UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

TIME MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AMONG STAFF OF DISTRICT

EDUCATION OFFICES IN THE CENTRAL REGION

BY

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature ……………………….. Date………………….

Name: Samuel Oduro

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature……………................... Date …………….

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ABSTRACT

Time may be the most valuable thing one deals with, and it can neither be bought nor recaptured. However, significant amount of this valuable resource is wasted by staff of institutions due to the activities of time wasters. The purpose of the study was to find out the existence or otherwise of time wasters and determine their perceived impact on the time management practices among staff of the district education offices in the Central Region. The time management control measures were also assessed.

The descriptive survey design was employed for the study. The simple random and purposive sampling techniques were adopted to select the respondents from six (6) district education offices in the Central Region. In all, 285 respondents were sampled to participate in the study. Structured questionnaire, interview guide and observational chart were the instruments used for the study. Percentages were calculated for the summary of the responses.

The major findings of the study were that staff of the education offices waste a lot of official time due to the activities of time wasters, thus about 15% of tasks were left unfinished at the end of a given period. Also, there were some time control measures available at the education offices. However, the lack of proper monitoring and supervision had rendered them ineffective. From the findings, it has been recommended that there should be an effective supervision of official time utilisation by staff of the district education offices. Also, time management training should be incorporated into in-service training programmes for staff.

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This thesis is dedicated to my hard working mother Maame Yaa Broni and to

the memory of my father Opanin Moses Alex Oduro.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Time is the non-renewable factor of development. Everything else can be recreated with varying costs but time is irretrievable. The sun and the stars wait for none. No morning can be repeated, no noon and no evening can come again (Waheed, Shahzad and Khurshid, 2004). Time is the soundest and the most reliable yardstick for measuring human as well as organizational achievements.

According to Nickel, Rice and Turker (1975), people all over the world have an equal amount of one important resource daily– Time. Twenty-four (24) hours a day, no more, no less. This means that time is fixed and we can not create time but rather we make time to do something. The use of time directly affects the use of other resources such as money, knowledge, and project. Time is scarce and time is costly; it has value and can be quantified. Time, then, has to be managed for the attainment of any given level of output. Targets, inputs, objectives, productivity and performance are all time related concepts.

It is commonly observed that while planning their activities, workers are usually gripped with the non temporal factors, which can be renewed but time is conveniently ignored. In fact, time can never be repeated if missed

once. Time is something that we need in order to do our work, accomplish our goals, spend time with our loved ones, and enjoy everything that life has to offer. One thing that we can do with our time is change the way we use it. The use of time is an important issue in understanding human behaviour, education, and travel behaviour. Time use research is a developing field of study. The question concerns how time is allocated across a number of activities (such as time spent at home, at work, shopping, etc.). Time use changes with technology, as the television or the internet created new opportunities to use time in different ways. However, some aspects of time use are relatively stable over long periods of time, such as the amount of time spent traveling to work, thus making time management very important.

According to Santis (1998), time management is a set of principles, practices, skills, tools, and systems working together to help a worker get more value out of his/her time with the aim of improving the quality of life. He explains further that time management is the organization of tasks or events by first estimating how much time a task will take to be completed, when it must be completed, and then adjusting events that would interfere with its completion so that completion is reached in the appropriate amount of time. Time management comes down to choices. Good choices lead to better results, while poor choices lead to wasted time and energy.

Becoming an excellent time manager is much easier when a staff uses a well-designed system to help him/her get organized and make better time management decisions. While each of the individual practices like to-do lists, prioritizing, and planning work well by themselves, when one combines them into a system that person can really see some outstanding results. Most

workers have to find ways to improve their own time management skills or techniques and refine their working habits in order to function more effectively. Workers have to sharpen their skills, techniques and disciplines and focus on what counts most. They have to learn to cope with interruptions, changing conditions, and the demands placed on them by others.

Effective time management has become one of the greatest challenges to the achievement of organizational goals and effectiveness. In decentralize institutions such as the Ghana Education Service, high productivity can be achieved when time is respected and the use of time is effectively managed by staff of the service.

The implementation of the 1951 Accelerated Development Plan (ADP) of Education and the introduction of the Education Act of 1961 marked the beginning of decentralization in education in Ghana (MOESS, 2007). Consequently, the Ghana Education Service (GES) was established as part of the Public Service of Ghana in 1974 by NRCD 247 and subsequently amended by NRCD 252, 357 and SMCD 63 with the mission "to ensure that Ghanaian children of school-going age are provided with quality education and training through effective and efficient management of resources to make education delivery relevant to the manpower needs of the nation" (GES 2009, p.18). The move was further strengthened by the Local Government Act of 1988 which made each district or community responsible for providing and maintaining basic school infrastructure.

However, the promulgation of the Ghana Education Service (GES) Law 327 of 1986 gave legal mandate to the district assemblies and the various education directorates to initiate and implement plans and provide for the

control of education by the districts with support from the State. This demonstrates that the districts had the powers of financing the activities of pre-tertiary education. They also had the authority to start new schools and to close down those they thought were not meeting the requirements of the Ghana Education Service. In general, control of education by the districts manifests in their financial responsibilities to educational commitments. For example, they had to finance the costs of establishing, managing and maintaining schools and incurring expenditure on items such as equipment, capital projects, provision of stationery and transport.

