

Negative incentives are those whose purpose is to correct the mistakes or defaults of employees. The purpose is to rectify mistakes in order to get effective results. Negative incentive is generally resorted to when positive incentive does not work and a psychological set back has to be given to employees. It is negative by nature. For example, demotion, transfer, fines, penalties.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The thrust of this unit was bureaucratic theory, systems theory, and motivation theory at work. We examined the concept and process of as well as the importance of motivation. Two classical theories of motivation namely: Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, and Theory X and Theory Y were discussed. The role of motivation incentives were exhaustively explored too. In the next unit, you will learn the historical background of environmental health in Nigeria.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the meaning of bureaucracy, elements of bureaucracy and bureaucratic theory. You have learnt systems theory with its systems and sub-systems. You have learnt also the concept and process of as well as the importance of motivation. Two classical theories of motivation namely: Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, and Theory X and Theory Y were discussed. The role of motivation incentives were exhaustively explored too.

6.0 TUTOR - MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. (a) Discuss the theory of bureaucracy as postulated by Marx Weber.
- (b) State seven (7) elements of ideal bureaucratic model by Weber.
2. Outline the systems theory stating its sub-systems.
3. (a) Discuss the theory of motivation by Abraham Maslow.
- (b) What are the limitations of each of the theories?

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UNIT 3 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Historical Background of Environmental Health
 - 3.2 Environmental Health in Nigeria
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about administrative management theories. In this unit, you will learn historical background of environmental health. You will learn also environmental health in Nigeria.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the historical background of environmental health in Nigeria
- explain environmental health in Nigeria.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Historical Background of Environmental Health

By the 18th century, the nature of disease was not yet known. Illness was attributed to various causes such as the smell emanating from decay of organic matter, mist, evil spirits, gods, departed ones and witches. Disease like malaria was said to be caused by bad air (marsh air) coming out of the marshy area (gas formed by dead vegetable matter under the surface of water in a marsh).

For any particular disease, the knowledge of causative agent, mode of transmission and prevention was completely lacking. Medicine was individualised and was almost completely curative in character.

Although there had been repeated epidemics of serious infectious disease, little had been achieved in preventing illness. The first

preventive measure came with Jenner's discovery in 1790 that an infection with cowpox protected the individual against smallpox, but the mechanism of this protection was not properly understood. By 1837, there was a shift from the concern of the individual to that of the community. This means that the health of the members of the community started to receive some attention.

With the development of medical statistics by William Farr, it became possible to assess the health of any community. William Farr was the first person to tackle the issue of collecting and analysing records of illness, births, deaths etc., thus revealing the mortality and morbidity of a disease in a particular community. By 1839, there has been much concern about community health and by 1847 some towns like Liverpool appointed medical officer of health to be responsible for health of the community.

In 1847, there was an outbreak of cholera in some parts of Britain. This outbreak forced the government to act swiftly by passing the public health act in 1848. A general board of health was set up and the removal of public health nuisances was one of its functions. This was the first time a government forced people to observe certain public health measures. Better personal hygiene was enforced. Use of soap led to the elimination of typhus which is spread by lice. Quarantine and community health departments as we have them today came into being.

In 1854, another cholera outbreak occurred and this reached epidemic proportion. It was during this epidemic that John Snow demonstrated epidemiologically that cholera was spread by water. It was Snow who showed that water contaminated with faeces could lead to the spread of cholera. At about the same time Budd in Bristol also showed typhoid fever could be spread through contaminated water.

With the knowledge of the spread of these two infectious bacterial diseases, interest and effort were directed to improve the standards of water supplies and methods of disposal of sewage.

3.2 Environmental Health in Nigeria

The practice of environmental health has been going on in Nigeria even before the coming of the white man; for example, it was a common practice in the past to isolate those suffering from Leprosy. This was usually done by isolating such cases into places where people were not living otherwise known as evil forest. It is known that certain good customs were employed to have mass return every three or four years. Everybody was expected to come home. During this period, roads were constructed; bushes around the houses were cleared. Sources of water

supply like streams were kept clean. Environmental sanitation was practiced during festivals (yam festivals). Compounds were kept clean. Because Nigeria was once under the British colony, the development of environmental health in Nigeria must have been influenced by the activities of the British people and missionaries working in Nigeria before the Nigerian Independence in 1960. The environmental health services in Nigeria originated from the British army medical services.

With the integration of the army with the colonial government during the colonial era, government offered to treat the local civil servants and their relatives and eventually the local population living close by government stations. Later, various religious bodies and private agencies established hospitals, dispensaries and maternity centers in different parts of the country.

The first Nigerian to be appointed medical officer of health was Dr. Oluwole, Isaac Ladipo. He was formally serving in Abeokuta as the assistant medical officer of health. He was posted to Lagos in 1924 to be the medical officer of health. He established school of hygiene in Lagos to train public health inspectors.

With the establishment of local governments, trained public health inspectors were posted to various local government areas to take charge of the environmental sanitation in the areas. Therefore, the development of environmental health received a boost with the government establishing schools of hygiene and health technology to train various cadres of environmental health personnel.

The public health inspectors were referred to as "Wole-Wole" among the Yoruba's; "Nwaole-Ala" among the Igbo's and "Duba-Gari" among the Hausa's. They were a force to reckon with in that colonial era in the area of preventive health services in Nigeria. This was evidenced in their immense role in the eradication of yaws and smallpox in the late 1940s and early 1970s respectively.

In 1988, the name of the profession was changed to environmental health officers in line with the internationally accepted name of practitioners of the profession and also to accommodate members of the profession who graduated from the university with a degree in public health, environmental health and epidemiology.

Apart from the general environmental health duties which had hitherto been mentioned this cadre of officers have been very useful in the implementation of primary health care services at all levels of government: federal, state, and local governments respectively.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt the historical background of environmental health. You have learnt also the development of public health to environmental health in Nigeria. In the next unit, you will learn administrative management functions such as planning, organising, staffing, funding and budgeting.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt the objectives, and the historical background of environmental health. You have learnt also the development of public health to environmental health from colonial era to present day.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Account for the historical development of environmental health in Nigeria from the colonial era to present day.

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MODULE 2

Unit 1	Planning
Unit 2	Organising
Unit 3	Staffing
Unit 4	Funding
Unit 5	Budgeting

UNIT 1 PLANNING

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	The Meaning of Planning
3.2	Steps in Planning
3.3	Characteristics of Planning
3.4	Advantages of Planning
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Administrative management has been described as a social process involving responsibility for economical and effective planning and regulation of operation of an enterprise in the fulfillment of given purposes. It is a dynamic process consisting of various elements and activities. These activities are different from operative functions like marketing, finance, purchase etc. Rather these activities are common to each and every administrator irrespective of his level or status.

According to George and Jerry, there are four fundamental functions of administrative management, which is, planning, organising, actuating and controlling. According to Henri Fayol; “to manage is to forecast and plan, to organise, to command, and to control”. Whereas Luther Gullick has given an acronym: ‘POSDCORB’ where P stands for planning; O for organising; S for staffing; D for directing; Co for coordinating; R for reporting and, B for budgeting. But the most widely accepted are functions of administrative management given by Koontz and O’Donnel, which is, planning, organising, staffing, directing and controlling.

For theoretical purposes, it may be convenient to separate the function of administrative management but practically these functions are overlapping in nature, that is, they are highly inseparable. Each function blends into the other and each affects the performance of others. This unit will focus on planning function of administrative management.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define and appreciate the ingredients of planning
- identify the steps involved in effective planning
- define the characteristics of planning
- enumerate the advantages and disadvantages of planning
- explain the external factors that hinder effective planning.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Planning

Planning is the basic function of administrative management. It deals with charting out a future course of action and deciding in advance the most appropriate course of actions for achievement of pre-determined goals. It is a preparatory step. It is a systematic activity which determines when, how and who is going to perform a specific job. Planning is a detailed programme regarding future courses of action.

According to Koontz and O'Doonel, "Planning is deciding in advance – what to do, when to do and how to do. It bridges the gap from where we are and where we want to be. It makes possible things to occur which would not otherwise occur". According to Urwick, "Planning is a mental predisposition to do things in orderly way, to think before acting and to act in the light of facts rather than guesses".

Planning is deciding best alternative among others to perform different managerial functions in order to achieve predetermined goals. A plan is a future course of actions. It is an exercise in problem solving and decision making. Planning is determination of courses of action to achieve desired goals. Thus, planning is a systematic thinking about ways and means for accomplishment of pre-determined goals.

Planning is necessary to ensure proper utilisation of human and non-human resources. It is all pervasive, it is an intellectual activity and it also helps in avoiding confusion, uncertainties, risks, wastages etc. Therefore planning takes into consideration available and prospective human and physical resources of the organisation so as to get effective

co-ordination, contribution and perfect adjustment. It is the basic administrative function which includes formulation of one or more detailed plans to achieve optimum balance of needs or demands with the available resources.

3.2 Steps in Planning Function

Planning function of administrative management involves the following steps:

1. Establishment of Objectives

- (a) Planning requires a systematic approach.
- (b) Planning starts with the setting of goals and objectives to be achieved.
- (c) Objectives provide a rationale for undertaking various activities as well as indicate direction of efforts.
- (d) Moreover objectives focus the attention of managers on the end results to be achieved.
- (e) As a matter of fact, objectives provide nucleus to the planning process.

Therefore, objectives should be stated in a clear, precise and unambiguous language. Otherwise the activities undertaken are bound to be ineffective

- (f) As far as possible, objectives should be stated in quantitative terms. For example, number of men working, wages given, and units produced, etc. But such an objective cannot be stated in quantitative terms like performance of quality control manager, effectiveness of personnel manager.
- (g) Such goals should be specified in qualitative terms.
- (h) Hence objectives should be practical, acceptable, workable and achievable.

In other words, general administrative management expects every objective to be “SMART”. “SMART” is an acronym meaning that an objective must be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time – framed.

2. Establishment of Planning Premises

Establishment of planning premises includes:

- (a) Planning premises are the assumptions about the likely shape of events in future.
- (b) They serve as a basis of planning.
- (c) Establishment of planning premises is concerned with determining where one tends to deviate from the actual plans and causes of such deviations.
- (d) It is to find out what obstacles are there in the way of business during the course of operations.
- (e) Establishment of planning premises is concerned with taking such steps that avoids these obstacles to a great extent.
- (f) Planning premises may be internal or external. Internal includes capital investment policy, administrative management labour relations, philosophy of administrative management, etc. whereas external includes socio-economic, political and economic changes.
- (g) Internal premises are controllable whereas external are non-controllable.

3. Choice of Alternative Course of Action

- (a) When forecasts are available and premises are established, a number of alternative courses of actions have to be considered.
- (b) For this purpose, each and every alternative will be evaluated by weighing its pros and cons in the light of resources available and requirements of the organisation.
- (c) The merits, demerits as well as the consequences of each alternative must be examined before the choice is being made.
- (d) After objective and scientific evaluation, the best alternative is chosen.
- (e) The planners should take help of various quantitative techniques to judge the stability of an alternative.

4. Formulation of Derivative Plans

- (a) Derivative plans are the sub plans or secondary plans which help in the achievement of main plan.

- (b) Secondary plans will flow from the basic plan. These are meant to support and expedite the achievement of basic plans.
- (c) These detail plans include policies, procedures, rules, programmes, budgets, schedules, etc. For example, if profit maximisation is the main aim of the enterprise, derivative plans will include sales maximisation, production maximisation, and cost minimisation.
- (d) Derivative plans indicate time schedule and sequence of accomplishing various tasks.

5. Securing Cooperation

- (a) After the plans have been determined, it is necessary rather advisable to take subordinates or those who have to implement these plans into confidence.
- (b) The purposes behind taking them into confidence are:
 - (i) Subordinates may feel motivated since they are involved in decision making process.
 - (ii) The organisation may be able to get valuable suggestions and improvement in formulation as well as implementation of plans
 - (iii) Also the employees will be more interested in the execution of these plans.

6. Follow up/Appraisal of Plans

- (a) After choosing a particular course of action, it is put into action.
- (b) After the selected plan is implemented, it is important to appraise its effectiveness.
- (c) This is done on the basis of feedback or information received from departments or persons concerned.
- (d) This enables the management to correct deviations or modify the plan.
- (e) This step establishes a link between planning and controlling function.
- (f) The follow up must go side by side with the implementation of plans so that in the light of observations made, future plans can be made more realistic.

3.3 Characteristics of Planning

1. Planning is Goal-Oriented

- (a) Planning is made to achieve desired objective of business.
- (b) The goals established should be generally accepted otherwise individual efforts and energies will go misguided and misdirected.
- (c) Planning identifies the action that would lead to desired goals quickly and economically.
- (d) It provides sense of direction to various activities. For example, Elzade is trying to capture once again Nigerian car market by launching diesel models.

2. Planning is Looking Ahead

- (a) Planning is done for future.
- (b) It requires peeping into the future, analysing it and predicting it
- (c) Thus planning is based on forecasting.
- (d) A plan is a synthesis of forecast.
- (e) It is a mental predisposition for things to happen in future.

3. Planning is an Intellectual Process

- (a) Planning is a mental exercise involving creative thinking, sound judgment and imagination.
- (b) It is not a mere guesswork but a rotational thinking.
- (c) A manager can prepare sound plans only if he has sound judgment, foresight and imagination.
- (d) Planning is always based on goals, facts and considered estimates.

4. Planning Involves Choice and Decision making

- (a) Planning essentially involves choice among various alternatives.
- (b) Therefore, if there is only one possible course of action, there is no need planning because there is no choice.
- (c) Thus, decision making is an integral part of planning.
- (d) An administrator is surrounded by number of alternatives. He has to pick the best depending upon requirements and resources of the enterprises.

5. Planning is the Primary Function of Administrative Management /Primacy of Planning

- (a) Planning lays foundation for other functions of administrative management.
- (b) It serves as a guide for organising, staffing, directing and controlling.
- (c) All the functions of administrative management are performed within the framework of plans lay out.
- (d) Therefore planning is the basic or fundamental function of administrativemanagement.

6. Planning is a Continuous Process

- (a) Planning is a never-ending function due to the dynamic business environment.
- (b) Plans are also prepared for specific period of time and at the end of that period, plans are subjected to reevaluation and review in the light of new requirements and changing conditions.
- (c) Planning never comes to an end so long as the enterprise remains in existence day-by-day, new problems crop up demanding revision of the current plan.

7. Planning is all Pervasive

- (a) It is required at all levels of administrative management and in all departments of enterprise.
- (b) Of course, the scope of planning may differ from one level to another.
- (c) The top level may be more concerned about planning the organisation as a whole whereas the middle level may be more specific in departmental plans and the lower level plans implementation of the same.

