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CONSEQUENCES OF ABSENT ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES ON WORK ORGANIZATION IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS: A DIAGNOSTIC STUDY FROM NIGER

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ABSTRACT

The organization of work is a fundamental determinant of institutional efficiency, yet the relationship between administrative procedures and work organization is often overlooked in educational research. This article identifies the consequences of absent administrative procedures on work organization at the CSP Bakaye private school in Niamey, Niger, drawing on a comprehensive diagnostic study that included surveys of staff (N=110), analysis of administrative

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documents, and observation of work processes over a three-month period. Drawing on organizational behavior theory (Robbins & Judge, 2019; Katz & Kahn, 1978), work design theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Parker, 2014), role theory (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Biddle, 1986), coordination theory (Malone & Crowston, 1994; Mintzberg, 1979), communication theory (Shannon & Weaver, 1949; Weick, 1995), and organizational control theory (Ouchi, 1979; Eisenhardt, 1985), the research examines how the lack of formalized procedures affects six key dimensions of work organization. The analysis reveals that the absence of formalized procedures creates significant disruptions across all six dimensions. Task distribution is highly uneven, with 47 percent of staff reporting work overload and 38 percent reporting underload. Role clarity is severely lacking, with 65 percent of staff indicating that their roles and responsibilities are poorly defined. Activity coordination is ineffective, with 58 percent of staff describing the distribution of responsibilities as confusing. Internal communication is fragmented, with 57 percent of essential information reported as incomplete or delayed. Planning is inadequate, with no systematic process for setting goals, allocating resources, or scheduling activities. Monitoring-evaluation mechanisms are absent or ineffective, with no systematic procedures for tracking task completion, assessing performance, or providing feedback. The article discusses the cascading consequences of these disruptions for organizational efficiency, staff well-being, and student learning, and concludes that the implementation of a standardized procedures manual is a strategic intervention for improving work organization.

Keywords: Administrative procedures, work organization, task distribution, role clarity, private schools, Niger, organizational behavior, coordination theory.

RÉSUMÉ

L'organisation du travail est un déterminant fondamental de l'efficacité institutionnelle, mais la relation entre les procédures administratives et l'organisation du travail est souvent négligée dans la recherche en éducation. Cet article identifie les conséquences de l'absence de procédures administratives formalisées sur l'organisation du travail au complexe scolaire privé CSP Bakaye de Niamey, au Niger, en s'appuyant sur une étude diagnostique complète comprenant des enquêtes auprès du personnel (N=110), l'analyse de documents administratifs et l'observation des processus de travail sur une période de trois mois. S'appuyant sur la théorie du comportement organisationnel

(Robbins & Judge, 2019; Katz & Kahn, 1978), la théorie de la conception du travail (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Parker, 2014), la théorie des rôles (Kahn et al., 1964; Biddle, 1986), la théorie de la coordination (Malone & Crowston, 1994; Mintzberg, 1979), la théorie de la communication (Shannon & Weaver, 1949; Weick, 1995) et la théorie du contrôle organisationnel (Ouchi, 1979; Eisenhardt, 1985), la recherche examine comment l'absence de procédures formalisées affecte six dimensions clés de l'organisation du travail. L'analyse révèle que l'absence de procédures formalisées crée des perturbations significatives dans les six dimensions. La répartition des tâches est très inégale, avec 47 pour cent du personnel signalant une surcharge de travail et 38 pour cent signalant une sous-charge. La clarté des rôles fait gravement défaut, avec 65 pour cent du personnel indiquant que leurs rôles et responsabilités sont mal définis. La coordination des activités est inefficace, avec 58 pour cent du personnel décrivant la répartition des responsabilités comme confuse. La communication interne est fragmentée, avec 57 pour cent des informations essentielles signalées comme incomplètes ou retardées. La planification est inadéquate, sans processus systématique pour fixer des objectifs, allouer des ressources ou planifier des activités. Les mécanismes de suivi-évaluation sont absents ou inefficaces, sans procédures systématiques pour suivre l'achèvement des tâches, évaluer la performance ou fournir une rétroaction. L'article discute des conséquences en cascade de ces perturbations pour l'efficacité organisationnelle, le bien-être du personnel et l'apprentissage des élèves, et conclut que la mise en œuvre d'un manuel de procédures standardisé est une intervention stratégique pour améliorer l'organisation du travail.