The district directorates of education are headed by a senior GES officer in the rank of Director who has an overall responsibility of providing office-based administration and supervision for the schools in the directorates (Mankoe, 2007). The district directors are to ensure improvement in the quality of teaching and learning in schools under their jurisdiction. They do this by formulating plans to implement the National curriculum in the districts and also supervising the selection and distribution of teaching and learning materials to schools.

To ensure the efficient and effective administration and management at the directorates, there exists an organizational structure which describes the line/structure of authority at the district education offices (see Appendix B).

The District Director with the objective of achieving efficiency utilizes the hierarchical control of authority and closely supervises the work of those in the lower ranks. Individuals assigned to work have their specific job and this progress from down to top. That is, each lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one. In this way, no office is left uncontrolled.

The District Director has four (4) front -line Assistant Directors (ADs). These are the AD Finance and Administration, Human Resource Development and Management, Supervision, Planning and Statistics. Under these front – line assistant directors has sub-divisions who also have their sub-ordinates. There is a clear line of authority from the Director right down to the lowest sub-ordinate (Security man) and the channel of communication which is in two ways (up and down) are effectively utilized for effective administration.

The Administration, Budget and Financial Control division are headed by an Assistant Director who deals with financial matters and day-to-day running of the Directorate including expenditures, grants, salaries, budgets and control of funds. The Division also sees to matters such as acquisition of logistics for the Directorate. The divisional heads are assisted by a number of officers with various designations such as Budget, Administration, Finance and control (BAF Logistics officer) and Public Relations Officer. Each of these officers has got their specific responsibilities to perform.

Educational planning deals with the best use of the scarce resources granted to education. According to Mankoe (2007), the Planning, Monitoring, Data collection, Research and Records Division of the district educational directorates is to ensure that all schools in the district operate effectively and efficiently. Also, the Division allocates funds to schools to carry out their duties. Furthermore, the Division deals with estimates of enrolments, compilation of school statistics, contracts and overall costing of education in the districts.

One of the major functions of the Division is to conduct research and record findings about educational issues. The findings are then communicated

to all stakeholders of education in the respective Directorate. The Division is to inspect and recommend to the Regional Directorate the request of a community to open a new Primary or Junior High School or Senior High School. Building a reliable database on school enrolment, staffing of schools and offices in the districts are among the functions of the Division.

The Human Resource Division of the Educational Directorate is equally essential in ensuring management efficiency. Human resource simply refers to the total human assets an organisation possesses (Armstrong, 2003).This means that human resource is the investment a firm makes in developing its employees. The Human Resource Division of the District Education Office is responsible for staff matters such as appointments, promotions, conditions of service, staff discipline, leave, retirement and all establishment issues. The Division is headed by an Assistant Director of Education with various supporting staff members.

The Supervision and Inspectorate Division of the Educational Directorate is headed by an Assistant Director of Education who is regarded as the Chief Inspector. The Chief Inspector is only accountable to the District Director. The Chief Inspector delegates part of his or her authorities to Deputies, Circuit Supervisors, and other education officers. The primary responsibility of the Division is the inspection of education throughout the district. Specifically, the Division is mandated to enhance education delivery in pre-tertiary institutions in the district. The Supervisors help in interpreting national policies and regulations that affect education to the stakeholders of education. In their duties, the Supervisors meet with the school heads and staff to discuss changes that are mandated. Supervisors discuss with the school

authorities how they should work with students to maintain discipline. The officers who constitute the Inspectorate Division include Circuit Supervisors, Guidance and Counseling Co-ordinators, Agriculture and Environmental Co-ordinators and Physical Education Coordinators.

Work output in some district education offices is very low. A situation that Essah-Hienno (2002) partly attributes to the fact that the staff are not punctual to work, office hours are wasted as the staff engages in malingering and other activities that do not contribute to output. The Staff mentioned above are always interrupted by a number of events or matters which affect their work output at the various Units or Divisions at the Education Office. These events or matters are described as time wasters (Sefenu, 2001).

Statement of the Problem

Time management is the organisation of tasks or events by first estimating how much time a task will take to be completed, when it must be completed, and then adjusting events that would interfere with its completion so that completion is reached in the appropriate amount of time.

One of the major objectives of the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (fCUBE) was to improve efficiency in the educational system. It is therefore appropriate that educational resources be put to optimal use. One way to achieve efficiency in the education system is the efficient utilization of time by the staff in the Ghana Education Service especially those in the district offices and Classrooms alike.

As noted by Hindle (as cited in Sefenu, 2001), individuals and institutions are accountable for their use of time; goals and priorities are

clearly defined and financial losses are incurred for missed deadlines. The district education offices of the Ghana Education service have work hours which are in line with that of other civil servants, and it starts from 8:00am to 5:00pm with one hour break from 12:30pm to 1:30pm.