8. Planning is Designed for Efficiency

- (a) Planning leads to accomplishment of objectives at the minimum possible cost.
- (b) It prevents wastage of resources and ensures adequate and optimum utilisation of resources.
- (c) A plan is worthless or useless if it does not value the cost incurred on it.
- (d) Therefore planning must lead to saving of time, effort and money
- (e) Planning leads to proper utilisation of men, money, materials, methods and machines.

9. Planning is Flexible

- (a) Planning is done for the future.
- (b) Since future is unpredictable, planning must provide enough room to cope with the changes in customer's demand, competition, government policies, etc.
- (c) Under changed circumstances, the original plan of action must be revised and updated to take care of the altered conditions.

3.4 Advantages of Planning

1. Planning facilitates management by objectives

- (a) Planning begins with determination of objectives.
- (b) It highlights the purposes for which various activities are to be undertaken.
- (c) In fact, it makes objectives more clear and specific.
- (d) Planning helps in focusing the attention of employees on the objectives or goals of enterprise.
- (e) Without planning an organisation has no guide.
- (f) Planning compels manager to prepare a Blue-print of the courses of action to be followed for accomplishment of objectives.
- (g) Therefore, planning brings order and rationality into the organisation.

2. Planning Minimises Uncertainties

- (a) Business is full of uncertainties.
- (b) There are risks of various types due to uncertainties.
- (c) Planning helps in reducing uncertainties of future as it involves anticipation of future events.
- (d) Although future cannot be predicted with accuracy, planning helps administrative management to anticipate future and prepare for risks by making necessary provisions to meet unexpected turn of events.
- (e) Therefore with the help of planning, uncertainties can be forecast which helps in preparing standbys. As a result, uncertainties are minimised to a great extent.

3. Planning Facilitates Coordination

- (a) Planning revolves around organisational goals.
- (b) All activities are directed towards common goals.
- (c) There is an integrated effort throughout the enterprise in various departments and groups.

- (d) It avoids duplication of efforts. In other words, it leads to better co-ordination.
- (e) It helps in finding out problems of work performance and aims at rectifying the same.

4. Planning Improves Employee's Moral

- (a) Planning creates an atmosphere of order and discipline in organisation.
- (b) Employees know in advance what is expected of them and therefore conformity can be achieved easily.
- (c) This encourages employees to do their best and also earn reward for the same.
- (d) Planning creates a healthy attitude towards work environment which helps in boosting employees' moral and efficiency.

5. Planning Helps in Achieving Economies

- (a) Effective planning secures economy since it leads to orderly allocation of resources to various operations.
- (b) It also facilitates optimum utilisation of resources which brings economy in operations.
- (c) It also prevents wastage of resources by selecting most appropriate use that will contribute to the objective of enterprise. For example, raw materials can be purchased in bulk and transportation cost can be minimised. At the same time it ensures regular supply for the production department, that is, overall efficiency.

6. Planning Facilitates Controlling:

- (a) Planning facilitates existence of certain planned goals and standard of performance.
- (b) It provides basis of controlling.
- (c) We cannot think of an effective system of controlling without existence of well-thought-out plans.
- (d) Planning provides pre-determined goals against which actual performance is compared.
- (e) In fact, planning and controlling are two sides of the same coin. If planning is root, controlling is the fruit.

7. Planning Provides Competitive Edge

- (a) Planning provides competitive edge to the enterprise over the others which do not have effective planning. This is because of the fact that planning may involve changing in work methods,

quality, quantity designs, extension of work, redefining of goals, etc.

- (b) With the help of forecasting not only the enterprise secures its future but at the same time it is able to estimate the future motives of its competitor which helps in facing future challenges.
- (c) Therefore, planning leads to best utilisation of possible resources, improves quality of production and thus the competitive strength of the enterprise is improved.

8. Planning Encourages Innovations

- (a) In the process of planning, administrators have the opportunities of suggesting ways and means of improving performance.
- (b) Planning is basically a decision making function which involves creative thinking and imagination that ultimately leads to innovation of methods and operations for growth and prosperity of the enterprise.

3.5 Disadvantages of Planning

3.5.1 Internal Limitations

There are several limitations of planning. Some of them are inherent in the process of planning like rigidity and others arise from the shortcomings of the techniques of planning and in the planners themselves. The internal limitations include:

1. Rigidity

- (a) Planning has the tendency to make administration inflexible.
- (b) Planning implies prior determination of policies, procedures and programmes and a strict adherence to them in all circumstances.
- (c) There is no scope for individual freedom, and application initiative.
- (d) The development of employees is highly doubted because of which administrative management might have faced lot of difficulties in future.
- (e) Planning therefore introduces inelasticity and discourages individual initiative and experimentation.

2. Misdirected Planning

- (a) Planning may be used to serve individual interests rather than the interest of the enterprise.

- (b) Attempts can be made to influence setting of objectives, formulation of plans and programmes to suit one's own requirement rather than that of the whole organisation.
- (c) Machinery of planning can never be free of bias. Every planner has his own likes, dislikes, preferences, attitudes and interests which are reflected in planning.

3. Time Consuming

- (a) Planning is a time consuming process because it involves collection of information, its analysis and interpretation thereof. This entire process takes a lot of time especially where there are a number of alternatives available.
- (b) Therefore planning is not suitable during emergency or crisis when quick decisions are required.

4. Probability in Planning

- (a) Planning is based on forecasts which are mere estimates about future
- (b) These estimates may lack accuracy due to the uncertainty of the future.
- (c) Any change in the anticipated situation may render plans ineffective.
- (d) Plans do not always reflect real situations in spite of the sophisticated techniques of forecasting because future is unpredictable.
- (e) Thus, excessive reliance on plans may prove to be fatal.

5. False Sense of Security

- (a) Elaborate planning may create a false sense of security to the effect that everything is taken for granted.
- (b) Administrators assume that as long as they work as per plans, it is satisfactory.
- (c) Therefore they fail to take up timely actions and an opportunity is lost.
- (d) Employees are more concerned about fulfillment of plan performance rather than any kind of change.

6. Expensive

- (a) Collection, analysis and evaluation of different information, facts and alternatives involves a lot of expenses in terms of time, effort and money.

- (b) According to Koontz and O'Donnel, 'expenses on planning should never exceed the estimated benefits from planning'.

3.5.2 External Limitations of Planning

1. Political Climate: change of government from Congress to some other political party, etc.
2. Labour Union: Strikes, lockouts, agitations.
3. Technological changes: modern techniques and equipments, computerization.
4. Policies of competitors: for example, Policies of Coca-Cola and Pepsi.
5. Natural Calamities: earthquakes and floods.
6. Changes in demand and prices: change in fashion, change in tastes, change in income level, demand falls, price falls, etc.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt that planning is the basic function of administrative management that focuses on charting a future course of action and deciding the most appropriate course of action needed to achieve pre-determined goals. It therefore requires a systematic thinking about ways and means for accomplishing pre-determined goals. It is key to ensuring proper utilisation of human and non-human resources to avoid confusion, unnecessary risks and wastages. In the next unit, you should learn organising.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you learnt the meaning and essence of planning. You have learnt also the steps that facilitate effective planning such as establishment of objectives, planning premises, choice of alternative course of action, formulation of derivative plans, securing co-operation and follow up/appraisal plans as well as reviewed the characteristics of planning, advantages and limitations.

6.0 TUTOR – MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the planning function of administrative management based on meaning, steps and characteristics.
2. State the benefits of effective planning and limitations, if any.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 ORGANISING

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the last unit, you learnt planning. In this unit, you will learn the organising function of administrative management. You will learn also the meaning, importance and principles of organising. You should be introduced to what is meant by span of control, formal and informal organisation and conclude with the advantages and disadvantages of organising.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the meaning of organising
- highlight the importance, advantages and disadvantages of organising
- explain the principles of organising
- discuss the difference between formal and informal organisation
- write the meaning and determinants of span of control.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Organising

Organising is the function of administrative management which follows planning. It is a function in which the synchronisation and combination of human, physical and financial resources takes place. It develops productive relationship amongst them for achievement of organisational goals. All the three resources are important to get results. Therefore, organisational function helps in achievement of results which in fact is important for the functioning of a concern. According to G. R. Jones, "Organising is a function by which the concern is able to define the role positions, the jobs related and the co-ordination between authority and responsibility. Hence, an administrator always has to organise in order to get results. According to McShane *et al.*, "To organise a business is to provide it with everything useful for its functioning such as raw material, tools, capital and personnel.

3.2 Steps in Organising

An administrator performs organising functions through these steps:

1. Identification of Activities

All the activities which have to be performed in a concern have to be identified first. For example, preparation of accounts, making sales, record keeping, quality control, inventory control, etc. All these activities have to be grouped and classified into units.

2. Departmentally Organising the Activities

In this step, the administrator tries to combine and group similar and related activities into units or departments. This organisation of dividing the whole concern into independent units and departments is called departmentalisation.

3. Classifying the Authority

Once the departments are made, the administrator likes to classify the powers and its extent to the administrator. This activity of giving a rank in order to the managerial positions is called hierarchy. The top administration is into formulation of policies, the middle level administration into departmental supervision and lower level administration into supervision of foremen. The clarification of authority helps in bringing efficiency in the running of a concern. This helps in achieving efficiency in the running of a concern. This helps in avoiding

wastage of time, money, effort, avoidance of duplication or overlapping of efforts and this helps in bringing smoothness in a concern's working.

4. Coordination between Authority and Responsibility

Relationships are established among various groups to enable smooth interaction toward the achievement of the organisational goal. Each individual is made aware of his authority and he or she knows whom they have to take orders from and to whom they are accountable and to whom they have to report. A clear organisational structure is drawn and all the employees are made aware of it.

3.3 Importance of Organising

1. Specialisation

Organisational structure is a network of relationships in which the work is divided into units and departments. This division of work is helping in bringing specialisation in various activities of concern.

2. Well Defined Jobs

Organisational structure helps in putting right men on right job which can be done by selecting people for various departments according to their qualifications, skill and experience. This is helping in defining the jobs properly which clarifies the role of every person.

3. Clarifies Authority

Organisational structure helps in clarifying the role positions to every administrator (status quo). This can be done by clarifying the powers to every administrator and the way he has to exercise those powers should be clarified so that misuse of powers does not take place. Well defined jobs and responsibilities attached helps in bringing efficiency into administrators working. This helps in increasing productivity.

4. Coordination

Organisation is a means of creating co-ordination among different departments of the enterprise. It creates clear cut relationships among positions and ensures mutual co-operation among individuals. Harmony of work is brought by higher level administrator exercising their authority over interconnected activities of lower level administrator. Authority responsibility relationships can be fruitful only when there is a formal relationship between the two. For smooth running of an organisation, the co-ordination between authority and responsibility is

very important. There should be co- ordination between different relationships. Clarity should be made for having an ultimate responsibility attached to every authority. There is a saying, “Authority without responsibility leads to ineffective behavior and responsibility without authority makes person ineffective.” Therefore, co- ordination of authority- responsibility is very important.

5. Effective Administration

The organisation structure is helpful in defining the jobs positions. The roles to be performed by different administrators are clarified. Specialisation is achieved through division of work. This leads to efficient and effective administration.

6. Growth and Diversification

A company’s growth is totally dependent on how efficiently and smoothly a concern works. Efficiency can be brought about by clarifying the role positions to the administrators, co-ordination between authority and responsibility and concentrating on specialisation. In addition to this, an establishment can diversify if its potential grows. This is possible only when the organisation structure is well- defined. This is possible through a set of formal structure.

7. Sense of Security

Organisational structure clarifies the job positions. The roles assigned to every administrator are clear. Co- ordination is possible. Therefore, clarity of powers helps automatically in increasing mental satisfaction and thereby a sense of security in a concern. This is very important for job- satisfaction.

8. Scope for New Changes

Where the roles and activities to be performed are clear and every person gets independence in his working, this provides enough space to an administrator to develop his talents and flourish his knowledge. An administrator gets ready for taking independent decisions which can be a road or path to adoption of new techniques of production. This scope for bringing new changes into the running of an enterprise is possible only through a set of organisational structure.

3.4 Principles of Organising

According to Goodman, and Pennings, *et al.*, “the organising process can be done efficiently if the administrators have certain guidelines so that they can take decisions and can act. To organise in an effective manner, the under-listed principles of organisation can be used by an administrator”.

(a) Principle of Specialisation

According to the principle, the whole work of a concern should be divided amongst the subordinates on the basis of qualifications, abilities and skills. It is through division of work specialisation can be achieved which results in effective organisation.

(b) Principle of Functional Definition

According to this principle, all the functions in a concern should be completely and clearly defined to the administrators and subordinates. This can be done by clearly defining the duties, responsibilities, authority and relationships of people towards each other. A clarification in authority- responsibility relationships helps in achieving co-ordination and thereby organisation can take place effectively. For example, the primary functions of production, marketing and finance and the authority responsibility relationships in these departments should be clearly defined to every person attached to that department. Clarification in the authority-responsibility relationship helps in efficient organisation.

(c) Principles of Span of Control/Supervision

According to this principle, span of control is a span of supervision which depicts the number of employees that can be handled and controlled effectively by a single administrator. According to this principle, an administrator should be able to handle what number of employees under him should be decided. This decision can be taken by choosing either from a wide or narrow span. There are two types of span of control namely: wide span of control and narrow span of control.

A. Wide Span of Control

It is one in which an administrator can supervise and control effectively a large group of persons at one time. The features of this span include:

- (i) Less overhead cost of supervision
- (ii) Prompt response from the employees

- (iii) Better communication
- (iv) Better supervision
- (v) Better co-ordination
- (vi) Suitable for repetitive jobs

According to this span, one administrator can effectively and efficiently handle a large number of subordinates at one time.

B. Narrow Span of Control

According to this span, the work and authority is divided amongst many subordinates. An administrator does not supervise and control a very big group of people under him. The administrator according to a narrow span supervises a selected number of employees at one time. The features include:

- (a) Work which requires tight control and supervision, for example, handicrafts, ivory work, etc. which requires craftsmanship, their narrow span is more helpful.
- (b) Coordination is difficult to be achieved.
- (c) Communication gaps can come.
- (d) Messages can be distorted.
- (e) Specialisation work can be achieved.

Factors Influencing Span of Control

(1) Managerial Abilities

In the concerns where administrators are capable, qualified and experienced, wide span of control is always helpful.

(2) Competence of Subordinates

Where the subordinates are capable and competent and their understanding levels are proper, the subordinates tend to very frequently visit the superiors for solving their problems. In such cases, the administrator can handle large number of employees, hence wide span is suitable.

(3) Nature of Work

If the work is of repetitive nature, wide span of supervision is more helpful. On the other hand, if work requires mental skill or craftsmanship, tight control and supervision is required in which narrow span is more helpful.