Mots-clés : Procédures administratives, organisation du travail, répartition des tâches, clarté des rôles, écoles privées, Niger, comportement organisationnel, théorie de la coordination.

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The organization of work is a fundamental determinant of institutional efficiency in any organization, including educational institutions. How work is structured, how tasks are allocated, how roles are defined, how activities are coordinated, how information flows, how plans are made, and how performance is monitored all shape the capacity of an organization to achieve its objectives efficiently and effectively (Mintzberg, 1979; Galbraith, 1977). In educational contexts, these organizational factors are particularly consequential because they directly affect the conditions under which teaching and learning occur (Hoy & Miskel, 2013; Bush, 2011).

Yet, despite the centrality of work organization to organizational performance, the relationship between administrative procedures and work organization is often overlooked in educational research. Researchers have focused extensively on teaching and learning, on curriculum and instruction, on leadership and culture, but less attention has been paid to the mundane but essential administrative systems that underpin all organizational activity (Van Zanten & Ball, 2008; Fuku Sala, 2015). This neglect is problematic because administrative systems are not merely technical infrastructure; they shape the experiences of staff and the quality of services provided to students (Atangana Ondoa, 2011; Cissé, 2009).

This article addresses this gap by providing a detailed diagnostic analysis of work organization at the CSP Bakaye private school in Niamey, Niger, a school that currently lacks formalized administrative procedures. The article draws on a comprehensive diagnostic study that included surveys of staff (N=110), analysis of administrative documents, and observation of work processes over a three-month period. The study was guided by the following research questions: (1) What are the current patterns of work organization at the CSP Bakaye school across six key dimensions? (2) What are the consequences of absent procedures for organizational efficiency, staff well-being, and student learning? (3) What interventions could address the identified disruptions?

The article is organized as follows. Section two presents the comprehensive theoretical framework, drawing on multiple theories of organization and management. Section three describes the methodology of the diagnostic study in detail. Section four presents the findings for each of the six dimensions of work organization. Section five discusses the cascading consequences of these disruptions. Section six proposes solutions grounded in the theoretical framework. Section seven concludes with recommendations for the school and for future research.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Organizational Behavior Theory

Organizational behavior theory provides a comprehensive framework for understanding how individual and group behaviors affect organizational effectiveness. Robbins and Judge (2019) define organizational behavior as the systematic study of the actions and attitudes that people exhibit within organizations. The field draws on multiple disciplines, including psychology, sociology, economics, and anthropology, to understand behavior at the individual, group, and organizational levels.

At the individual level, organizational behavior theory focuses on concepts such as personality, perception, motivation, and learning (Locke, 1976; Bandura, 1986). At the group level, it focuses on concepts such as communication, leadership, power, politics, conflict, and negotiation (Lewin, 1951; Festinger, 1954). At the organizational level, it focuses on concepts such as structure, culture, change, and development (Schein, 1985; Kotter, 1996).

Katz and Kahn (1978), in their seminal work on the social psychology of organizations, applied open systems theory to organizational behavior. They conceptualized organizations as open systems that import resources from the environment, transform those resources through organizational processes, and export products or services back to the environment. This systems perspective highlights the importance of coordination and integration across organizational subsystems.

In the context of this study, organizational behavior theory provides the overarching framework for understanding how the absence of formalized procedures affects the behaviors and attitudes of staff. When procedures are absent, staff experience role ambiguity, stress, and frustration, which in turn affect their motivation and performance (Kahn et al., 1964).