Studies at the University of Cape Coast by Sefenu (2001) concluded that time wasting among Senior Administrative Personnel in the Central Administration was "much". On the effect of time wasters on the Senior Administrative Personnel, the study further revealed that up to 50% of official time is lost by the Personnel. Also, Adom (2002) revealed that Administrative Heads of Ghana National College in Cape Coast could not achieve their set goals on time due to wasting of precious time by the administrative heads through the activities of time wasters. Considering the number of staff at the various district education offices in the Central Region, the issue of efficient utilization of time arises. Staff normally report to work late and also waste precious time on things other than their official duties. The study therefore, is to examine the perceived effect of time wasters on the official time by staff of the district education offices in the Central Region and find out how such time wasters are controlled.

Purpose of the Study

Specifically, the purpose of the study was to:

1. Find out which type of time wasters exist among staff of the district education offices.

2. Assess the perceived effect of time wasting on the official working hours of the staff of the district education offices.

3. Find out how time wasters are controlled by the staff of the district education offices.

4. Assess time management training programmes available in the district education offices.

Research Questions

The following research questions have been specifically raised as a guide to the study.

1. What type of time wasters exist among staff of the district education offices?

2. What does staff of the district education offices perceive to be the effects of time wasters on their official time?

3. How does staff of the district education offices control time wasters?

4. What time management training programmes are available in the district education offices?

Significance of the Study

Three main areas of significance may be derived from this study. First, the study could be of great benefit to the district directorates. The results of the study may be useful as resource material for students who may want to study time management, thus a contribution to knowledge in the field of time management at the district level

Secondly, the study could be useful to the regional and the district directorates of education in the Central Region on how best to ensure efficient time utilization.

Finally, the study will provide information necessary to resolve allegations of improper management of time by staff in the selected district directorates of education.

Delimitation of the Study

The study is limited specifically to the district directorates of education in the Central Region. District directorates of education outside the Central Region were not considered. Also, the various Educational Units (Catholic, Methodist, Presbyterian etc) were not considered.

Additionally, the study considers only the official working hours and days excluding weekends and leave periods. Therefore, the conclusions of the study apply to both teaching and non-teaching staff in the district directorates of education in the Central Region.

Limitations of the Study

Only six (6) District Directorates of Education were selected for the study. The administration and collection of data was expected to take one month but due to the difficulty encountered in getting district directors for interview sessions and collection of completed questionnaires, the entire exercise lasted about two (2) months. In a particular district for example, the Director was transferred just before the date scheduled for the interview. The new Director accepted the challenge to grant the interview. However, since he was new, he had to be assisted by an Assistant Director at the office before he could respond to certain items on the interview guide. This admittedly was the major weakness in the study since the old Director who was knowledgeable at the office could not be interviewed thereby affecting the richness of the study.

Definition of Terms

Workload – Office hours spent by staff at the office on performing official duties.

Work schedule – An outline of activities to be carried out by a staff.

Job design - Specifications of the contents, methods and relationships of jobs.

Utilisation - The extent to which staff use their time in the performance of their duties.

Staff - Workers/employers at the district/municipal directorates of education.

Teaching staff – Professionally trained teachers in the Ghana Education Service.

Non-teaching staff – Workers in the Ghana education service who have not received any professional training to become teachers.

Efficiency – The maximum amount of work to be done within a limited time.

Effectiveness – The ability of a worker to attain set targets.

Front-liners – Heads of the four main divisions of the District/Municipal/Metropolitan Education Directorate.

District – District/Municipal/Metropolitan Education Offices

Organisation of the Thesis

The thesis is organised into five chapters. Chapter One which is the introduction captures the background to the study, which puts the study in perspective, statement of the problem, purpose of the study and research questions to guide the study. The chapter also highlights the significance of the study, delimitations and limitations of the study as well as the definition of terms used in the study.

Chapter Two reviews literature related to the study. The review provides the empirical and conceptual framework of the study and guides the study. The review is carried out under the following sub headings: the empirical and conceptual review of time, time management training models, time wasters in organizations and nature and quantitative effects of time among others.

The third chapter- the Methodology discusses the research design adopted for the study as well as the population and sampling procedure employed in the sample selection. The data collection instruments are also described together with the pre-testing of the instruments and data collection procedure. The data analysis plan ends chapter three.

The analysis of data and discussions are presented in Chapter Four. Data is analysed using the descriptive statistical tools. The fifth chapter, which is the final chapter, recapped the study as well as the findings. Recommendations for improvement in time utilization among staff of the district education offices were outlined. Areas for further research have also been suggested.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The purpose of the study is to find out the existence or otherwise of time wasters and determine their perceived impact on the time management practices among staff of the district education offices in the Central Region Generally, a lot has been written about the concept of time management practices. In the field of education, a lot has been done on time management especially at the tertiary and school levels. Surprisingly, little has been done on the time management practices of the offices of the Ghana Education Service especially at the District level.

The review of related literature is carried out under the following headings.