(4) Delegation of Authority

When the work is delegated to lower levels in an efficient and proper way, confusions are less and congeniality of the environment can be maintained. In such cases, wide span of control is suitable and the supervisors can manage and control large number of sub-ordinates at one time.

(5) Degree of Decentralisation

Decentralisation is done in order to achieve specialisation in which authority is shared by many people and administrators at different levels. In such cases, a tall structure is helpful. There are certain concerns where decentralisation is done in very effective way which results in direct and personal communication between superiors and sub-ordinates and there the superiors can manage large number of subordinates very easily. In such cases, wide span again helps.

(6) Principle of Scalar Chain

Scalar chain is a chain of command or authority which flows from top to bottom. With a chain of authority available, wastages of resources are minimised, communication is effected, overlapping of work is avoided and easy organisation takes place. A scalar chain of command facilitates work flow in an organisation which helps in the achievement of effective results. As the authority flows from top to bottom, it clarifies the authority positions to administrators at all level and that facilitates effective organisation.

(7) Principle of Unity of Command

It implies one subordinate-one superior relationship. Every subordinate is answerable and accountable to one boss at one time. This helps in avoiding communication gaps and feedback and response is prompt. Unity of command also helps in effective combination of resources, that is, physical, financial resources which helps in easy co-ordination and, therefore, effective organisation.

Authority Flows from Top to Bottom



According to the above diagram, the managing director has got the highest level of authority. This authority is shared by the marketing manager who shares his authority with the sales manager. From this chain of hierarchy, the official chain of communication becomes clear which is helpful in achievement of results and which provides stability to a concern. This scalar chain of command always flows from top to bottom and it defines the authority positions of different managers at different levels.

3.5 Classification of Organisations

Organisations are basically classified on the basis of relationships. There are two types of organisations formed on the basis of relationships in an organisation.

1. Formal Organisation

This is one which refers to a structure of well-defined jobs each bearing a measure of authority and responsibility. It is a conscious determination by which people accomplish goals by adhering to the norms laid down by the structure. This kind of organisation is an arbitrary set up in which each person is responsible for his performance. Formal organisation has a formal set up to achieve pre- determined goals.

2. Informal Organisation

It refers to a network of personal and social relationships which spontaneously originates within the formal set up. Informal organisations develop relationships which are built on likes, dislikes, feelings and emotions. Therefore, the network of social groups based on friendships can be called as informal organisations. There is no conscious effort made to have informal organisation. It emerges from the formal organisation and it is not based on any rules and regulations as in case of formal organisation.

Relationship between formal and informal organisations

For a concern's working both formal and informal organisation are important. Formal organisation originates from the set organisational structure and informal organisation originates from formal organisation. For an efficient organisation, both formal and informal organisations are required. They are the two phases of the same concern. Formal organisation can work independently. But informal organisation depends totally upon the formal organisation. Formal and informal organisation helps in bringing efficient working organisation and smoothness in a concern. Within the formal organisation, the members undertake the assigned duties in co- operation with each other. They interact and

communicate amongst themselves. Therefore, both formal and informal organisations are important. When several people work together for achievement of organisational goals, social tie ups tends to build and therefore informal organisation helps to secure co-operation by which goals can be achieved smooth. Therefore, we can say that informal organisation emerges from formal organisation.

3.6 Line Organisation

Line organisation is the oldest and simplest method of administrative organisation. According to this type of organisation, the authority flows from top to bottom in a concern. The line of command is carried out from top to bottom. This is the reason for calling this organisation as scalar organisation which means scalar chain of command is a part and parcel of this type of administrative organisation. In this type of organisation, the line of command flows on an even basis without any gaps in communication and co- ordination taking place.

Features of Line Organisation

1. It is the simplest form of organisation.
2. Line of authority flows from top to bottom.
3. Specialised and supportive services do not take place in these organisations.
4. Unified control by the line officers can be maintained since they can independently take decisions in their areas and spheres.
5. This kind of organisation always helps in bringing efficiency in communication and bringing stability to a concern.

Merits of Line Organisation

1. Simplest

It is the most simple and oldest method of administration.

2. Unity of Command

In these organisations, superior-subordinate relationship is maintained and scalar chain of command flows from top to bottom.

3. Better Discipline

The control is unified and concentrates on one person and therefore, he can independently make decisions of his own. Unified control ensures better discipline.

4. Fixed Responsibility

In this type of organisation, every line executive has got fixed authority, power and fixed responsibility attached to every authority.

5. Flexibility

There is a co-ordination between the top most authority and bottom line authority. Since the authority relationships are clear, line officials are independent and can flexibly take the decision. This flexibility gives satisfaction of line executives.

6. Prompt Decision

Due to the factors of fixed responsibility and unity of command, the officials can take prompt decision.

Demerits of Line Organisation

1. Over Reliance

The line executive's decisions are implemented to the bottom. This results in over-relying on the line officials.

2. Lack of Specialisation

A line organisation flows in a scalar chain from top to bottom and there is no scope for specialised functions. For example, expert advices whatever decisions are taken by line managers are implemented in the same way.

1. Inadequate Communication

The policies and strategies which are framed by the top authorities are carried out in the same way. This leaves no scope for communication from the other end. The complaints and suggestions of lower authority are not communicated back to the top authority. So there is one way communication.

2. Lack of Co-ordination

Whatever decisions are taken by the line officials, in certain situations wrong decisions are carried down and implemented in the same way. Therefore, the degree of effective co- ordination is less.

3. Authority Leadership

The line officials have tendency to misuse their authority positions. This leads to autocratic leadership and monopoly in the concern.

3.7 Line and Staff Organisation

Line and staff organisation is a modification of line organisation and it is more complex than line organisation. According to this administrative organisation, specialised and supportive activities are attached to the line of command by appointing staff supervisors and staff specialists who are attached to the line authority. The power of command always remains with the line executives and staff supervisors guide, advice and counsel the line executives. Personal secretary to the managing director is a staff official.



Features of Line and Staff Organisation

1. There are two types of staff:

(a) Staff Assistants

Personal Assistance (P.A.) to Managing Director, and Secretary to Marketing Manager.

(b) Staff Supervisor

Operation Control Manager, Quality Controller, Public Relations Officer (PRO)

2. Line and Staff Organisation is a compromise of line organisation. It is more complex than line concern.

3. Division of work and specialisation takes place in line and staff organisation.

4. The whole organisation is divided into different functional areas to which staff specialists are attached.
5. Efficiency can be achieved through the features of specialisation.
6. There are two lines of authority which flow at one time in a concern:
 - (a) Line Authority
 - (b) Staff Authority
7. Power of command remains with the line executive and staff serves only as counselors.

Merits of Line and Staff Organisation

1. Relief to Line of Executives

In a line and staff organisation, the advice and counseling which is provided to the line executives divides the work between the two. The line executive can concentrate on the execution of plans and they get relieved of dividing their attention to many areas.

2. Expert Advice

The line and staff organisation facilitates expert advice to the line executive at the time of need. The planning and investigation which is related to different matters can be done by the staff specialist and line officers can concentrate on execution of plans.

3. Benefit of Specialisation

Line and staff through division of whole concern into two types of authority divides the enterprise into parts and functional areas. This way every officer or official can concentrate in his own area.

4. Better Co-ordination

Line and staff organisation through specialisation is able to provide better decision making and concentration remains in few hands. This feature helps in bringing co- ordination in work as every official is concentrating in their own area.

5. Benefits of Research and Development

Through the advice of specialised staff, the line executives get time to execute plans by taking productive decisions which are helpful for a concern. This gives a wide scope to the line executive to bring innovations and go for research work in those areas. This is possible due to the presence of staff specialists.

6. Training

Due to the presence of staff specialists and their expert advice serves as ground for training to line officials. Line executives can give due concentration to their decision making. This in itself is a training ground for them.

7. Balanced Decisions

The factor of specialisation which is achieved by line staff helps in bringing co-ordination. This relationship automatically ends up the line official to take better and balanced decision.

8. Unity of Action

Unity of action is a result of unified control. Control and its effectiveness take place when co-ordination is present in the concern. In the line and staff authority all the officials have got independence decisions. This serves as effective control in the whole enterprise.

Demerits of Line and Staff Organisation

1. Lack of Understanding

In a line and staff organisation, there are two authorities flowing at one time. This results in the confusion between the two. As a result, the workers are not able to understand as to who is their commanding authority. Hence the problem of understanding can be a hurdle in effective running.

2. Lack of Sound Advice

The line official gets used to the expert advice of the staff. At times the staff specialist also provides wrong decisions which the line executives have to consider. This can affect the efficient running of the enterprise.

3. Line and Staff Conflicts

Line and staff are two authorities which are flowing at the same time. The factors of designations, status influence, sentiments which are related to their relation, can pose a distress on the minds of the employees. This leads to minimising of coordination which hampers a concern's working.

4. Costly

In line and staff concern, the concerns have to maintain the high remuneration of staff specialist. This proves to be costly for a concern with limited finance.

5. Assumption of Authority

The power of concern is with the line official but the staff dislikes it as they are the one more in mental work.

6. Staff Steals the Show

In a line and staff concern, the higher returns are considered to be a product of staff advice and counseling. The line officials feel dissatisfied and a feeling of distress enters a concern. The satisfaction of line officials is very important for effective results.

3.8 Functional Organisation

Functional organisation has been divided to put the specialists in the top position throughout the enterprise. This is an organisation in which we can define as a system in which functional department are created to deal with the problems of business at various levels. Functional authority remains confined to functional guidance to different departments. This helps in maintaining quality and uniformity of performance of different functions throughout the enterprise. The concept of functional organisation was suggested by F.W. Taylor who recommended the appointment of specialists at important positions. For example, the functional head and marketing director directs the subordinates throughout the organisation in his particular area. This means that subordinates receives orders from several specialists, managers working above them.

Features of Functional Organisation

1. The entire organisational activities are divided into specific functions such as operations, finance, marketing and personal relations.
2. Complex form of administrative organisation compared to the other two.
3. Three authorities exist- Line, staff and function.
4. Each functional area is put under the charge of functional specialists and he has got the authority to make all decisions regarding the function wherever the function is performed throughout the enterprise.

5. Principle of unity of command does not apply to such organisation as it is present in line organisation.

Merits of Functional Organisation

1. Specialisation

Better division of labour takes place which results in specialisation of function and its consequent benefit.

2. Effective Control

Management control is simplified as the mental functions are separated from manual functions. Checks and balances keep the authority within certain limits. Specialists may be asked to judge the performance of various sections.

3. Efficiency

Greater efficiency is achieved because of every functional area performing a limited number of activities.

4. Economy

Specialisation coupled with standardisation facilitates maximum production and minimal costs

5. Expansion

Expert knowledge of functional manager facilitates better control and supervision.

Demerits of Functional Organisation

1. Confusion

The functional system is quite complicated to put into operation, especially when it is carried out at low levels. Therefore, co-ordination becomes difficult.

2. Lack of Coordination

Disciplinary control becomes weak as a worker is commanded not by one person but a large number of people. Thus, there is no unity of command.

3. Difficulty in Fixing Responsibility

Because of multiple authorities, it is difficult to fix responsibility.

4. Conflicts

There may be conflicts among the supervisory staff of equal ranks. They may not agree on certain issues.

5. Costly

Maintenance of specialist's staff of the highest order is expensive for a concern.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In order to achieve the desired organisational objectives and goals, effective synchronisation and combination of human, physical and financial resources should take place. This unit provides the confirmation that the synchronisation of productive resources to achieve the desired result is the main function of organisation. Hence, the organising function guarantees orderliness in the combination and utilisation of resources.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the key element that ensures effective co-ordination of resources that is, organising. The concept, steps and importance of the organising function were examined. The principles of effective organising namely: specialisation, functional definition, span of control, scalar chain, unity of command among others was discussed. In the unit, we also considered types of organisation – formal and informal, and the oldest form of administrative organisation – line organisation.

6.0 TUTOR – MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain the concept of organising.
2. Discuss the basic steps and importance of organising.
3. What are the principles that facilitate effective organisation?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 STAFFING

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Staffing
 - 3.2 Significance of Staffing
 - 3.3 Recruitment Process
 - 3.4 Responsibility for Staffing
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt organising. In this unit, you will learn the meaning of staffing, the significance of staffing, recruitment process as well as who is involved in recruitment processes.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the meaning of staffing
- outline the significance of staffing
- describe recruitment process
- highlight responsibility for staffing.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Staffing

Koonize, O'Donnell and Weihrich (1980) quoted in Amadi (2011) maintain that staffing involve effective recruitment, selection, placement, appraisal and development of people to perform roles in the organisation structure. Staffing, therefore, is closely related to organising, that is, the setting up of deliberate structures of roles and positions.

Dunn, R.T. (2007) also quoted in Amadi (2011) describes staffing as the managerial function concerned with the procurement and maintenance of human resources to fulfill the institution's goals. Staffing is the sum of activities needed to attract, develop, and retain people who have the

necessary skills and knowledge to achieve organisational objectives/goals.

Adebayo (1989) maintains that staffing is concerned with the administrators' personnel function of devising an efficient and effective system of staff recruitment, training, re-training, and providing favourable conditions of work.

3.2 Significance of Staffing

Staffing involves people. The manager's functions of planning, organising and controlling can be viewed as essentially objective tasks which may even have some important mechanistic features. On the other hand, the functions of staffing and leading (directing) are concerned almost exclusively with people. The selection and direction of people may lead to the frustration of administrators who know the importance of staffing and, at the same time, recognise the limitations of the tools available for carrying out this function effectively.

Human beings are vital for the effective operation of an organisation. Yet "human assets" are virtually never shown on the balance sheet of companies as a distinct category, although a great deal of money is invested in the recruitment, selection, training and re-training of people. What is important here is the recognition that staffing, which involves people, is a crucial function of administrators and one that may well determine the success or failure of an organisation.

3.3 Recruitment Process

Recruitment has been defined as the process of searching for prospective employees and stimulating them to apply for jobs in an organisation (Njoku, 2004 quoted in Amadi, 2011). It includes all the activities of managers to develop a pool of qualified candidates for a job opening. It is a process of finding and attracting suitably qualified applicants for job positions within an organisation. An organisation needs to attract more candidates in order to increase the selection ratio as to increase the opportunity of selecting the best out of a larger number.

Therefore, the process of recruiting candidates and of selecting from among them, those likely to be of the greatest value to the organisation is one of the most crucial processes for any organisation. Every work organisation requires employees to function while employees require reward to survive and contribute to the achievement of organisational goals.

From the above, it is obvious that recruitment is concerned with developing a pool of job candidates in line with the personnel plan and policies. The purpose of recruitment is to provide a large group of candidates so that the organisation will be able to select the qualified employees it needs. This involves job analysis, job description for operative level and position description for managerial level.