2.2 Work Design Theory

Work design theory, associated with the work of Hackman and Oldham (1976) and extended by Parker (2014), focuses on the characteristics of jobs and how they affect employee motivation,

satisfaction, and performance. The theory identifies five core job characteristics that shape employee experiences.

Skill variety refers to the degree to which a job requires a range of different activities and skills. Jobs with high skill variety are more engaging and motivating than jobs with low skill variety, but only if the employee has the skills to perform the variety of tasks (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). When skill variety is low, employees experience boredom and monotony.

Task identity refers to the degree to which a job requires completion of a whole, identifiable piece of work. Jobs with high task identity provide a sense of closure and accomplishment that is motivating (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). When task identity is low, employees feel that their work is fragmented and meaningless.

Task significance refers to the degree to which a job has a substantial impact on the lives of other people. Jobs with high task significance are motivating because employees feel that their work matters (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). In educational contexts, task significance is typically high because teachers directly affect the lives of their students.

Autonomy refers to the degree to which a job provides freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling work and determining procedures. Jobs with high autonomy are motivating because employees feel a sense of ownership and control over their work (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). When autonomy is low, employees feel micromanaged and resentful.

Feedback refers to the degree to which a job provides direct and clear information about the effectiveness of performance. Jobs with high feedback are motivating because employees know how well they are doing and can adjust their efforts accordingly (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). When feedback is low, employees are uncertain about their performance and cannot improve.

Parker (2014) extended work design theory to incorporate the role of proactive behavior and job crafting. She argued that employees are not passive recipients of job characteristics but actively shape their jobs through their own initiatives. This extension highlights the importance of providing employees with the autonomy and resources to redesign their work.

In the context of this study, work design theory is relevant because formalized procedures affect job characteristics. Clear procedures provide a framework that can enhance feedback by establishing clear standards. When procedures are absent, feedback is necessarily subjective and arbitrary, reducing its motivating potential.

2.3 Role Theory

Role theory provides a framework for understanding how individuals navigate the expectations associated with their positions in organizations. Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal (1964) conducted foundational research on role dynamics in organizations, identifying key concepts such as role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload.

Role ambiguity occurs when individuals are uncertain about what is expected of them, about how they should perform their tasks, or about the consequences of their performance (Kahn et al., 1964; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). Role ambiguity is associated with increased stress, reduced job satisfaction, and decreased performance (Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Tubre & Collins, 2000).

Role conflict occurs when individuals face incompatible demands from different sources, such as when a supervisor asks for one thing while a policy requires another (Kahn et al., 1964). Role conflict is associated with similar negative outcomes as role ambiguity (Jackson & Schuler, 1985).

Role overload occurs when individuals have more tasks than they can reasonably complete within available time and resources (Kahn et al., 1964). Role overload is associated with stress, burnout, and reduced performance (Karasek, 1979; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001).

Biddle (1986) provided a comprehensive synthesis of role theory, integrating insights from sociology, psychology, and anthropology. He distinguished between the normative perspective, which focuses on the expectations associated with positions, and the interactionist perspective, which focuses on how individuals negotiate their roles through interaction with others.

In the context of this study, role theory is directly relevant because formalized procedures clarify expectations, reducing role ambiguity. When procedures are absent, staff are left to infer expectations from informal cues, leading to ambiguity and its associated negative outcomes.

2.4 Coordination Theory

Coordination theory focuses on how interdependent activities are integrated to achieve organizational goals. Malone and Crowston (1994) defined coordination as the act of managing interdependencies between activities. They identified several types of interdependencies that require coordination.

Pooled interdependence occurs when activities are independent but contribute to a common outcome (Thompson, 1967). Coordination of pooled interdependence typically involves standardization, such as establishing common rules and procedures. Sequential interdependence occurs when the output of one activity serves as the input for another (Thompson, 1967). Coordination of sequential interdependence typically involves planning and scheduling. Reciprocal interdependence occurs when activities have mutual, two-way relationships (Thompson, 1967). Coordination of reciprocal interdependence typically involves mutual adjustment and feedback.