1. Conceptual Review of Time

2. Conceptual Review of Time Management

3. Empirical Review of Time Management Training Models

4. Time Wasters (Robbers) in Institutions

5. Time Management Controls

Conceptual Review of Time

Time, according to the Encarta Encyclopedia (as cited in Adom 2002), is a period during which an action or event occurs; also, a dimension representing a succession of such actions or events. Time is one of the

fundamental quantities of the physical world, being similar to length and mass in this respect. When the Holy Quran mentions about the creation of Universe in terms of the earth and the skies, it mentions no other factor of creation but time i.e., six days. Whatever the length of those days, one thousand years or fifty thousand years or the timeless time, the fact remains that the Holy Quran mentions only the time factor while describing the creation of the Universe (Waheed, et al. 2004). If there is anything, which lends regularity and discipline to this world, it is the concept of time.

Time may be defined as any period or indefinite extent during which an event takes place or occurs. The term 'period' connotes an epoch or stretch on a continuum and 'indefinite extent' means continuous in uninterrupted succession.

According to Waheed, et al. (2004), three Astronomical methods of expressing time are in use at present. The first two were based on the daily rotation of the Earth on its axis. These methods involved the apparent motion of the Sun (Solar Time) and of the stars (Sidereal Time). The third Astronomical method of measuring time was based on the revolution of the Earth around the Sun (Ephemeris Time).

Time Measurement

Scientifically, the progression of any phenomenon that undergoes regular changes has been used to measure time. The following were some examples. The rotation of the Earth on its axis provides a time scale - day and night. Similarly, the revolution of the Earth around the Sun determines the seasons. Also, the rotation of the Moon around the Earth produces either dark

nights or moon-lit nights which depend upon its direction or its position at a time.

The Greenwich Mean Time (GMT) for instance, is a popular time scale generally referred to as Solar Time on the earth's rotation. It marks mean solar time generally referred to as Standard Time. In 1884, an international Conference held in Washington D.C. adopted the Meridian of the Transit Instrument at the Royal Observatory (England), known as the Meridian of Greenwich, as Prime or Zero Time. This led to the adoption of twenty-four (24) hour standard time zones (Sefenu, 2001).

The Clock (and its derivatives) was the only object that both generated a precise time scale and told time. Clocks serve as the basis of scientific and legal time. The familiar sub-division of the day into 24 hours, the hour into 60 minutes and minutes into 60 seconds is of ancient origin but came into wider use about 1600 AD. The ordinary calendar year contains 365 days and 366 days in a leap year. At the traditional level however, the cock's crow has been the measure of time. In fact it is still in use in some societies today. The cock's crow at specific epochs of the night or day marks the beginning of economic or social activities in such communities (Adom, 2002).

Other societies or individuals also measure time by the position of the Sun during the day or by the length and direction of the human shadow or of a stationary object such as a tree, a building in a house or community. The use of the hour glass has also been in use for some time, though now relegated to the archives.

Natural sensitivity to our body rhythm or signals is indeed a measure of time. But just as the measurement and symptoms of the seasons are not

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precise over the years so are our body signals. For example, after a careful study of oneself, feeling of hunger could suggest that it is about 7:00 a.m., 12:00 noon, or 6:00 p.m. depending on when one takes breakfast, lunch or supper. Feeling drowsy or yawning intermittently (in good health and even after eating) suggest that it is time to sleep. Nature has endowed the body with vast time measurement rhythms - what one needs is to be able to develop one's faculties or sensitivity to be able to tell the time.

The Scientific Standard of Time

Until 1955 the scientific standard of time, the second, was based on the Earth's period of rotation and was defined as 1/86,400 of the mean Solar Day. When it was realized that the Earth's rate of rotation was irregular and also slowing down, it became necessary to redefine the second. In 1955 the International Astronomical Union defined the second as being 1/31,556,925.9747 of the solar year in progress at noon December 31, 1899. The International Committee on Weights and Measures adopted the definition the following year.

With the introduction of atomic clocks—specifically, the construction of a high-precision caesium-beam atomic clock in 1955—more accurate measurement of time became possible. The atomic clock utilised the frequency of a spectral line produced by the caesium-133 atom. In 1967 the measurement of the second in the International System of Units was officially defined as the duration of 9,192,631,770 periods of the radiation corresponding to the transition between two hyperfine levels of the ground state of the caesium-133 atom.

Time and Relativity

Motion and gravitational fields affect the passage of time. These effects were formulated by Albert Einstein (as cited in Sefenu 2001) in his two theories of relativity (1905 and 1915) and have subsequently been observed in experiments. For example, in June 1996 a very high-precision caesium-beam atomic clock was carried by passenger jet from London to Washington, D.C., and was then returned within two days. The elapsed time that it recorded was found to differ from that of ground-based clocks to precisely the degree predicted by relativity from the speed and height of the journey.

Time Dimensions

According to Meerloo (as cited in Nickel et al, 1975), time had four dimensions: biological time, historical time, estimates of time span and continuity. Meerloo described biological time as the awareness of cyclical occurrence of certain bodily experiences such as temperature, heart beat and hormonal secretions. The "diurnal rhythm" or "circadian rhythm" is the term used to describe cycles of approximately 24 hours - day and night, sleeping and waking time. Natural phenomena, such as changes in the phases of the moon or in seasons, are examples of other rhythmic cycles that signified the passage of time. The regularity of breathing, heart rate and other physiological functions are parts of biological time.