Recruitment could be general when the organisation needs a group of workers for operative level of typists or sales people while it could be specialised recruiting when the organisation desires a particular type of individual for specialist or executive positions.

All recruitment in public owned institution should be based on stable and effective personnel policies in order to promote harmonious industrial relations, worker – management, worker – management relations, job satisfaction and high productivity. Recruitment helps to attract the right people, select the right employees, retain the right employees and develop the right skills and knowledge.

Sources of Recruitment

Ojo (1988) quoted in Amadi (2011) categorised recruitment sources into two, namely internal and external recruitments.

1. Internal Recruitment

This is when recruitment is from the existing or within the organisational members. Internal recruitment can be in form of transfer, lateral conversion, transfer or promotion through internal advertisement to fill a vacancy.

This type of recruitment is talent search within the organisation which encourages employees to take appropriate tests or be interviewed for promotion. It is less expensive, help administrators to manage succession and career progression for existing staff, foster loyalty and inspire greater effort among organisation personnel.

2. External Recruitments

This is when new people are being sourced into the organisation. In this case, job candidates from outside the organisation are attracted to apply for vacant positions in an organisation. The following are the potential sources of external recruitment: employment agencies, advertisements, educational institutions, and unsolicited applicants, recommendation from employees, labour unions and professional associations.

External recruitment is very expensive and time consuming since recruiters may buy large and costly adverts in newspapers and in national publications in search of professionals. Large and multi-national organisations regard this method of recruitment as the best way to source for qualified personnel who would inject new blood into the organisation

In public service, the civil service commission at the federal and state levels performs all recruitment exercise while public owned institution established by act of the national assembly can outsource their recruitment and selection processes to specialised agencies and consultants. The use of this method depends on the goal of the organisation, job and personnel recruitment, recruitment policy, structure and size of the organisation.

3.4 Responsibility for Staffing

The responsibility for staffing should rest with every administrator at all levels. However, the ultimate responsibility is with the chief executive officer and the policy-making group of executives. These have the duty of developing a policy, assigning its execution to subordinates, and making sure it is properly carried out. Policy formulations, for example, include decisions about the development of a staffing programme, whether to promote from within or to secure from the outside, whether to seek candidates, which selection procedure to adopt, the kind of appraisal programme to use etc.

Line managers should certainly request the services of staff members (usually from the personnel department) to assist in the recruiting, selecting, placing, promoting, appraising and training of people. In the final analysis, however, it is the administrators' responsibility to fill the positions with the best suitably qualified persons.

Staffing (Recruitment) Problems in Nigeria

Some of the recruitment problems encountered by Nigerian organisations in the staffing process include:

(a) Ethnic Consideration

Ethnic considerations such as tribalism and primordial interest in terms of recruitment, policies are visible and alarming. It is disputable that cultural diversity and ethnic nationalism has affected the growth of organisations and effective human capital management especially in Nigeria public administration.

(b) Corruption

Many Nigerian recruitment officers are over corrupt. They demand huge sums of money from applicants before selection and placement thereby offering employment to the highest bidder, in disregard of meritocracy. This would promote recruitment of mediocre and unskilled manpower at the detriment of the organisation.

(c) Federal Character Factor

Federal character factor is another major problem confronting organisational recruitment in Nigeria public service. Federal Character Commission is established and enshrined in the constitution to ensure geographical spread in all government recruitment and appointments. Also, Federal Character guidelines must be strictly adhered to even when there is no qualified candidate in the area. This affects efficiency and recruitment based on merit.

(d) Poor Education Programmes

Nigeria institutions of learning have failed to orientate their educational programmes to the special needs of the country so as to increase adaptation in the workplace by the new employees. This is a recruitment problem because non-industrial background of employees has a slowing down effect on adaptation to industrial life with its consequence of low productivity. This is one of the reasons why many Nigerian engineers are not important until after a long period of on-the-job training.

(e) Manpower Shortage Factor

There is the shortage of manpower especially in the technical fields. Though, the establishment of more polytechnics and technical colleges are expected to solve the problem, but many institutions do not have trainers and manpower to satisfy organisational manpower needs in technical fields. This leads to scarcity of manpower and competition among organisation.

(f) Religious Consideration

Recruitment of qualified manpower into the public service is affected by religious factor in Nigeria. This is because Nigeria is inhabited with three major ethnic groups and three major religions. There are Christians, Islam and traditional religion. The religious or Sharia crisis in the north has forced many public servants or would be public servants to reject employment and deployment to the northern parts. This

weakens the emergence of a strong and dedicated national public service.

(g) High Expectation Factor

There is an unnecessary high expectation among workers. Young graduates especially in professional areas are too ambitious and demand huge pay and allowances. When organisations are unable to meet these expectations, they feel cheated thereby rejecting or resigning their appointment at the detriment of the organisation.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt the meaning of staffing, significance of staffing, recruitment process and responsibility for staffing. In the next unit, you will learn about funding.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the meaning and significance of staffing, recruitment process including internal and external sources of recruitment, responsibility for staffing and staffing (recruitment) problems in Nigeria ranging from ethnic, religious, corruption to federal character problems.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is the meaning of staffing?
2. Why is staffing important.
3. State and explain five (5) staffing problems in Nigeria.

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UNIT 4 FUNDING

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Fund
 - 3.2 Health Care Funding
 - 3.3 Sources of Health Care Funding
 - 3.4 Other Sources of Funding
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt staffing. In this unit, you will learn the meaning of funding, health care funding, sources of health care funding as well as other sources of funding.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the meaning of fund
- highlight health care funding
- identify sources of health care funding
- describe other sources of health care funding.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Fund

Fund as a word has attracted many and varied definitions. Fund is synonymous with finance. It is dynamic in nature and relates to actions on receiving, holding, transfer and use of funds. Hornby, A. S. (2006:605) describes fund as an amount of money that has been saved or has been made available for a particular purpose, money that is available to be spent, for example government funds, to provide money for something official such as government-funded programme.

Fund has also been defined as the sum of money set aside and ear marked for a specified purpose, for example, pension's fund.

From the above definitions, it is clear that fund is needed for economic activity to take place. Indeed, fund is central to every activity, whether economic or non-economic activity. Fund, therefore, is simply the study of money and its management.

3.2 Health Care Funding

How much a country spends on health care as a proportion of its total national income depends on how much value it places on health care in comparison with other categories of goods and services. The federal government of Nigeria, for example, through the national health policy and strategy to achieve health for all Nigerians, put funding of health care in a pride of place. It states, among others, that the federal and state government shall review their allocation of resources and that high priority shall be accorded to primary health care with particular reference to other underfunded areas and groups.

Furthermore, community resources shall be mobilised in the spirit of self-help and self-reliance effort should be made to re-distribute financial allocation among promotive, preventive, and curative care services to ensure that more emphasis is placed on promotive and preventive services.

3.3 Sources of Health Care Funding Federal, States and Local Governments

The federal, states and local governments fund their health care through their annual budgets from statutory allocations from federation account and internally generated revenue (IGR). Since health is in the concurrent list, the federal government funds federal specialist and teaching hospitals, the states fund state teaching and general hospitals while the local governments fund primary health care departments respectively.

Health care can be funded through various sources. Most of these sources are used in varying combinations in both market-oriented and centrally planned economies. Developing countries also use various sources in funding health care. This is because they have found out that no one source is sufficient to meet all health care needs. They then resort to a broadening range of support sources in their attempts to expand coverage and improve quality of health care.

Another source of most health care funding is the incomes earned by factors of production, including the wages and salaries of workers, and profits retained by owners of capital. In most countries, consumers give up their decision-making power over the level and allocation of health care funding to collective mechanism providers. Even where households and businesses make substantial direct payments for health care, these

tend to be greatly influenced by the pattern of funding through indirect mechanisms.

3.4 Other Sources of Funding

Other sources of funding include: Public and quasi-public sources, private sources, and privatisation (getting the private sector more involved in health care delivery).

1. Public and Quasi-Public Source

This category includes general tax revenues, deficit financing, sales tax revenue, social insurance and income from lotteries and betting operations.

(a) General Tax Revenues

These are the single most important sources of health care funding. Developing countries with low tax ratios are usually not able to support health care. Duties from imports and exports are usually the most important component of general tax revenues in low-income countries. The level of funding for health care from general tax can be increased either by reallocating fund from other sectors or by, at least, maintaining the health sectors share of public funds as general tax revenues rise. In developing countries, however, none of these is often possible; hence, the government is forced to seek other ways of generating additional funding for the health sectors.

(b) Deficit Financing (Funding)

Governments can augment general tax revenues through borrowing (domestically and internationally) such borrowing is usually referred to as deficit financing (funding).

Domestic (debt funding) is usually done by the insurance and sale of debt certificates or bonds, with guaranteed interest rate, to the public. Debt financing is typically used for specific projects such as the construction of hospitals, health centers and purchase of refuse disposal trucks and equipment.

Another major source of deficit funding is bilateral and multilateral foreign aids in form of long-term or low interest loans. In most of the developing countries, foreign aid has been a major source of health care funding. It even exceeds general tax revenues.

(c) Sales Tax Revenues

In many developing countries, state and local governments are empowered to impose sales tax on some commodities. For this source to be relevant for funding health care, the revenue derived should be specifically earmarked for health purposes. Such taxes are often imposed on the sale of liquor and beer, tobacco and cigarettes, sports events and recreational activities.

(d) Social Insurance

Social insurance is often referred to as social security. This is a system of funding health care as well as support for invalids and old age workers by imposing mandatory insurance payments as a percentage of their wages, and by imposing on employers a similar or somewhat higher payroll tax. In some cases, the government is a third contributor to the scheme, and workers may have to pay a user fee in addition to their wage deductions. Its principal shortcoming is its limited coverage since it only covers workers employed in enterprises that are characterised as “modern”.

(e) Lotteries and Betting

This is not a common source of funding health care in developing countries. However, it constitutes a ready source of money to government as a way of funding health care.

2. Private Sources

Private Sources of funding include: Direct employer funding, private health insurance, charitable contributions, user charges, and community funding.

(a) Direct Employer Funding

Both Private and public sector employers may directly provide health care for their employees. Depending on the size and geographical location of large enterprises, they may either pay for private sector health services or employ medical personnel on a full-or-part time basis and provide the necessary physical facilities and equipment.

(b) Private Health Insurance

This differs from social insurance in two ways. First, private health insurance typically covers only health care and does not include pensions for invalidity and old age. Second, private health insurance is

financed through premiums that are based on the actually determined likelihood of illness of the individual covered by an insurance policy. Private health insurance can be operated on either profit or non-profit basis and can be bought either by individuals or groups. Individual health insurance schemes are costly to administer that only a few can afford to pay the premium. Group insurance is cheaper.

(c) Charitable Contributions

These can take the form of financial support or consist of in-kind donations of personal services, physical facilities, equipment and supplies. Major sources of charitable contributions include contributions from wealthy families, business enterprise as well as religious organisations. Charitable contributions are not necessarily unselfish in their intent and one must consider the possibility of hidden costs to the individual or society.

Charitable contributions have other liabilities. For example, the donors may have priorities that do not coincide with the most pressing health needs of the population and may prefer to provide physical facilities and equipment as visible evidence of their charity and expect other sources to provide the operating budgets necessary to run them.

In many developing countries, charitable contributions constitute important source of support for health care. The largest charitable contributions often come from foreign bilateral or multilateral organisations (such as UNICEF) in the form of grant aid, as distinct from loan aid.

(d). User Charges

These are charges (fees) on the user of health care services. These fees are diverse. For example, a fee (charge) may be required for an encounter with the health care provider, an episode of illness or a fixed number of contacts with the health care system. Thus, the rate charges (rate) applied to the various situations varies widely. User charges have the advantages of providing a link between financial responsibility and the provision of services. This link has generally enhanced willingness to contribute to the cost of health programmes and has encouraged consumers and providers to be cost-conscious. In addition, user charges help to control the use of health services by imposing financial incentives on the consumer.

However, the administration of user charges presents serious challenges. Majority of studies in developing countries have shown that the largest reduction in the use of services as a result of charges occurs among the

poor. In this respect, charges are in conflict with the aims of health for all and equity, unless effective safeguards can be developed to protect the poor by exemption. On the other hand, if charging for services enables money to be released for development of services for those not currently provided with them, then equity is increased. The major problems are to limit the occurrence of bad debts that are hard to collect.

3. Community Funding

The following methods of inducing the community (apart from user charges) to fund specific health services include:

(i) Personal Service Fees

Personal Service fees are fees for services rendered by health workers. These differ from user charges (or fees) in that they are meant primarily to meet the opportunity cost of the time of the person providing the service. However, like user fees, they can be used to cover the cost of drugs and medicines.

(ii) Drug Sales

This involves selling basic drugs in specific communities. The proceeds from the sales are used to purchase new stocks. Prices of such drugs are made lower than the prices of those in private pharmacies and voluntary labour are used to dispense them as to keep low the prices. Public fund can be used to subsidise the prices.

(iii) Personal and Production-Based Prepayments

Under this, payment from health services include before illness. It is a form of insurance. Personal prepayment differ from production-based prepayment in that in the former, households or individuals contribute directly (in cash or kind) to an insurance scheme whereas, in production-based prepayment, household or individual contributes to the insurance scheme through levels on the output they sell. The prepaid health services are equally available to all members of the scheme irrespective of differences in their illness, health status, or ability to pay. Thus, in health insurance schemes, healthy individuals subsidize the sick because the health services they pay for are used by those who are sick.

(iv) Community and Individual Labour

This is a voluntary labour by the community or individual for health activities. This might take the form of construction of dispensaries, building latrines or improvements in environmental sanitation.

Individual labour might be volunteered for immunisation campaigns, health education, and the distribution of family planning materials, and metizan etc.

(v). Community Contribution

These may take different forms such as cash, materials, land and livestock. In some communities, a substantial amount of resources can be mobilised through fund raising. Community contributions are commonly used to fund expenditures such as the construction of health facilities.