Mintzberg (1979) identified several coordination mechanisms that organizations use to integrate interdependent activities. Mutual adjustment involves informal communication and negotiation among staff. Direct supervision involves one person issuing instructions to others. Standardization of work processes involves specifying how tasks should be performed through formal procedures. Standardization of outputs involves specifying the results to be achieved, leaving the means to the discretion of staff. Standardization of skills involves specifying the training and qualifications required of staff.

In the context of this study, coordination theory is relevant because formalized procedures are a primary mechanism for standardizing work processes. When procedures are absent, organizations must rely on mutual adjustment or direct supervision, which become increasingly inefficient as organizations grow in size and complexity.

2.5 Communication Theory

Communication theory provides a framework for understanding how information flows within organizations. Shannon and Weaver (1949) developed a mathematical model of communication

that includes a source, transmitter, channel, receiver, and destination. They identified noise as any interference that distorts the message, leading to information loss or error.

Weick (1995) extended communication theory to organizational contexts, focusing on how organizations make sense of ambiguous information. He argued that organizations are not merely passive receivers of information but actively construct meaning through communication processes. Sense-making involves the ongoing interpretation and reinterpretation of information in light of organizational goals and context.

In the context of this study, communication theory is relevant because formalized procedures establish clear channels for communication, reducing noise and enhancing sense-making. When procedures are absent, communication is ad hoc and informal, increasing the risk of information loss or distortion.

2.6 Organizational Control Theory

Organizational control theory focuses on how organizations ensure that staff behave in ways that are consistent with organizational goals. Ouchi (1979) distinguished between three forms of control.

Bureaucratic control involves the use of rules, procedures, and hierarchical authority to direct behavior. Bureaucratic control is effective when tasks are well understood and outcomes can be easily measured. Market control involves the use of price competition and market mechanisms to influence behavior. Market control is effective when outputs can be clearly specified and valued. Clan control involves the use of shared values, norms, and traditions to influence behavior. Clan control is effective when tasks are complex and uncertain and when outcomes are difficult to measure.

Eisenhardt (1985) integrated agency theory with organizational control theory, focusing on the principal-agent problem that arises when principals (e.g., school heads) delegate tasks to agents (e.g., teachers). She argued that effective control requires a combination of outcome-based incentives and behavior-based monitoring.

In the context of this study, organizational control theory is relevant because formalized procedures are a key element of bureaucratic control. When procedures are absent, organizations must rely more heavily on clan control or market control, which may be less effective in educational contexts.

3. METHODOLOGY OF THE DIAGNOSTIC STUDY

3.1 Research Design

The diagnostic study employed a mixed-methods design, combining quantitative surveys with qualitative document analysis and observation. This triangulation of methods allowed for a comprehensive assessment of work organization, capturing both the perspectives of staff and the objective characteristics of work processes (Denzin, 1978; Jick, 1979).

3.2 Setting

The study was conducted at the CSP Bakaye private school in Niamey, Niger. The school serves students from preschool through secondary levels and employs approximately 120 staff members, including administrators, teachers, and support staff. The school was selected for the study because of concerns about administrative dysfunction expressed by staff and leadership.

3.3 Participants

The survey was administered to all staff members of the CSP Bakaye school. The response rate was 92 percent, with 110 completed surveys returned. The sample included 15 administrators (14 percent), 85 teachers (77 percent), and 10 support staff (9 percent). The sample was 55 percent male and 45 percent female. The average age was 38 years (SD = 10.2), and the average tenure at the school was 6 years (SD = 4.5).

3.4 Instruments

The survey included items measuring six dimensions of work organization, using five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The survey was developed based on the theoretical framework and adapted from validated instruments in the organizational behavior literature.

Task distribution was measured by three items: "My workload is reasonable and manageable," "Tasks are distributed fairly among staff members," and "I am satisfied with the way tasks are assigned in this school." Reliability for this scale was acceptable (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.82$).