Orientation of past events in time is another dimension of time. Historical time gives order to previous event. Like perception, interpretation of past events is influenced by culture and language. History or personal experience as viewed by an Arab citizen might be interpreted differently than

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by a Chinese or a South American because of language and cultural background.

Meerloo likened time span to the passage of time as indicated by clocks, but admitted that people differ in how accurate their subjective estimates approach objective clock time. Moods such as boredom, hunger and the specific nature of an activity, such as its urgency, also affect people's estimates of duration or time span.

Continuity is the linkage of past, present and future activities. With continuity, people become attuned to the flow of time and to their personal identities. As posited by Adom (2002), a person's subjective sense of time forms part of a perception of reality, influences the arrangement of activities in time, and affects goal setting and goal attainment. If objective clock time would be considered, then time could be classified as a standard against which progress is measured.

Working Hours and Workload

Work is defined as activities producing measurable results for one's self or others. The varieties of work time include time used for work for pay, household or home related work and volunteer work. Employment time is one category of work time. It is time devoted to employment for pay. If people are paid by the number of hours, weeks, or months they work; time seems more economically valuable than if work was purely related to meeting needs for survival without monetary return.

According to the ILO and UNESCO (as cited in Pokoo –Aikins, 2003), the hours of work teachers were required to function or operate per day and week should be established in consultation with the staff of the organizations.

According to Cole (2002), one of the basic terms of any employment contract, whether explicit or implicit, was that the employee agrees to be available for work for a giving number of hours per week. To Cole, manual workers had been expected to work longer hours than white-collar employees. With harmonisation of conditions of service by firms between blue-and white-collar employees, Cole observed a decline in the hours of work by manual workers from 48 hours per week to 39 hours-or-less per week. To support his claim, Cole outlined certain regulations which set limits on the maximum amount of working time, and the way working time was organised. The main limitations were:

   a. A limit of 48 hours on the working week (i.e. including overtime)

   b. A daily working limit of eight hours

   c. Compulsory rest periods of at least 24 hours in every seven-day period

   d. Additional rest breaks during work of at least twenty minutes where daily working time exceeded six hours among many others.

Blyton (as cited in Kutor ,1999) confirmed the observations made by Cole. Blyton reported a reduction in working hours in Western European countries such as Germany, France, and the Netherlands. Blyton reported for example a reduction in working time of metal workers in Germany from 37.5 hours to 37 hours a week by 1989. Blyton contended that changes in holiday entitlement had further reduced annual working hours while changes in retirement patterns have shortened the working life time.

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The situation in Ghana regarding working hours is not different from what Cole reported on. According to the Labour Act of Ghana (Act 651, 2003), the hours of work of a worker shall be a maximum of 8 hours a day or 40 hours a week except in cases expressly provided for in the Act. However, the Act made room for variations in the hours of work under the following situations:

a. Where shorter hours of work were fixed, the hours of work on the other days of the week may be proportionately longer than eight hours but should not exceed nine hours a day or a total of forty hours a week;

b. Where longer hours of work were fixed, the average number of hours of work reckoned over a period of four weeks or less should not exceed eight hours a day or forty hours a week; or

c. In the case of an undertaking, the work of which is of a seasonal nature, where longer hours of work were fixed, the average number of hours of work over a period of one year should not exceed eight hours a day except that the hours of work which may be fixed should not exceed ten hours a day (Article 34).

Work days are not always the standard 8am to 5pm, and work weeks do not always extend from Monday through Friday. The specific nature of work hours influences the duration of non-work activities and also affects synchronisation of personal activities with those of others. People in executive or professional positions generally have more choice in their work hours but work longer days or weeks than those with more regular work hours. Such people may, for example bring work home from the office or may work beyond closing time, leaving less time for other activities.

Pigou (as cited in Dewotor,1992) said it is ambiguous to measure employment as the number of man-hours of work performed during that period. He identified that the quality of man at work varies from time to time, so also is the energy with which they performed their work. He also argued that unemployment is equally not a clear cut conception. Pigou thought that a man is only unemployed when he is both not employed and also desired to be employed. The amount of labour supplied to the economy depends on the number of hours per time period that workers are willing to work. However, according to Cole (1997) hours supplied by labour can be put into three (3) categories. These are:

a. Hours paid for, which include workdays, paid holidays and vacation time.

b. Hours spent at the workplace, which include both work time and wasted time.

c. Hours actually spent working.

The number of hours that workers devote to labour usually leaves a gap when it is compared with that of hired time. This is where wasted time becomes important. McGregor (as cited in Adom, 2002) also posited that 'the average person has an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it if possible'. Actually, this happens because even though labour supply theory begins at the level of the individual, people work because they have to, not because they want to. Consequently, most workers do engage in withdrawal behaviours whenever they get the opportunity. In some cases the worker sticks to the notion that if he or she works with speed he or she may be laid off when there is little work to be done, and therefore engages in tardiness. In varying

degrees, such forms of behaviours mark a refusal to act in accordance with the dictates of work ethics, and they lead to time wasting.