4. Privatisation

This involves getting the private sector more involved in health care delivery. Privatisation is a useful means of funding health care when the government, or the public, can no longer fund it. There are many privatisation options, some of which include: Leasing public hospitals and waste disposal to the private sector, allowing private doctors to be admitted to public hospital, permit private practice for public doctors, contract out selected non-medical services (divestiture) encourage the expansion of health maintenance organisations, and impose user charges (fees) etc.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt the meaning of fund, health care funding, sources of health care funding as well as other sources of funding. In the next unit, you will learn budgeting.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the meaning of fund, health care funding, sources of health care funding and other sources of health care funding. You have learnt also public and quasi-public sources, private sources as well as privatisation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is the meaning of fund?
2. State and explain three (3) other sources of health care funding.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5 BUDGETING

CONTENTS

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 - 3.2 Importance of Budget
 - 3.3 Types of Budget
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 - 3.4.1 Budgetary Process
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt funding of health care. In this unit, you would learn the meaning of budget, the importance of budget, types of budget, forms of budget, systems of budgeting and budgeting techniques and budgetary process.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the meaning of budget
- list the importance of budget
- highlight types of budget, forms of budget and budget period
- describe systems of budgeting and budgeting techniques
- prepare the budgetary processes.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Budget

Koontz, O'Donnell and Wehrich (1980) define budget as the formulation of plans for a given future period in numerical terms. Budgeting is the process of preparing budgets and can be defined as a systematic and formalised approach for stating and communicating a firm's expectations and accomplishing the planning, coordinating, and

controlling responsibilities of administrative management in such a way as to minimise the use of given resources to achieve maximum results (Ihedioha, 2003).

On the other hand, a budget has been defined by Kontz and his colleagues, as a statement of anticipated results, in financial terms (as in revenue and expenses and capital budgets) or in non-financial terms (as in budgets of direct-labour hours, materials, physical sales volume or units of production. A budget is a quantitative expression of a plan of action. It is a comprehensive and coordinated plan expressed in financial or non-financial terms for some specific periods in future known as budget periods.

Esiagu and Ezeali (2009) defines budget as an official document containing the financial plan of government within a fiscal year. It is an estimate of public revenue and expenditure over a stipulated period of time usually a year. Budget is a quantitative expression of government plan for a given period of time usually a year. In its broader definition, budget can also be defined as a process which involves the qualification in monetary terms of the overall objectives which government has set for itself and for effecting and controlling the numerous activities resulting from its operations. It helps to determine the level of resources needed to achieve plan objective, deploys those resources and set the policy for conducting the programmes and activities. As an annual event it is tactical in nature because it has a short-term impact.

3.2 Importance of Budget

Budgeting is important because of the following advantages realised from it, and planning in general:

(i) Budgeting provides forecasting

The administrative management is to examine critically every factor likely to impact on the achievement of planned objectives and to ensure that the necessary precautionary measures are taken well in advance.

- (ii) Budgeting forces administrative management to be forward looking so as to improve the management skills.
- (iii) As administrators are made to participate fully in the preparation of their respective functional budgets, they acquire and accumulate knowledge about their functions which will help improve the quality of their decisions.
- (iv) Budgeting assists administrative management in their co-ordination function.

3.3 Types of Budget

Each organisation is unique in terms of the type of budget it needs and will prepare. However, two types of budgets are typical of every organisation namely: Revenue and Expense Budget; and Capital Budget.

(i) Revenue and Expense Budget

This spells out plans for revenues and operating expenses in monetary terms. The most basic of revenue budget is the sales budget. Budgets can be on direct labour, materials, clerical, rent, heat, power, depreciation, travel, entertainment, etc.

(ii) This kind of budget contains expenditure on items that are of recurrent in nature, which are incurred on yearly, monthly or daily basis. It embodies expenditure on such items such as personnel salaries and emoluments, allowances and honoraria, repairs of building and purchase of stationeries.

(iii) Capital Budget (capital expenditure budget)

This outlines, specifically, capital expenditures for plants, machinery, equipment, inventories, and other capital items. It is a plan that shows major items to be purchased.

It shows also expenditures on major capital items such as construction of roads and bridges, schools, hospitals, health centers, and other capital intensive projects such as dams for ports, docks and harbours', residential buildings, offices and machineries for factories etc. these expenditures are of capital nature and have long amortisation periods (pay back a debt by making small regular payments over a period of time) and enduring life spans.

3.3.1 Forms of Budget

There are two forms of budget namely: Fixed budget and Continuous budget.

1. Fixed Budget

This is a periodic budget prepared for a specific period of time usually a year. All governmental activities for the period covered by the budget are limited to the amount so allocated for that period. Though, the focus and the scope of the budget is limited thereby ensuring reallocation of resources to the best alternative use from time to time, but the major

demerit of the system is that it normally prevents continuation of government activity and in most cases encourages waste.

2. Continuous Budget

This is a rolling budget that is continuously updated to maintain a specific number of years, for example, rolling plan for 3 years, that is, from 2011 to 2013. At the end of 2011, the budget is updated to cover 2013. Actual result is reviewed from time to time as the basis of updating the future budget.

The system encourages continuity of governmental activities and ensures that projects are reviewed from time to time. It also reduces waste and ensures adequate monitoring on government projects. Continuous budgeting requires skill and experienced personnel, which most government cannot provide. It also takes time and requires more data, which in most cases are difficult to obtain.

3.3.2 Budget Period

Although the length of the budget period may vary, most health organisations choose one year. This period is broken down into quarters, and many even divide it by months at the time of the original budget preparation. This is usually referred to as periodic budgeting. Health institutions also typically have budgets extending over a longer term, such as three or five years. Such budgets usually cover such items as capital expenditures, research programmes, and expansions. These budgets are planning, not controlling tools. For most health organisations, it is difficult to plan much beyond five years because health service is so regulated and the regulations may vary greatly, depending on elected officials in government and the economy.

3.4 Systems of Budgeting and Budgeting Techniques

Budgeting techniques that should be discussed here include; line – item budgeting system, incremental budgeting, zero–base budgeting, planning, programming and budgeting, programme and performance budgeting.

1. Line – Item Budgeting System

This is a system whereby the budget preparation is based on the items on which government spends money such as salaries, rent, transportation etc. emphasis is on what government spends and nothing is said of the objectives of the government. It is mostly used in the public sector.

Additionally, line itemisation of expenditure is a system whereby the budget is prepared based on the items on which the government intends to incur expenditure such as the second Niger Bridge, Njaba General Hospital etc. This is to ensure that money is spent specifically on items mentioned. It is known as input classification system or traditional budgeting or input oriented budget.

Advantages of Line-Item Budget

- (a) It ensures that money is spent on specific job mentioned.
- (b) It prevents improper use of funds.
- (c) It enhances executive control as it enables comparison to be made between what is authorised and what is spent.
- (d) It promotes accurate keeping of accounts.
- (e) It is easy to ascertain whether the budget was strictly followed or not.

Disadvantages of Line-Item Budget

- (a) The system places emphasis on input rather than output of the budget.
- (b) The resource allocation in most cases is not done adequately under this budget.
- (c) The budget lacks objectives.
- (d) In most cases, the detail on activity to be performed on each item is not specified.

1. Incremental Budgeting

Incremental budgeting is a budgeting by which a fixed percentage based on expected inflation rate and proposed new activities are added to the previous year budget, that is, (the base year budget X inflation factor) = (inflation value of new activities).

Advantages of Incremental Budgeting

- (a) Very easy and simple to operate.
- (b) It does not require any expert.
- (c) It makes delegation of duties easier.
- (d) It is very cheap to operate because not much data or information is required.
- (e) It ensures that activities of the government are continued.

Disadvantages of Incremental Budgeting

- (a) It does not identify new projects of high priority for funding.
- (b) The budget system relies so much on absolute value rather than relative value.
- (c) It concentrates on financial inputs and not on the service outputs which are to be financed.
- (d) Projects are not properly evaluated, thereby given priority to projects of little value.

1. Zero – Base Budgeting (ZBB)

This is a budgeting system in which government policy and programmes are retired at the end of every financial year in order to present it afresh in the next budget year as a new package.

Oshisami and Dean (1984) quoted in Esiagu and Ezeali (2009) define ZBB as an operation, planning and budgeting process which requires each administrator to justify his entire budget from the scratch.

Peter Phyr (1960) defines ZBB as a system in which the preparation of budget has to start from the scratch at all times. It is a management process that provides for systematic consideration of all programmes and activities in conjunction with the formulation of budget programme planning. This technique was propounded in 1960 and adopted by the states of Texas and Georgia in 1973 and other ten states in 1977.

Advantages of Zero – Base Budgeting (ZBB)

Peter Phyr (1960) stated the following advantages:

- (a) ZBB ensures that all the possible alternatives are carefully evaluated and ranked according to the benefit expected.
- (b) ZBB ensures efficient and effective allocation of scarce resources among the competing end.
- (c) ZBB encourages co-operation and involvement of all levels of management.
- (d) It enables management attention to be focused on exceptional areas where there are problems.
- (e) Management is forced to review the existing projects and come up with new ones.
- (f) ZBB leads to a greater understanding of the organisation by the employee and employer through management by objective (MBO) or participatory decision-making.
- (g) ZBB eliminates low priority programmes.

Disadvantages of Zero – Base Budgeting (ZBB)

- (a) ZBB is time consuming and energy wasting method of budgeting.
- (b) Not all budgets can be ranked, for instance, legal projects or service project cannot be ranked effectively.
- (c) The cost of operating the method and considering the paper work and manpower required may be unavailable to the users.
- (d) The budgetary method devise politicking thus its relevance in government is questionable.
- (e) It may lead to abandoned project since it last only for one year.

4. Planning, Programming and Budgeting System (PPBS)

This is a budgeting system that is characterised by the system approach to planning. It involves defining objectives of the organisation and providing regular procedure for reviewing goals and objectives for selecting and planning programme over a period of years in terms of output related to objective and resources necessary to achieve them. It is a budgeting technique which allows government decision to be spread over a long period of time, thereby concentrating on forward planning and programming by formulating budgets relating to plans and programmes.

Schultze (1968) stated the following six elements when he was a Director of the United States Bureau of Budget:

- (a) Identification and examination of goals and objectives in each major area of government activity.
- (b) Analysis of the output of a given programme in terms of its objectives.
- (c) Measurement of total programme cost not just one but for at least a year ahead.
- (d) Formulation of objectives and programmes for 3 – 5 years.
- (e) Analysis of alternatives to find the most effective means of reaching basic programme objectives.
- (f) Establishment of these analytical procedures as a systematic part of budget review.

Advantages of Planning, Programming Budgeting System

- (a) The objectives of the organisation are clearly defined.
- (b) The method enhances effective co-ordination in an organisation.
- (c) It is a long term/corporate planning technique that focus more on the future.
- (d) Critical cost evaluation of all possible means of achieving the objectives are undertaken over the years.

- (e) PPBS have an inbuilt method of reviewing the budget hence feedback is enhanced.
- (f) The method also guarantees effective resource allocation.

Disadvantages of Planning, Programming and Budgeting

- (a) It requires experience and skilled manpower, which may be too expensive in practice.
- (b) The system requires adequate understanding of every face of the organisation, which may not be possible.
- (c) The programme cost content of an objective may be difficult to identify.
- (d) The use of the system calls for stable government policy and predictable environment, which is unlikely in business world.

4. Programme and Performance Budgeting System (PPB)

This is a system of budgeting which presents the purpose for which funds are requested and establish quantitative means of measuring the output of the objectives in terms of cost expended. Performance budgeting is a management oriented system which aid administrators to assess the work efficiency of operating units by casting the budget into functional terms thereby providing work cost management to enhance efficient performance of prescribed activities.

Characteristics of Programme and Performance Budgeting (PPB)

- (a) Classification of budgets in terms of function, programme and activity.
- (b) Expression of the budget in such a way that it allows a direct comparison between cost of funding and work to be performed for each programme activity.
- (c) Measurement of work done or outputs provided by each activity.
- (d) Monitoring of actual cost against the budgeted cost and performance.

Advantages of Programme and Performance Budgeting (PPB)

- (a) It increases efficiency of work performed.
- (b) It ensures that funds are not allocated to a single project twice.
- (c) It ensures that monies are spent for the purpose for which they are allocated.
- (d) Adequate supervision of the project by the control units is enhanced.
- (e) It enables the presentation of all aspects of major capital budgets.

Disadvantages of Programme and Performance Budgeting (PPB)

- (a) The cost of monitoring the project may be too exorbitant for the organisation operating PPB.
- (b) The necessary manpower may not be available to operate this type of budgeting system.
- (c) It is time consuming, energy wasting and involves a lot of paper work and mental tasks.
- (d) It is a yearly plan ritual, rather than a long term plan.
- (e) It is of lower utility due to its emphasis on quantity.

3.5 Budgetary Process in Nigeria

1. Department of Budget and Planning

The President articulates the government objective in terms of economic, social and other welfare parameters. These are made known to budget department and the economic adviser. Based on this, the minister of finance devises a more detailed vision of the policies and issues a call circular to ministries requesting estimate to be prepared according to budget guideline.

2. Ministries and Departments

On receiving the call circular demanding budget estimate by ministries / departments, the call circular will be sent to the budget committee of the ministries to consider and reconcile the budget proposal submitted by various departments, division, and agents in the ministry. The adjusted draft is forwarded to the accounting officer for his approval before presentation to the budget department under the ministry of finance for final approval.

3. Executive Council

Ministries will submit their estimates to the budget department which will in turn invite them to review defend and adjust their budgets where necessary.

The president will meet with the executive council to deliberate on the budget and make necessary adjustment. After the meeting, the budget department aggregates the budget into “consolidated estimate of revenue and expenditure” which is passed to the president and his executive for final approval as appropriation bill.

4. National Assembly

The two houses of the National Assembly, the House of Senate and Representatives hold a joint session called “budget meeting”. The president presents appropriation bill to them for debate and to make modifications to it before passing the bill. The appropriation bill as amended will be sent to the president for his approval, which then becomes appropriation act or approved budget for the year.

1. Execution of Budget / Release of Funds

A copy of the approved budget is sent to the minister for finance and based on it, the minister issues the general warrant, which must be in line with the content of the approved budget.

2. Monitoring and Control Mechanism

The final account of every ministry is submitted to the accountant – general of the federation. The accountant – general must submit accounts of the federation to Auditor general for audit. The auditor general for the federation reports to the national assembly through the public accounts committee.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt the meaning of budget, importance of budget, budgeting techniques as well as its objective. In the next unit, you will learn the organogram in the federal states and local governments.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the meaning of budget, the importance of budget, types of budget, forms of budget and budget period. You have learnt also budgeting techniques which include, incremental budgeting, zero-base budgeting, line-item budgeting system, planning, programming and budgeting system and programme and performance budgeting system. Finally, we discussed budgetary process in Nigeria.

6.0 TUTOR – MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is the meaning of budgeting?
2. Why is budgeting important.
3. State types and forms of budget.
4. Discuss three (3) budgeting and budgeting techniques you know.
5. Explain six (6) steps involved in budgeting process in Nigeria.