Role clarity was measured by four items adapted from Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970): "I know exactly what is expected of me in my job," "My responsibilities are clearly defined," "I know to whom I should report for different issues," and "I understand the limits of my decision-making authority." Reliability for this scale was high (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.89$).

Coordination was measured by three items: "Work flows smoothly from one person to another in this school," "It is clear who is responsible for what tasks," and "We rarely have problems with tasks being duplicated or missed." Reliability for this scale was acceptable (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.79$).

Communication was measured by three items: "Information flows efficiently through this school," "I receive the information I need to do my job in a timely manner," and "Communication channels are clear and effective." Reliability for this scale was acceptable (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.81$).

Planning was measured by three items: "This school has clear goals and objectives," "Resources are allocated in alignment with priorities," and "Activities are scheduled in a systematic way." Reliability for this scale was acceptable (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.78$).

Monitoring and evaluation were measured by three items: "I receive regular feedback on my performance," "Performance standards are clear," and "The feedback I receive helps me improve." Reliability for this scale was acceptable (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.83$).

The survey also included open-ended questions that allowed staff to describe specific problems and to suggest improvements.

3.5 Document Analysis

Administrative documents, including job descriptions, meeting minutes, communication logs, planning documents, and evaluation reports, were collected and analyzed. The analysis focused on the presence or absence of formal procedures, the clarity of the procedures that existed, and the consistency with which procedures were documented (Bowen, 2009).

3.6 Observation

Observation of work processes was conducted over a three-month period. The researcher observed staff meetings, administrative workflows, communication patterns, and task completion. Field notes were recorded and analyzed for patterns related to the six dimensions of work organization (Spradley, 1980; Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995).

3.7 Data Analysis

Quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, and frequencies. Comparisons between groups (e.g., administrators vs. teachers) were made using t-tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA). Correlations among variables were examined using Pearson correlation coefficients. All statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS version 27.

Qualitative data from open-ended questions, document analysis, and observation were analyzed using thematic content analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The analysis proceeded through several phases: familiarization with the data, generation of initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the report.

4. FINDINGS

4.1 Task Distribution

The analysis revealed significant disruptions in task distribution. The mean score for the task distribution scale was 2.3 (SD = 0.8), significantly below the midpoint of 3.0, $t(109) = -9.2$, $p < 0.001$. Forty-seven percent of staff reported work overload (scores of 4 or 5 on the workload item), meaning that they had more tasks than they could reasonably complete within their work hours. These staff members reported working overtime (an average of 8 hours per week beyond their contracted hours, SD = 4.2), skipping breaks, and experiencing stress-related symptoms including fatigue, irritability, and difficulty sleeping.

Conversely, 38 percent of staff reported having few assigned tasks (scores of 1 or 2 on the workload item), meaning that they had insufficient work to occupy their time. These staff members reported boredom, lack of motivation, feelings of being undervalued, and concerns about their job

security. Some reported that they filled their time with non-work activities, such as browsing the internet or socializing with colleagues.

The uneven distribution of tasks was not based on competence, capacity, or job requirements. Instead, it was based on proximity to decision-makers and personal relationships. Staff who had close relationships with administrators received more assignments; those who were less connected received fewer assignments. This pattern was confirmed by the open-ended responses, in which staff described instances of favoritism and cronyism. One teacher wrote: "The same people always get the important assignments. If you are not in the inner circle, you are invisible."

The consequences of uneven task distribution were multiple. Overloaded staff experienced stress, burnout, and reduced job satisfaction. Underloaded staff experienced boredom, disengagement, and reduced motivation. The school as a whole was less efficient than it could have been, because resources (staff time) were not allocated optimally.

4.2 Role Clarity

The analysis revealed severe lack of role clarity. The mean score for the role clarity scale was 2.1 (SD = 0.9), significantly below the midpoint of 3.0, $t(109) = -10.5$, $p < 0.001$. Sixty-five percent of staff indicated that their roles and responsibilities were not clearly defined (scores of 1 or 2 on the role clarity items).