Workload issues have received the attention of many writers and researchers. Harris and Liba (as cited in Kutor,1999) defined workload as all the time and energy directly or indirectly employed by the teacher (worker) to perform his duties. Haris and Liba saw workload as embracing time spent on actual teaching as well as the time spent on teaching related duties. Harris and Liba considered teachers total workload to include both teaching load and the load resulting from teaching related activities such as preparing for lessons, setting and marking of exercise, performing administrative duties and engaging in co-curricular activities.

According to Cresswell (as cited in Kutor,1999), issues about workload have "constituted an area of bargaining between teacher unions and educational management in the U.S.A."(p.20). Cresswell outlined that the major areas of bargaining have been on class size, contact hours and definition of duties. He contends that these negotiations have often resulted in changes in the teachers' workload.

There is no one agreed definition of workload and consequently not one agreed method of assessing or modelling it. One definition by Hart and Staveland retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Workload (2/05/2010) the free encyclopedia described workload as "the perceived relationship between the amount of mental processing capability or resources and the amount of time required by the task". Workload modelling is the analytical technique used to measure and predict workload. The main objective of

assessing and predicting workload is to achieve evenly distributed manageable workload and to avoid overload or underload.

The relationship between workload and performance is complex. It is not always the case that as workload increases performance decreases. Performance can be affected by workload being too high or too low. Sustained low workload (underload) can lead to boredom, loss of situation awareness and reduced alertness. Also as workload increases performance may not decrease as the operator may have a strategy for handling task demands.

Time as a Resource

Time may be relative, but it is a resource as valuable as any other. Yet, it is so easy to squander. Since the introduction of Scientific management by Frederick Taylor in the 1890's, institutions have recognised time as a resource, but almost always in a manufacturing sense with the most emphasis being placed on managing a worker's time. There are many references to time as a work measurement, that is, performance time standards for manufacturing operations. These standards are most often derived from time and motion studies, work sampling, and similar techniques and deal primarily with employees working in a production situation

Turney and Cohen (1976) observed that with the number of extremely structured mechanistic jobs, time could be drastically reduced and make way for jobs with substantial components which rely heavily on low visible 'thinking' activities and less on highly visible 'doing' activities. Since a manager is someone who gets work done through other people, the job requires that a large part of a manager's time must be spent on thinking

activities such as planning, directing, controlling, and communicating. Communicating is particularly time consuming, as pointed out by Thomas and Ward (1973) in their study of 29 Senior Librarians. Their analysis showed that librarian managers spent approximately 80 percent of their time in direct or indirect communication.

Time is an influential resource because it is used with other resources to reach goals. Evaluating current uses of time is a logical beginning for improvement. This evaluation provides a benchmark against which change can be tailored. A simple method of evaluation is recalling time use during the previous 24 hours. List all activities and the amount of time used for each. Because people differ in their recall abilities, some activities may be forgotten, and time estimates may not be completely accurate. If some listed activities were evaluated as unimportant or excessively time-consuming, it may be necessary to consider omitting or altering the frequency of such activities.

Rice and Turker (1986) however observed that, time is a non-renewable resource and every hour that passes is gone for good. Therefore since time is finite, priceless and irreplaceable, it makes sense to undertake a periodic review of how it is being used to determine whether the use of time is in line with long term personal goals.

Many books that consider management in general deal with time in the context of planning for a product, start-up time, process time, order-delivery cycle time, and similar matters. In other words, there are plenty of discussions of an overall time schedule but very little discussions of how a manager can best use time.

It is ironic that management textbooks do not adequately cover the subject of time management, yet workers consider time management as their most pressing problems. In fact, according to a survey conducted by the American Management Association, lack of time was the single most pressing problem of managers. Paradoxically, no one has enough time yet everyone has all there is. As posited by Hammon (1977), "everyone is allotted 24 hours a day-no more, no less. One can get more time for work only at the expense of time for self-renewal, self-improvement, and leisure"(p.54).

Most managers recognise time as a valuable resource and then talk about controlling it. According to Perking (1966,p.19), "to say that one controls his time is sheer nonsense. No one controls time- time will pass. However, what can be done with time is to utilise it to the best advantage". Good administrators find time to achieve their objectives because they deliberately plan to utilise time. They learn to maximise their allotted time-which is precisely the same for every known being on earth-24 hours per day.

Time is a resource valuable to nearly every person. In fact, Lakein (1973) said, "Time is life. It is irreversible and irreplaceable. To waste your time is to waste your life, but to master your time is to master your life and make the most of it "(p.25). Time may be the most valuable thing one deals with, that it can neither be bought nor recaptured. It must be utilised effectively in order to manage effectively.