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MODULE 3

- Unit 1 Organisational/Administrative Chart of Federal Ministry of Health (FMOH); State Ministry of Health (SMOH) and Local Government Health Department (LGHD)
- Unit 2 Inter-sectoral Collaboration

UNIT 1 **ORGANISATIONAL/ADMINISTRATIVE CHART OF FEDERAL MINISTRY OF HEALTH (FMOH); STATE MINISTRY OF HEALTH (SMOH) AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT HEALTH DEPARTMENT (LGHD)**

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Organisational/Administrative Chart of Federal Ministry of Health
 - 3.2 Organisational/Administrative Chart of State Ministry of Health
 - 3.3 Organisational/Administrative Chart of Local Government Health Department
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor – Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References / Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you have learnt budgeting. In this unit, you will learn the organisational/administrative charts of the Federal Ministry of Health (FMOH), the State Ministry of Health (SMOH), and local government health department respectively.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- recognise the organisational/administrative chart of the federal ministry of health (FMOH)
- identify the organisational/administrative chart of the state ministry of health (SMOH)

- highlight the organisational/administrative chart of the local government health department (LGHD).

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Organisational/Administrative Chart of Federal Ministry of Health (FMOH)

The federal ministry of health (FMOH) comprises seven departments namely: the department of family health, department of finance and account, department of health planning, research and statistics; department of hospital services, department of human resources, and department of procurement and, department of public health.

The FMOH is a Nigerian ministry whose mission is to develop and implement policies and programmes and undertake other actions to deliver effective, efficient, quality and affordable health services. It is headed by a minister appointed by the president, assisted by a permanent secretary who is a career civil servant and a minister of state of health who is appointed by the President.

The ministry has seven departments specialising in different aspects of health care.

1. Family Health Department

The family health department is concerned with the awareness on reproductive, maternal, neonatal and child health, ensuring sound nutrition including infant and young child feeding, and care of the elderly and adolescents.

2. Public Health Department

The implementation and evaluation of the public health policies and guidelines is done by the public health department. It undertakes health promotion, surveillance, prevention and control of diseases.

3. Planning, Research and Statistics Department

The planning, research and statistics department is concerned with developing plans and budgets and monitoring their implementation, serving as secretariat to the national council on health, conducting research in collaboration with other departments and agencies, institutions and parastatals, conducting operational research and data collection, and performing various coordination functions.

4. Hospital Services Department

The hospital services department supervises federal tertiary hospitals – Nigeria’s teaching hospitals, federal medical centres and national eye centres. the department processes appointment of chief medical directors and medical directors, supervises oral health research, develops policy on nursing, co-ordinates training programmes for nurses and monitors the midwifery service scheme in collaboration with National Agency for Food and Drug Administration and Control (NAFDAC).

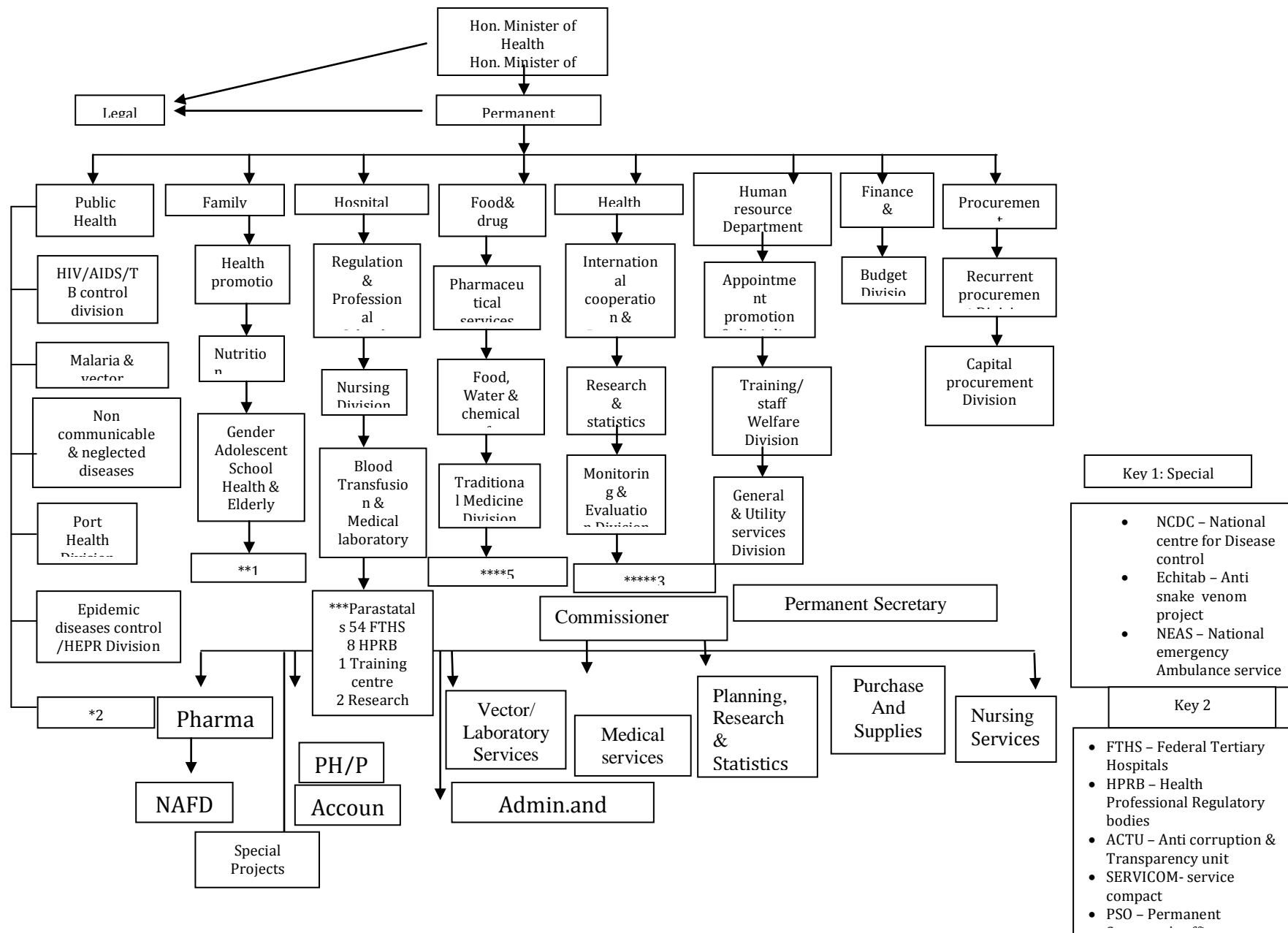
5. Food and Drug Services Department

The food and drug services department formulates national policies, guidelines and strategies on food and drugs, and ensures ethical delivery of pharmaceutical services nationwide. The department sponsors the National Institute for Pharmaceutical Research and Development and the National Agency for Food and Drug Administration and Control, and acts as regulator through the Pharmacist Council of Nigeria, the Institute of Chartered Chemist of Nigeria and the Institute of Public Analyst of Nigeria. (See diagram below)

3.2 Organisational/Administrative chart of the Federal Ministry of Health Organisational/Administrative Chart for State Ministries of Health (SMOH)

The State Ministry of Health has eight departments namely: department Medical Services, department of Vector/Laboratory Services, department of Public Health/Primary Health Care, department of Pharmacy, department of Purchase and Supply, department of Planning, Research & Statistics; department of Finance and Accounts, and department of Administration. The Hospital Management Board (HMB) is a parastatal under the supervision of the state ministry of health.

The state ministry of health is headed by a Commissioner appointed by the Governor. He is assisted by a Permanent Secretary who is a career civil servant. (See diagram).

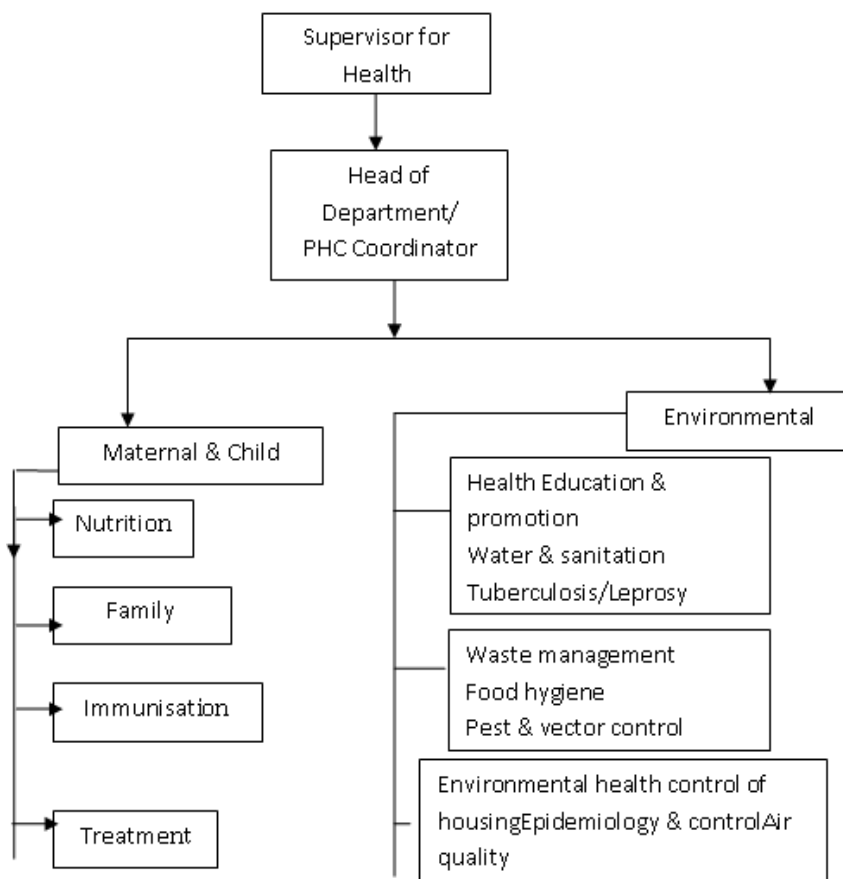


3.3 Organisational/Administrative Chart for Local Government Health Department (LGHD)

The local government health department has two major sections namely: environmental health section, and maternal and child health section. the environmental health section consists of the following units: waste management unit, food hygiene and control unit, pest and vector control unit, environmental health control of housing and sanitation unit, health education and promotion unit, TB/leprosy control unit, air quality management unit, occupational health and safety unit, water resources management and sanitation unit, noise control unit, protection of recreational environment unit, radiation control and health unit, pollution control and abatement unit, and environmental health impact assessment unit (EHIA).

The maternal and child health section consists of nutrition unit, family planning and immunisation unit, and treatment of minor ailment unit.

The local government health department is headed by a supervisor for health appointed by the chairman. He is assisted by a primary health care coordinator/head of department of health who is a career public servant.(See diagram).



4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt the organisational/administrative chart of the federal ministry of health as well as that of the state ministry of health. You have learnt also the organisational/administrative chart of the state local government. In the next unit, you will learn inter-sectoral collaboration.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you learnt the departments that make up the federal ministry of health, the departments that make up the state ministry of health, and the sections and units under the local government health department. The organisational/administrative charts of the ministries and department were drawn to show the hierarchical structures for easy reference.

6.0 TUTOR – MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. (a) Draw the organisational/administrative chart of the Federal Ministry of Health (FMOH).
(b) List the departments that make up the State Ministry of Health (SMOH).
2. (a) State the sections that make up the Local Government Health Department (LGHD).
(b) Enumerate the units that make up environmental health section.

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UNIT 2 INTRA AND INTER- SECTORAL COLLABORATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Intra and Inter-Sectoral Collaboration
 - 3.2 Need For Inter-Sectoral Collaboration
 - 3.3 Ministries and Organisations that Promote Collaboration
 - 3.3.1 Ministry of Education
 - 3.3.2 Ministry of Environment
 - 3.3.3 Ministry of Water Resources
 - 3.3.4 Ministry of Agriculture
 - 3.3.5 Churches and Religious Organisations
 - 3.3.6 Mass Media
 - 3.3.7 Employers
 - 3.4 Limitations of Inter-Sectoral collaboration
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor – Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt organisational/administrative charts of the federal ministry of health, state ministry of health, and the local government health department respectively. In this unit, you will learn the meaning, objectives, and the need for inter-sectoral collaboration. You will learn also the ministries and organisations that promote collaboration and limitations of inter-sectoral collaboration.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the meaning of intra and inter-sectoral collaboration
- discuss the need for collaboration
- identify the ministries and organisations that promote collaboration
- highlight the limitations of inter-sectoral collaboration.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Intra and Inter-Sectoral Collaboration

Intra-sectoral collaboration can be defined as work within the health sector that supports a shared vision and service co-ordination resulting in increased integration. “Inter” in this case means between two autonomous groups, so inter-sectoral means between sectors. Therefore, inter-sectoral collaboration would be people or agencies in different sectors working together co-operatively.

3.2 Need for Inter-sectoral Collaboration

The need for inter-sectoral collaboration in health comes from an awareness of the multiple causes of health and illness and the effect of the environment on their human health. The health sector alone cannot obtain significant and lasting changes in the health of the Nigerian population. Sectors such as environment, agriculture, education, water and sanitation are clearly important. Additionally, the tax base, policies and the transport system are equally important in contributing to the population’s health. Primary health care requires the support of other sectors to serve as entry point for the development and implementation of health for all.

MacDonald 1992 states that education certainly makes important contributions to the health status of populations. Education does not simply imply health education but general education as well. Education supplies not only information but also the confidence and capabilities to deal with life and environmental problems as well as self-care. Education of mothers has an enormous impact on the health of families. Inter-sectoral collaboration includes sustainable partnerships that combine inter-organisational co-operative working alliances and activities by parts of the health sector with other sectors that involve joint planning on a health related issue. Inter-sectoral collaboration goes beyond any one sector and may include public, private (business and commerce) and voluntary agencies.

3.3 Ministries and Organisations That Promote Collaboration

The collaboration between one ministry and another or between one agency and another within or outside Nigeria is inter-sectoral collaboration.

3.3.1 Ministry of Education

Let us examine some Nigerian examples in order to have a better understanding of the issue. To promote health to school children, the health promotion and health education department of the state ministry of health and the local government health department should collaborate with the ministry of education to carry out joint school health services inspection in order to examine students. During examination, school children with minor ailments should be treated, while serious cases should be referred to hospital. The attention of parents should be drawn to defects detected in their children so that parents should follow it up for better management. The health ministry should collaborate with education ministry in capacity building in tertiary institutions. They should be engaged also in training and retraining of workers.

3.3.2 Ministry of Environment

The Environmental Health Officers' Registration Council of Nigeria (EHORECON) of the Federal Ministry of Environment Collaborates with other ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) to register, license, and regulate the functions of Environmental Health Officers (EHOs), Environmental Health Technicians (EVTS), Environmental Health Assistants (EHAS) and service providers no matter where they are working in Nigeria whether in public or private sector.