Job descriptions were either absent entirely (for 40 percent of staff) or were outdated (for 25 percent of staff), referring to responsibilities that no longer existed or failing to capture current responsibilities. Document analysis revealed that only 10 positions had up-to-date job descriptions.

Staff reported uncertainty about reporting relationships. Thirty percent of staff did not know to whom they should report for different types of issues. This uncertainty led to confusion about who had authority to make decisions and who should be consulted for approval.

Staff reported uncertainty about decision-making authority. Forty percent of staff did not know which decisions they could make independently and which required approval. This uncertainty led to delays, as staff waited for approval that was not needed, or to errors, as staff made decisions that were beyond their authority.

Staff reported uncertainty about task ownership. Thirty-five percent of staff did not know who was responsible for specific tasks when multiple staff members could potentially be involved. This uncertainty led to duplication of effort (when multiple people worked on the same task without knowing that others were also working on it) and to missed tasks (when each assumed that someone else was responsible).

The consequences of role ambiguity were significant. Staff who reported higher levels of role ambiguity also reported higher levels of stress ($r = 0.62$, $p < 0.01$), lower levels of job satisfaction ($r = -0.58$, $p < 0.01$), and lower levels of performance as indicated by supervisor ratings ($r = -0.45$, $p < 0.01$).

4.3 Activity Coordination

The analysis revealed ineffective activity coordination. The mean score for the coordination scale was 2.2 ($SD = 0.8$), significantly below the midpoint of 3.0, $t(109) = -9.8$, $p < 0.001$. Fifty-eight percent of staff described the distribution of responsibilities as confusing (scores of 1 or 2 on the coordination items).

Staff did not understand how different roles fit together, how tasks flowed from one person to another, or how decisions were made. One teacher wrote: "It's like everyone is working on their own island. No one knows what anyone else is doing."

Tasks that required multiple staff members were particularly problematic. When a task involved handoffs from one person to another, there was no clear mechanism for ensuring that the handoff occurred smoothly. Information was often lost or distorted in transit. Deadlines were frequently missed because staff did not know when others had completed their parts. Responsibility for problems was diffused, making it difficult to identify the source of errors or to assign accountability.

The consequences of coordination failures were significant. Projects were delayed, often by weeks or months. Quality suffered, as errors introduced early in the process were not caught until late. Staff experienced frustration, as they had to redo work that had been done incorrectly or to chase down information that should have been provided.

4.4 Internal Communication

The analysis revealed fragmented internal communication. The mean score for the communication scale was 2.3 (SD = 0.9), significantly below the midpoint of 3.0, $t(109) = -8.5$, $p < 0.001$. Fifty-seven percent of essential information for school steering was reported as incomplete or delayed.

There were no clear channels for communication between administration and teachers, between teachers and support staff, or between the school and parents. Important decisions were communicated informally, through hallway conversations or whispered asides, leading to information gaps and misinterpretations.

The absence of a centralized information system meant that staff did not have access to the information they needed to perform their tasks. Teachers often did not receive updated class lists at the beginning of the term. Administrators often did not receive attendance reports in time to identify students who were at risk of dropping out. Support staff often did not receive maintenance requests until equipment had already failed.

The consequences of communication failures were significant. Decisions were made without complete information, leading to suboptimal outcomes. Problems were not addressed in a timely manner because the right people did not know about them. Staff experienced frustration because they did not have the information they needed to do their jobs.

4.5 Action Planning

The analysis revealed inadequate planning. The mean score for the planning scale was 2.1 (SD = 0.8), significantly below the midpoint of 3.0, $t(109) = -10.2$, $p < 0.001$. There was no systematic process for setting goals, allocating resources, or scheduling activities. Staff reported that planning was done ad hoc, in response to immediate problems rather than as a proactive process.

There were no clear timelines for completing tasks, and accountability for meeting deadlines was weak. Staff reported that deadlines were frequently missed, and that there were no consequences for missing them.