It is important to note that time has special and peculiar characteristics such that the use of time directly affect all other resources at our disposal. It should be noted that time is an important resource. But it is different from

other resources according to Douglass and Goodwin (1980); Mackenzie (1990; and, Scott (1992) in the following ways:

a. Time cannot be conserved or held or banked for future spending. It is impossible to save time. The only thing one can do with time is, spend it and it must be spent at one fixed rate i.e., 60 seconds per minute and 60 minutes per hour.

b. Time is different from other resources in another sense, most resources must be purchased. The more they cost, the more they are valued. Time is free. This is because many managers do not value it very much.

c. Machines can be turned off and people can be replaced but time continues its march at a fixed rate. Once time is wasted it's gone and it can never be replaced. It is irreplaceable and irreversible. Time which has passed can never come back.

d. Time is democratically shared resource. All people have different personalities, talents and skills. But there is one thing all have in exactly the same amount, and that is time. All have 24 hours a day.

e. Time is personal resource. If it is wasted it is our waste not anybody else and if success is achieved it is ours'. It means a loss of minute is our loss and a gain is also ours. If one is managing time well, he or she is not doing anybody favour.

Time Allocation

There is no such thing as the lack of time. In a very real sense we all have time for those things that we want to make time for. The key question is

what do we want to do with our time? When we have decided on what we want to do with our time, we must then allocate it so that we can use it to the best advantage possible.

MacKenzie and Emery (1976) stated that "there are two fundamental questions to be asked about the allocation of time. The first is where should the manager's time go? The second is where does the manager's time go?" (p.17) He indicated that part of the difficulty with managers as they moved up in the hierarchy is that their attention should increasingly be focused on conceptual rather than technical skills. The emphasis on human skills should remain fairly constant. He suggested that one of the reasons for managers' not having time to manage is that they tend to cling to their former jobs after promotion, and become involved in too much detail that should be delegated.

Situations change and time plans are revised, but without some plan, would people be able to anticipate the reasons for these changes and the need for revision? Carefully considered time plans can increase satisfaction and reduce indecision or worry in the use of time and other resources to reach goals. Conservation of time to match needs and wants is the general goal of time management.

Planning time for the various activities is of much importance. Planning has the advantage of saving work time. For a plan can help an individual in carrying out the activities for the day and so attain greater satisfaction. A worker who makes the best use of the time available knows how to allocate it, preferably in uninterrupted blocks, and to use these for management functions such as planning, organizing, deciding, directing, and controlling. These functions are essential for sound management. In a study of

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600 Chicago Executives, Rice (1973) discovered that most executives worked more than a typical eight-hour day. While some effective and efficient managers may work more than 40 hours per week at the office, most studies indicated that this was necessary because their time was not managed well while at the office. The position was supported by Rice's study. According to Rice, some managing executives said they worked more than ten hours outside the office, indicating that they had to take work home. This was a further proof that some managers were not managing their time well at the office. Drucker (1966) did not agree entirely to the decision by managers to work at home in the night since it enabled the manager to avoid tackling his time management problems. A manager's efficiency will increase if he allocates his time wisely and avoids time wasters.

Monochronic and Polychronic Views of Time

According to Mantha and Sivaramakrishna (2005), a person's time personality is made up of a series of time styles – monochronic or polychronic. It is expected that a person's awareness of the monochromic or polychromic side of personal time style affects his or her overall approach to time use, perceptions of time pressure and the amounts and order of time spent on tasks. This, in turn, affects his or her personal efficiency.

Monochronic approach to time management is essentially objective and lays emphasis on promptness, speed, brevity and punctuality. It is a very efficient and focused way to manage work and life. Monochronic time managers are those who thrive on detailed planning and organization. They prefer to focus on one task at a time and they follow a schedule from which

they do not like to deviate. They tend to get upset by distractions or interruptions and are inclined to put new tasks off until a later date, when they can be worked into the schedule.

Polychronic approach to time management is subjective and lays emphasis on inspiration, imagination, flexibility, intuition and dedication. Trust, bonding, pleasure and quality of life influence more strongly the decisions of a person who 'ticks' in polychronic time. Polychronic time managers prefer to have many projects under way simultaneously, enjoy changing from activity to activity and are unflustered by distractions and interruptions. Unlike their monochronic counterparts, polychronic managers believe they perform well under pressure.

Individuals differ in their orientation to time. While some people can accurately estimate the length of time devoted to working, reading, or visiting, other people consistently overestimate or underestimate time available to them. Individuals' sense of time can be influenced by extremes in temperature, absence or presence of light, loneliness, enthusiasm or boredom and several other factors. The phenomenon of time seems so natural that once people have developed a perception of time, they have difficulty understanding that other people could perceive time differently. For instance Walt (1997) reported that the 'white westerners' tend to become very irritated with their fellow black citizens. According to him, "Africans are regularly late for important appointments and waste the whole meetings time, they do not adhere to work schedules, do not plan ahead-they are simply too slow" (p.45). The observation by Walt was an indication that the perception of time is influenced by cultural values. In reality, individuals differ widely in their orientation to

time and these perceptions affect their behaviour in many ways (Rice and Tucker, 1986).

Time Management in Brief Retrospect

Time is probably the most valuable asset available to people and organizations. Understanding how to manage one's time can add success to personal and professional lives. However, of all the resources available to workers, time seems to be the least understood and the most mismanaged.