3.3.3 Ministry of Water Resources

The Federal Ministry of Water Resources is in charge of water for both domestic and industrial uses. The EHOs collect water samples from the various stand pipes in the urban and rural areas to test it for bacteriological, physical and chemical analysis. The EHO certifies that the water is wholesome and fit for human consumption. This is inter-sectoral collaboration.

3.3.4 Ministry of Agriculture

The ministry of agriculture produces food and livestock for the food of man. The health ministry and agricultural ministry should collaborate to ensure that livestock killed and exposed for sale is wholesome and fit for human consumption. The EHOs should ensure that the abattoir is kept clean and well maintained.

3.3.5 Churches and Religious Organisations

Churches and religious organisations develop values, attitudes and beliefs that affect health. For example, valuing monogamous

relationships and responsible sexual behaviour minimises unwanted pregnancies and sexually transmitted diseases. Moreover, family mediation and counseling services improve the emotional and spiritual health of individuals and families.

3.3.6 Mass Media

The mass media is able to influence our lives and manner in which we see the world. Health information is transferred to the community through various mass media such as newspapers, magazines, the Internet, radio and television. This health information affects the audiences' attitude, knowledge and behaviour in relation to health through the media.

3.3.7 Employers

A safe, pleasant and satisfying working environment affects employees' physical and emotional health. Strict monitoring of health safety of the work environment, monitoring of food quality in staff canteens help to ensure that employees are able to achieve optimum health at work. If you have chances to organise health promotion activities, try to remember that you can potentially work with the above organisations.

3.4 Limitations of Inter-Sectoral Collaboration

Inter-sectoral collaborations create conflicts of interest and disequilibrium among participating agencies. This can result in the work and contributions of partners not being equally valued. There are power struggles over power for information, access to important networks, groups that intend to serve, and sources of funding. All ministries and agencies involved must be able to compromise and impose change on the normal working patterns.

Cultural changes may occur within organisations hence collaboration may turn out to be more expensive in terms of time, manpower and resources.

The integration problem in clinical areas has been acute in Nigeria. There is fragmentation in general practice and general outpatient services and specialty services.

These problems are largely due to differences in prestige between general practitioners and specialists, and the significant waiting lists for many specialty services. Health is a holistic concept and patients are not served well by fragmentation, duplication and gaps in services. Much emphasis around the world is now being placed on health care teams

with improved information systems to ease the problem. Nigeria's hospital authority advocates seamless health care to the public to ensure the population gets the most benefits from the health care system. Every choice involves dilemmas. Inter-sectoral collaboration is a key principle outlined by the World Health Organisation (WHO) if health is to be achieved. Only by health workers accepting others' expertise and by having opened minded attitude can collaboration succeed.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt the meaning of intra and inter-sectoral collaboration, the need for inter-sectoral collaboration, the ministries and organisations that promote collaboration and limitations of inter-sectoral collaboration. In the next unit, you will learn quality assurance.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you learnt the meaning of intra and inter-sectoral collaboration, the need for inter-sectoral collaboration, the ministries and organisations such as church and religious organisation, mass media, and employers that promote inter-sectoral collaboration and limitations of inter-sectoral collaboration.

6.0 TUTOR – MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain intra and inter-sectoral collaboration.
2. List and explain three organisations that promote inter-sectoral collaboration.
3. What are the limitations of inter-sectoral collaboration?

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MODULE 4

Unit 1	Quality Assurance
Unit 2	Equity
Unit 3	Cost Controls
Unit 4	Supportive Supervision
Unit 5	Monitoring and Evaluation

UNIT 1 QUALITY ASSURANCE

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Meaning of Quality
3.2	Levels of Quality
3.3	Quality Standards
3.4	Setting Quality Standards
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt inter-sectoral collaboration. In this unit, you will learn the meaning of quality assurance, the levels of quality, quality standards and setting quality standards.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the meaning of quality
- identify the levels of quality
- highlight quality standards
- explain the benchmarks for setting quality standards.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Quality

The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary defines quality as "the standard of something when it is compared to other things like it". In the health sector, quality of health care has been defined as the degree to which health services for individuals and population increase the likelihood of desired health outcomes and are consistent with current professional knowledge (us institute of medicine). This latter definition explicitly acknowledges that:

- (i) Quality is measured as a scale of degree rather than as a binary phenomenon.
- (ii) Quality encompasses all aspects of care by referring to health services.
- (iii) Quality of health-care provision can be observed from an individual as well as from a population perspective.
- (iv) Quality outcomes are desired without specifying for whom, thus allowing the possibility of differing perspectives on which aspects of quality are most important (professional, patient, public, political, etc.).
- (v) The phrase "consistency with current professional knowledge" indicates that quality of care can only be judged relative to what is known at that moment in time.

Regardless of the fact that quality is perceived as being difficult to define, Donabedian constantly stresses that the quality of a service is the degree to which it conforms to preset standards.

3.2 Levels of Quality

While definitions abound and vary, there are three standard levels of quality that are acceptable today. They are performance quality, requirements quality, and quality of kind.

(i) Performance Quality

This is the level of quality at which the outcome of the work meets the minimum standard set. For instance, a new medical records supervisor may be responsible for ensuring that a given number of charts are coded each day or that the records are filed correctly. Performance is that act of doing the right thing at the right time.

(ii) Requirements Quality

This is the second level of quality. At this quality level, the emphasis is on meeting customer/client expectations, regardless of the standard set by the organisation.

(iii) Quality of Kind

This is the highest level of quality, and it involves providing a service that exceeds the customer's expectations or a service that delights the customer.

3.3 Quality Standards

Quality assurance demands that standards to which performance, service or product must conform be established. By definition, standards are simply criteria of performance. They are the selected points in an entire planning programme where measures of performance are made. They are criteria against which subsequent performance or results can be judged. They constitute what should be done and are derived from organisational goals and objectives.

Standards can be as broad or as narrow as the level to which they apply. In planning, the chief executive officer (CEO) sets the overall objectives and goals that the health establishment is to achieve. These overall objectives are broken down into narrower objectives for the individual divisions and departments.

The manager of a department establishes even more specific goals that relate to quality, quantity, cost, time standards, quotas, schedules, budgets, etc. these goals become the criteria, the standards, for exercising control.

Standards could be tangible or intangible. Intangible standards are much more difficult to set and work with. However, a health institution has to consider many intangible standards.

1. Tangible Standards

The most common tangible standards are physical standards that pertain to the actual operation of a department (for example, the dietary department) or services are rendered (for example, nursing services, cleaning services, etc.). Physical standards define the amount of work to be done within a given time span. Cost standards are also tangible standards and define direct and indirect labour costs, costs of materials and supplies, used overhead, and many other items.

These standards are both quantitative and qualitative. Not only do they define how much money is involved, but they also state what quality the products or services are to have. For example, in hospitals, they could be standards on how much money can be spent per patient on food, supplies, and materials for three meals a day as well as the quality the meals are to have as far as nutritional value, taste, and aesthetic appeal are concerned.

2. Intangible Standards

In addition to tangible standards that can be expressed in physical terms, there are also standards of an intangible nature. In a hospital or related-health care facility, some intangible standards are the institution's reputation in the community, the quality of Medicare practiced, the excellence of patient care and the degree of tender loving care, the level of commitment to values, and the level of morale of the workers. It is exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, to express the criteria for such intangible standards in precise and numerical terms. It is much simpler to measure performance against tangible standards, such as number of nursing personnel in relation to the number of patients or days of revenue in unbilled accounts, or the number of EHOs in relation to the number of society they serve, for example, one EHO to serve eight thousand populations (1:8000).

3.4 Setting Quality Standards

It is important to decide the principle underlying the standards adopted. Quality standards can be too high that they cannot be achieved. On the other hand, they can be too low; we may be ignoring avoidable problems even in the best units.

There has always been a long tradition of considering and adopting the status quo as the standard rather than aiming at better practice for local use. The question then is: should the bench mark be the average of the best possible? Different levels of standards are typically used, for example, excellent standards, minimal acceptable standards, and achievable standards.

(a) Excellent Standards

These are typically standards achieved by the best service, for example, based on the lowest 5% of unit readmission rates. Such standards can identify what is possible and challenge excuses

(b) Minimal Acceptable Standards

These are those below which no service should fall

(c) Achievable Standards

These are standards based on the possibility of achieving them. Whatever the bench mark used in setting standards, it must fulfill two criteria to be useful:

- (i). Standards must be clear what individuals need to do to achieve them (the link between individual activity and achievement is important).
- (ii) They must be attainable, that is, a balance needs to be struck between standards of excellence and achievable standards.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt the meaning of quality, levels of quality as well as quality standards. In the next unit, you will learn equity.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you learnt the meaning and levels of quality. You have also learnt quality standards, tangible and intangible standards as well as bench mark for setting quality standards.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is the meaning of quality?
2. State and explain three (3) levels of quality.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 EQUITY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Equity.
 - 3.2 Importance of Equity
 - 3.3 Causes of Inequity
 - 3.4 Ensuring Equity.
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt quality assurance. In this unit, you will learn the meaning of equity, the importance of equity, causes of inequity as well as ensuring equity.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the meaning of equity
- explain the importance of equity
- identify the causes of inequity
- discuss solutions to inequity (inequalities).

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Equity

Equity has ordinarily been defined as a situation in which everyone is treated equally or a system of natural justice allowing a fair judgment in a situation where the existing laws are not satisfactory. In general, administration (management), the principle of equity demands justice and fair-play on the part of the manager in the dealings with his subordinates. In environmental health, equity implies the avoidance of unfair or unacceptable inequalities in quality and assesses to environmental health services for those who are in need of them.

In a publicly funded environmental health outfit system, where policy-making, funding and provision are all controlled largely by the state, the primary objective of trying to ensure the greatest for the greatest number

is legitimate. We can extend this and argue that it is better to have a system where everyone gets access to a service which meets basic standards, even if those are not the very best possible, if the alternative means that some should go without altogether.

3.2 Importance of Equity

Equity in environmental health services is important because inequalities (inequities) cause excess suffering, disease and death and impede social justice. In general, deprived and socially marginal groups have the greatest need for environmental health services, but, in the absence of a strong public measure, are the least able to obtain it.

3.3 Causes of Inequity (Inequalities) in Environmental Health Services

The main inequalities in rendering environmental health services result from two problems: unequal distribution of money and services and discriminatory treatment of groups with the same environmental health needs.

1. Unequal Distribution of Money and Services

The main cause of inequalities in environmental health services is the way in which the environmental health system is financed and regulated, both at the macro and micro-levels. At a macro-level, unequal distribution of finances for environmental health can result either from unequal insurance coverage (more typical of multi-player systems/or unequal central planning (more typical of single player systems, that is, systems in which one actor, usually the government, purchases health care on behalf of the whole population. Not surprisingly, health systems that cover everyone, regardless of income, have more equal services in all respects than those that do not. Even in health systems with universal coverage, however, services tend to become unequally distributed if policies to safeguard quality and access in less desirable areas are not strictly enforced.

At the micro-level, inequalities in access and quality usually result from poor design of services and insufficient local planning to take into account the special needs of marginal groups, for example, service that can be reached only by car, in English, or by filling lengthy forms are usually less accessible to more deprived groups.

2. Different Treatment of Groups with the same Environmental Health Needs

This may result from:

- (i). Ignorance and poor training (for example, infrequent evacuation of refuse along the streets in the suburbs).
- (ii). Conscious or unconscious discrimination against a particular group, owing to either individual prejudice or prejudice embedded in policies (for example, areas that are not in support of the party in power).
- (iii). Different perceptions of and preferences for environmental health services by different social groups (for example, some groups may object to certain methods of refuse disposal and prefer the other).

3.4 Ensuring Equity (Addressing Inequalities) in Environmental Health Services

Several measures can be adopted to ensure equity and thus reduce or eliminate inequalities in environmental health services provision. These measures are (a) general and (b) specific.

1. General Measures

These include the following:

- (i) Identifying the size and nature of the problem and what might be causing it.
- (ii) Prioritising potential solutions according to the severity of the under-served population, the resources available, and the feasibility of solutions.
- (iii) Setting realistic time scales.
- (iv) Identifying potential political (and other) barriers.
- (v) Appreciating that addressing inequalities in health outcomes usually requires measures beyond health reforms, such as educational and taxation reforms.

2. Specific Measures

These are likely to vary, depending on the level at which one is working. Whatever level one is working at, the following measures should be taken into consideration.

- (i) Make equality of “according to need” an explicit policy criterion.
- (ii) Replace political horse-trading arrangements (whereby political representatives, i.e., for more and better services for their areas) with explicit allocation formulae that weight services provision according to need.
- (iii) Develop measurable outcomes of equitable service distribution and access and monitor them.

- (iv) Identify and address individual or systematic prejudice against particular groups of areas.
- (v) Provide policies, incentives, and regulations to ensure that environmental health workers and services are distributed according to need.
- (vi) Similarly, ensure that the service, at the point it is rendered, is the same with people with similar environmental health needs. For example, alert health officers to under-served groups.
- (vii) Empower under-served groups to demand environment health services they need.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt the meaning and importance of equity as well as causes of inequity. In the next unit, you will learn cost controls.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the meaning and importance of equity. You have learnt also the causes of inequity as well as ensuring equity in environmental health services.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is the meaning of equity?
2. Why do we study equity in environmental health?
3. Briefly explain two (2) main causes of inequality in environmental health.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 COST CONTROL

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Cost Control
 - 3.2 Nature/Features of Control
 - 3.3 Cost Containment
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt equity. In this unit, you will learn the meaning of cost control, the nature/features of control as well as cost containment.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the meaning of cost control
- highlight the nature/features of control
- prepare cost containment.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Cost Control

Cost control refers to cost awareness, cost consciousness or cost is concerned with appreciating the significance of the variations from standards, getting proper explanations for the variances, and finding a way of rectifying them (Ihedioha, 2003). Environmental health service providers and practitioners have been, and still are, under continuous pressure to keep expenditures from spindling. It is safe to predict that the drive to control cost will increase even more because of the need to improve the health of the populace. This being the case, cost control is an ongoing problem for everyone from the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) to the supervisor. It is a problem that will never go away.

Cost control should be viewed as a significant part of environmental health administration. Environmental health workers must strive for cost consciousness with consistency. Sporadic cost-cutting efforts seldom

have lasting results. Because cost awareness is an ongoing issue, environmental health workers must set definite numerical objectives and make plans for containing cost. Priorities must be clarified without infringing on the quality of services.

3.2 Nature/Features of Control

A control system is a system built to maintain a desired state. This means that a control system can only take over after the desired state has been determined. This point is significant in understanding the nature of control, what constitutes control and what does not. Any control system should possess a minimum of four elements, namely:

(a) Detector

This is a measuring device which captures what is happening or the actual performance of the thing being controlled.