The consequences of inadequate planning were significant. Activities were often delayed because resources were not available when needed. Activities were sometimes not completed at all because no one was responsible for ensuring that they happened. Opportunities for improvement were missed because no one was systematically scanning the environment for emerging challenges or opportunities.

4.6 Monitoring-Evaluation Mechanisms

The analysis revealed that monitoring-evaluation mechanisms were absent or ineffective. The mean score for the monitoring-evaluation scale was 1.9 (SD = 0.9), significantly below the midpoint of 3.0, $t(109) = -12.1$, $p < 0.001$. There were no systematic procedures for tracking task completion, assessing performance, or providing feedback.

Staff did not receive regular feedback on their performance. Only 15 percent of staff reported receiving formal performance feedback at least annually. The feedback that was provided was vague and not tied to specific standards, making it difficult for staff to know how to improve. One teacher wrote: "I have no idea if I am doing a good job or not. No one ever tells me."

The absence of monitoring and evaluation also meant that the school could not demonstrate its performance to external stakeholders. Parents, regulators, and funders had no assurance that the school was using resources effectively or achieving its educational objectives.

The consequences of absent monitoring and evaluation were significant. Poor performance went unchallenged, and good performance went unrecognized. Staff did not know how well they were doing or how they could improve. Problems were not identified until they had become serious, and corrective action was delayed.

5. CONSEQUENCES OF DISRUPTIONS

5.1 Organizational Efficiency

The disruptions in work organization have direct consequences for organizational efficiency (Mintzberg, 1979; Galbraith, 1977). When tasks are distributed unevenly, resources are wasted: overloaded staff work inefficiently due to fatigue and stress, while underloaded staff are

underutilized. When roles are unclear, effort is duplicated or misdirected. When coordination is ineffective, tasks are delayed and rework is required. When communication is fragmented, information is lost and decisions are suboptimal. When planning is inadequate, resources are misallocated and activities are delayed. When monitoring and evaluation are absent, problems go uncorrected and opportunities are missed.

The cumulative effect of these inefficiencies is substantial. Based on staff estimates, the school is likely operating at approximately 60 percent of its potential efficiency, delivering less output (in terms of educational services) for a given input (in terms of staff time and effort) than it could if work organization were improved.

5.2 Staff Well-Being

The disruptions in work organization also have direct consequences for staff well-being (Kahn et al., 1964; Karasek, 1979). Role ambiguity, task overload, coordination failures, communication gaps, and lack of feedback are all significant stressors. Staff who experience these stressors are at increased risk of burnout, anxiety, depression, and physical health problems (Demerouti et al., 2001; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996).

The survey data confirmed these relationships. Staff who reported higher levels of role ambiguity also reported higher levels of stress ($r = 0.62$, $p < 0.01$) and lower levels of job satisfaction ($r = -0.58$, $p < 0.01$). Staff who reported work overload also reported higher levels of exhaustion ($r = 0.55$, $p < 0.01$) and lower levels of work-life balance ($r = -0.52$, $p < 0.01$).

Staff turnover is another consequence. Staff who are stressed, dissatisfied, and burned out are more likely to leave the school (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). The school has experienced turnover rates of 25 percent per year over the past three years, well above the average for private schools in Niger (which is approximately 15 percent). This turnover imposes significant costs, including recruitment and training expenses, loss of institutional knowledge, and disruption of programs.

5.3 Student Learning

The ultimate consequence of work organization disruptions is their impact on student learning (Hoy & Miskel, 2013; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006). When teachers are stressed and dissatisfied,

they are less effective in the classroom. When teachers leave and are replaced by inexperienced newcomers, instructional quality suffers. When administrative systems fail, teachers spend time on administrative tasks rather than on instruction.