(b) Selectors

Selector is a comparative device which compares what is happening (actual) with what should be happening (standard, benchmark or desired state).

(c) Effectors

Effectors is a corrective device for altering behavior or performance if need be:

(d) Informer

Informer is an information device which sends information to and from these devices (Oshisami, 2000).

3.3 Cost Containment

To succeed in cost containment, it is essential to involve the workers and make them realise that ultimately their actions will bring about results. In medical field, for example, medical staff members, especially surgeons, have a significant impact on the cost of surgery when prosthetics and specialised instruments are required. Thus, the physicians must be pulled into the cost containment discussions. All employees should consider cost consciousness as a part of their job. Environmental health officers and employees can make valuable suggestions and contributions to cost effectiveness. Environmental health supervisors should welcome all suggestions, investigate each one, and not fault anyone for not having thought of these changes before. Cost awareness should be an ongoing challenge in everyone's daily job

and be part of every employee's annual performance review as well as the biannual credentialing review.

The following measures can be taken to control costs in environmental health services.

- i. Determining the cost of each service and a budgeting for it as per this cost (standard).
- ii. Periodically determining what has been spent (actual cost) and comparing this with the budgeted cost.
- iii. Using suitably designed variance for budgets and standard cost to highlight inefficiency and wastes and to identify the person, unit or department responsible.
- iv. Taking actions that will ensure that the service is rendered with the budgeted cost.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt the meaning of cost controls, the nature/features of cost control as well as cost containment. In the next unit, you will learn supportive supervision.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt the meaning of cost control, the nature/features of cost control including detector, selector, effectors and informer controls. You have also learnt cost containment.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is the meaning of cost control?
2. State and explain four (4) features of control.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Amadi, A. N. (2011). *ABC of Environmental Health*. Owerri: Readon Publishers Ltd.

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UNIT 4 SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Supervision
 - 3.2 Supervision Techniques
 - 3.2.1 Autocratic (Close) Supervision
 - 3.2.2 Consultative (Participative) Supervision
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor – Marked Assignments
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt cost controls. In this unit, you will learn the meaning of supportive supervision, supervision techniques including autocratic and consultative supervision.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the meaning of supervision
- interpret supervision techniques
- highlight autocratic supervision
- describe consultative supervision.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Supervision

Environmental health administration involves the managerial functions of planning, organising, directing and controlling, all aimed at achieving organisational objectives. The work to be done must be planned, organised, directed and controlled. Directing and controlling functions require the effective supervision of the activities of the workers. This is to ensure that the job to be done is being performed in line with the plan as to achieve the objectives set.

The word supervision means overseeing the work or activities of others by the supervising officer, to ensure that work is done according to established procedures. If the work of subordinates is not supervised,

people will do things the way they like at the detriment of achieving organisational objectives and goals.

Supervision becomes more important in environmental administration because careless performance of any work related to the health of people will be hazardous. Consequently, the function of supervision, as an aspect of directing functions, is taken seriously.

3.2 Supervision Techniques

In every organisation, the nature and level of supervision are factors that can influence the satisfaction people derive from their work. Supervision involves technical knowledge, human relations skills and co-ordination of work activities. Effective supervision is necessary for job satisfaction and for high levels of work performance. Kindly and thoughtful supervision behavior is likely to generate high worker satisfaction. Supervisor who adopts a considerable manner toward their workers tends to have the more satisfied work groups.

There are two alternative techniques open to supervisors, which will determine the extent of the success or failure in their work. These are autocratic (close) supervision and consultative (participative) supervision.

3.2.1 Autocratic (Close) Supervision

Under this, the supervisor gives direct, clear, and precise orders to the subordinates with detailed instructions as to exactly how and in what sequence things are to be done. This allows little room for the initiatives of the subordinates.

The supervisor who adopts autocratic techniques delegates as little authority as possible and believes that he probably can do the job better than any of the subordinates. He relies on commands and detailed instructions, followed by close supervision. He thinks that subordinates are “not paid to think”, but only expected to follow instructions.

However, autocratic (close) supervision is ideal under certain circumstances and with certain people. This is, however, an exception, not the rule. For example, it is an ideal technique for people who do not want to think for themselves and prefer to receive clear orders. Also, a work setting sometimes can be so chaotic that only autocratic techniques can bring order.

Implications

With most people, the consequences of autocratic supervision can be disastrous. Employees will lose interest and initiative; they stop thinking for themselves because there is no need as an occasion arises for independent thought. They are obedient but silent and lack initiative and ingenuity. It thus becomes difficult for the subordinates to remain loyal to the organisation and to the supervisor, and the workers secretly rejoice when the boss makes a mistake. This form of supervision tends to make the employees somewhat like robots. Freedom is curtailed, and it is difficult for them to learn even by making mistakes. They are certainly not motivated.

Shortcomings

- (i) Generally, people brought up in a democratic way resent autocratic order-giving.
- (ii) No ambitious employee will remain in a position where the supervisor is not willing to delegate some degree of freedom and authority.
- (iii) A subordinate that is eager to learn and progress will resent being constantly given detailed instructions that leave no room for his or her own thinking and initiative.
- (iv) The employee is stifled and eventually will leave the organisation if possible.
- (v) Autocratic supervision does not produce good employees and only chases away those who have potential.

3.2.2 Consultative (Participative) Supervision

This is a direct opposite of autocratic supervision. Consultative supervision is also known as participative, democratic, or permissive, democratic, or permissive supervision. It is similar to the concept of general supervision (giving orders in broad, general terms in which the supervisor, instead of watching every detail of the employee's activities, is primarily interested in the results achieved). Its basic assumption is that employees are eager to do a good job, have the motivation to perform their best, and are capable of doing so. The supervisor behaves towards them with this basic assumption in mind, and the employees in turn tend to react in a manner that justifies the expectation of the supervisor. Participative supervision, like the general supervision, has the underlying assumption that employees are more motivated if they are left to themselves as much as possible. The basic characteristic of this technique is that the supervisor consults with employees concerning the extent, nature, and alternative solution to a problem before taking a decision and issuing a directive. The supervisor who uses this approach

before issuing directives is earnestly seeking help and ideas from the subordinates and approaches the subject with an open mind. The implications and shortcomings are the opposites of those of the autocratic supervision.

Finally supervision is an integral part of the process of environmental administration. Too often, supervision may be regarded primarily as “doing” rather than managing. But supervision is very much in the front line of environmental health administration and has a prime responsibility for seeing that work gets done by others. Supervisors are required to act in a fair and sensitive manner and to provide a pivotal role as both the link and buffer between the expectations of senior management and lower level workers.

As those having a particular concern with the directing and guiding, and controlling performance activities of management, supervisors need to have the required training and skills to deal promptly and first-hand with problems of environmental health services, handle difficulties or complaints diplomatically, and perhaps discipline staff.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt the meaning of supervision, the supervision techniques as well as autocratic and consultative supervision. In the next unit, you will learn monitoring and evaluation.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the meaning of supervision, the techniques of supervision. You have learnt also the autocratic and consultative supervision as well as its implications and short comings.

6.0 TUTOR – MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is the meaning of supervision?
2. Explain two types of supervision techniques.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5 MONITORING AND EVALUATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Monitoring and Evaluation
 - 3.2 Objectives of Monitoring
 - 3.3 Monitoring Models
 - 3.4 Monitoring and Evaluation Types
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt supervision. In this unit, you will learn the meaning of monitoring and evaluation, the objectives of monitoring, monitoring model, monitoring and evaluation types as well as monitoring as progress evaluation.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the meaning of monitoring and evaluation
- write the objectives of monitoring
- identify monitoring models
- explain monitoring and evaluation types.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Monitoring and Evaluation

Monitoring is concerned with the systematic and routine collection of information from projects and programmes for four main purposes namely:

- (a) To learn from experiences to improve practices and activities in the future.
- (b) To have internal and external accountability of the resources used and the results obtained.
- (c) To take informed decisions on the future of the initiative; and
- (d) To promote empowerment of beneficiaries of the initiative.

Monitoring is a periodically recurring task already beginning in the planning stage of a project or programme. Monitoring allows results, processes and experiences to be documented and used as a basis to steer decision-making and learning processes. Monitoring is checking progress against plans. The data acquired through monitoring is used for evaluation.

3.1.1 Meaning of Evaluation

Evaluation is concerned with assessing, as systematically and objectively as possible, a completed project or programme (or a phase of an ongoing project or programme that has been completed). Evaluations appraise data and information that inform strategic decisions, thus improving the project or programme in the future. Evaluations should help to draw conclusions about five main aspects of the intervention namely:

- (a) Relevance
- (b) Effectiveness
- (c) Efficiency
- (d) Impact
- (e) Sustainability.

Information gathered in relation to these aspects during the monitoring process provides the basis for the evaluative analysis.

3.1.2 Monitoring and Evaluation

Monitoring and Evaluation is an embedded concept and constitutive part of every project or programme design. Monitoring and Evaluation is not an imposed control instrument by the donor or an optional accessory of any project or programme. It is ideally understood as dialogue on development and its progress between all stakeholders. In general, monitoring is integral to evaluation. During an evaluation, information from previous monitoring processes is used to understand the ways in which the project or programme developed and stimulated change.

Monitoring focuses on the measurement of the following aspects of an intervention:

- (a) On quantity and quality of the implemented activities (outputs).
- (b) On processes inherent to a project or programme (outcomes).
- (c) On processes external to an intervention (impact).

The evaluation process is an analysis or interpretation of the collected data which delves deeper into the relationships between the results of the

project/programme, the effects produced by the project/programme and the overall impact of the project/programme.

Amadi (2011) maintains that in environmental health administration, programme monitoring is crucial to ensure that tasks are completed on schedule and also to ensure that activities conform to established standards. Programme monitoring also serves as an evaluation technique in environmental health services. Programme monitoring, as an evaluation technique, is the collection of information about programme implementation and comparing that with the programme plan in order to determine whether there are significant differences between the two, which may call for taking corrective measures.

A good programme monitoring does not just draw up any gaps between budgeted and actual outcomes and shortfalls in the physical aspects of implementation. It also tries to determine whether targets in the plan were realistic in the first place and whether circumstances have changed which could not be reasonable foreseen, as well as finding out the causes of low progress and seeking a solution to that.

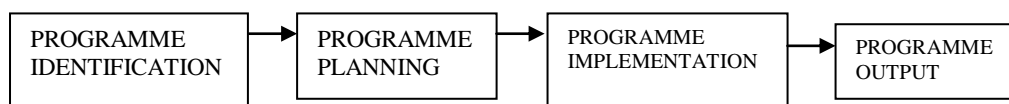
3.2 Objectives of Monitoring

Objectives of monitoring include:

- (a) To eliminate bottlenecks in programme implementation.
- (b) To reduce cost.
- (c) To increase the effectiveness of programmes, and
- (d) To achieve expected programmes impact.

3.3 Monitoring Models

From the point of view of programme activities, monitoring can be modeled as follows:



Source: Monitoring Model, Amadi, 2011

The activities of a programme can be broken down into four main parts, as shown in the model above:

(a) Programme Identification

Monitoring has little or nothing to do at this stage since what is involved here is the identification of the appropriate programme.

(b) Programme Planning

After a programme has been identified, monitoring at this stage addresses the questions of how, who, and when?

- (i) How, is concerned on preparations and information on how the programme takes off.
- (ii) Who, means here, monitoring centers on available resources which would be allocated to achieve the objectives of the programme. Such environmental health services include environmental health personnel as well as financial and other material resources.
- (iii) When, addresses the actual timing of programme activities.

(c) Implementation and Output

Implementation activities consist of ensuring that:

- (i) Funds are acquired and expended in appropriate/specific manner.
- (ii) Personnel are assigned to specific tasks.
- (iii) Materials are allocated to personnel to perform their tasks.
- (v) All activities are performed according to specific sequence and time-table.

Through the implementation, the programme output will be generated. It will consist of a specific product produced according to a specific sequence and time schedule. Monitoring activities during programme implementation and output phases will focus on determining whether:

- (i) Funds are available according to budget.
- (ii) Personnel meet the manpower requirement.
- (iii) Materials and other resources available meet the requirement.
- (iv) The timing of the programme activities adheres to the planned timetable.
- (v) Programme output is produced as planned.

It is important to note that monitoring issues about programme implementation are all issues considered by programme and efficiency evaluation, while those about programme outputs related to effectiveness evaluation.

3.4 Monitoring and Evaluation Types

Monitoring and Evaluation types include:

(i) Monitoring and Relevance

Monitoring has nothing to do with relevance with issues about the problem which the programme is to solve and the basic rationale for having the problem. Monitoring is relatively weak in considering those issues. Monitoring can only provide limited output data to determine if the programme can solve the problem.

(ii) Monitoring and Progress

A list of similarities exists between monitoring and progress evaluation. Monitoring provides information about whether:

- (a) The programme is being implemented as scheduled.
- (b) Expected activities are undertaken in the right sequence and at the right time, and
- (c) Programme resources are expended as planned.
- (d) Monitoring, therefore, provides information for progress evaluation.

(iii) Monitoring Efficiency and Effectiveness

Monitoring provides useful information for decision-making about both efficiency and effectiveness. For instance, monitoring can help determine whether expected outputs of the programme are being produced (effectiveness). Monitoring also provides information to determine the average cost of a programme (efficiency).

(iv) Monitoring and Impact

Monitoring provides little or no information about the impact of a programme. This is because of the long non nature of impact evaluation. Moreover, impact evaluation assumes a comparative character, while monitoring does not.

Thus far, monitoring, as an evaluation, clearly demonstrates that it is nothing more than good programme management. The type of decisions which should be made as a result of a well-designed programme, monitoring efforts is just the types of daily routine management decisions made by programme managers to ensure that the programme progresses according to plan.

So far, two important results of monitoring efforts are:

- (a) They allow programme managers to keep the programme on course and
- (b) They permit a more adequate evaluation of the effectiveness, efficiency, and impact through survey design or experimental design.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You have learnt the meaning of monitoring and evaluation, the objectives of monitoring as well as monitoring model such as programme identification, programme planning, and programme implementation and output. You have learnt also, monitoring and evaluation types.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt the meaning of monitoring and evaluation. You have learnt also, the objectives of monitoring as well as monitoring model. Finally, you have learnt monitoring and evaluation types which include areas such as monitoring and relevance, monitoring and progress, monitoring efficiency and effectiveness, and monitoring and impact.

6.0 TUTOR – MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Define monitoring, evaluation, and monitoring and evaluation.
2. State four (4) objectives of monitoring.
3. Describe the three (3) steps involved in monitoring models.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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