The survey data provided indirect evidence of these effects. Teachers who reported higher levels of role clarity also reported higher levels of teaching efficacy ($r = 0.48$, $p < 0.01$). Teachers who reported higher levels of job satisfaction also reported spending more time on instructional activities ($r = 0.42$, $p < 0.01$). While direct evidence linking work organization to student achievement was not available in this study, the indirect evidence suggests that the relationship is likely to be substantial. Previous research has found that teacher efficacy and time on task are significant predictors of student achievement (Hattie, 2009; Seidel & Shavelson, 2007).

6. PROPOSED SOLUTIONS

6.1 Development of a Procedures Manual

The diagnostic findings clearly indicate the need for a procedures manual that addresses each of the six dimensions of work organization (Fuku Sala, 2015; Atangana Ondoa, 2011).

For task distribution, the manual should specify how tasks are allocated, including the criteria for assignment (e.g., competence, capacity, workload), the process for requesting adjustments to workload, and the mechanism for resolving disputes about task allocation.

For role clarity, the manual should include up-to-date job descriptions for every position, specifying responsibilities, reporting relationships, and decision-making authority (Kahn et al., 1964). The manual should also include an organizational chart that clarifies the hierarchy and the relationships among positions (Mintzberg, 1979).

For coordination, the manual should specify the handoff points for tasks that require multiple staff members, including who is responsible for initiating the handoff, what information must be provided, and what the timeline is (Malone & Crowston, 1994).

For communication, the manual should establish clear channels for different types of communication, including regular meetings, email protocols, and a centralized information system

(Shannon & Weaver, 1949; Weick, 1995). The manual should also specify how urgent communications should be handled.

For planning, the manual should establish a systematic planning process, including timelines for goal setting, resource allocation, and scheduling (Mintzberg, 1979). The manual should also specify who is responsible for each step of the planning process and how progress will be tracked.

For monitoring and evaluation, the manual should establish clear performance standards, regular feedback cycles, and a process for using feedback to improve performance (Ouchi, 1979; Eisenhardt, 1985). The manual should also specify how performance data will be collected, analyzed, and reported.

6.2 Participative Development

The manual should be developed participatively, involving staff at all levels (Schein, 1985; Kotter, 1996). Participative development increases ownership and compliance, and ensures that procedures are adapted to local conditions. The development process should include working groups focused on each dimension of work organization, with representatives from different staff categories.

6.3 Training and Support

The manual should be accompanied by training and support (Fuku Sala, 2015). All staff should receive training on the manual, including the rationale for each procedure, the steps involved, and the consequences of non-compliance. Ongoing support, including mentoring and coaching, should be available to help staff implement the procedures effectively.

6.4 Leadership Commitment

The success of the manual depends on the commitment of school leadership (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Bush, 2011). The school head must champion the manual, model its use, and hold staff accountable for following it. The school head must also allocate resources for training, support, and ongoing review.

6.5 Ongoing Review and Revision

The manual should be reviewed and updated regularly (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Senge, 1990). As circumstances change, procedures may need to be adapted. An annual review process should be established, with input from staff and analysis of performance data.

7. CONCLUSION

This article has identified the consequences of absent administrative procedures on work organization at the CSP Bakaye school. The diagnostic study revealed significant disruptions across six dimensions of work organization: task distribution, role clarity, activity coordination, internal communication, action planning, and monitoring-evaluation mechanisms.

These disruptions have cascading consequences for organizational efficiency, staff well-being, and student learning. The school is likely operating at well below its potential, staff are experiencing high levels of stress and turnover, and students are likely not receiving the quality of education they deserve.

The development and implementation of a procedures manual is a strategic intervention that can address these disruptions. The manual should specify clear procedures for each dimension of work organization, should be developed participatively, should be accompanied by training and support, should be championed by leadership, and should be reviewed and revised regularly.

With these elements in place, the manual can contribute to improved work organization, enhanced efficiency, reduced stress, lower turnover, and, ultimately, better learning outcomes for students.

Future research should evaluate the effectiveness of the manual once it has been implemented, using rigorous methods to assess its impact on both administrative and educational outcomes. Longitudinal studies should track changes in work organization over time, and comparative studies should examine the transferability of the approach to other schools and contexts.

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