According to MacKenzie (1990), time is the scarcest resource, unless it is managed, nothing else can be managed. There never seem to be enough hours in the day to handle all the tasks, problems, administrative details, routine work, and crisis that occur. That is why, most of the workers or managers probably wish for a time extension. Webber (1972) found that out of thousands of managers, only one in one hundred admitted to having enough time. Since no one has any more time than anyone else, using it well is of utmost importance. Unfortunately it is human nature to waste time (Oncken, 1984; Hyland, 1981; Harrison, 2006).

Time Management is more than just managing time. It is about controlling the use of the most valuable - and undervalued - resource. It is managing oneself in relation to time. It is setting priorities and taking charge of the situation and time utilization. It means changing those habits or activities that cause waste of time. It is being willing to adopt habits and methods to make maximum use of time

It is true that some managers naturally have good time management skills, having developed good techniques for managing themselves and their

time. But many have developed poor habits in relation to time. The problem is most managers do not like to admit these kinds of weaknesses. The term "time management" is misleading since time cannot be managed and controlled. Time is constant. It moves at the same rate regardless of who you are and what you are doing. So "time management" really mean "Self Management". According to Douglass and Goodwin (1980) "the essence of time management is managing yourself in such a way that you achieve better results in the time available"(p.125). This purported that the problem does not lie with the actual number of hours available. Rather, the problem lies how well available time is utilized (MacKenzie, 1970, 1974). Time cannot be managed, the only thing one can do is manage himself or herself in relation to time available. In other words, the amount of time cannot be controlled but its use can be controlled.

Empirical Review of Time Management Training Models

It is important to point out that the term 'time management' can be a misnomer and it is used just for convenience. What one really means each time one mentions 'time management' is, managing the use of time. The logic in this argument is that time available is fixed and people in reality cannot manage time in terms of its production, allocation, redistribution or control. Thus, people cannot refuse the next hour coming to them or make up for the last five minutes or so that has been abused. In spite of this deficiency, time management remains a convenient description that is used to mean managing the order in which activities are carried out with the sole aim of improving output.

According to Lakein's (1973) description of time management, individuals first determine their needs and wants and then ranked them in terms of importance. Specific activities include setting goals to achieve the needs or wants and prioritizing the tasks necessary to accomplish them. The tasks of utmost importance are then matched to the time and resources available by planning, scheduling, and making lists.

Lakein further described other time management tips, such as organizing the work space and determining the approach to projects. In developing a measure of time management, Macan, Shahani, Dipboye, and Phillips (1990) found three time management factors consistent with Lakein's description: (a) the setting of goals and priorities, (b) the mechanics of time management (e.g., making lists), and (c) a preference for organization.

The few studies that existed on the effects of time management training have predominantly been investigations of the effects of various types of time management training (e.g., manuals and personal instruction). The findings suggested that time management training could affect the amount of time spent in various activities previously identified by the subjects as high priority, such as completing projects and reading books (Hall and Hursch, 1982) For instance, in the study by Hall and Hursch, four members of a university's faculty and staff who had trouble completing projects read a time management manual and met weekly with a time management consultant. Results indicated that their self-evaluations of work effectiveness and satisfaction were positively related to their self reports of time spent on the high-priority activity. These findings implied that time management training resulted in efficient utilization of time.

In her article on time management training, Macan (1994) established three set of linkages that engaged more frequently in the three time management factors which will lead to a greater perception of control over time. The linkages included setting goals, scheduling, and organizing.

Although the linkages were intuitively appealing and espoused by time management consultants, no empirical research has been conducted to support these suppositions directly. A logical deduction from the goal setting literature, however, is that the setting of goals is related to a person's self-efficacy in being able to exercise influence over his or her behaviour (Locke & Latham, 1990). The study by Macan (1994) was therefore, the first empirical examination of the linkages between time management training and a perception of control over time.

Schuler (1979) asserted that "time management means less stress for individuals, which means more efficient, satisfied, healthy employees, which in turn means more effective organisations" (p.854). Indeed, in one statement, he captured much of the conventional thinking about time management training. In her model, however, Macan (1994) proposed that time management behaviours were not linked directly to those outcomes, but instead operate through a perception of control over time. Only if time management behaviours provide a person with the perception that he or she has control over time will the outcomes be manifested. Thus, it is not the time management training alone that affected those outcomes but the perceived control over time that the training programmes afforded the individual.

Although these linkages have not been examined in time management studies, the notion of a generalised desire or need for personal control is not

new. Numerous Psychological studies reported a variety of consequences that could result from varying levels of personal control, including effects on performance (Bazerman, 1982, Spector, 1986), job satisfaction (Greenberger et al., 1989, Spector, 1986), and stress (Averill, 1973, Thompson, 1981). In addition, Greenberger and Strasser (1991) provided a comprehensive review of the personal control literature and detailed a model of personal control in organizations. In her study however, Macan (1994) examined the effects of a more specific notion of perceived control over time.

In his theory on planned behaviour, Ajzen (1991) noted that a person's perceptions of time control could be a key predictor of his or her behaviour in situations that are not completely under the person's volitional control, such as in an employment setting. That is, when behavioural intentions are held constant, perceptions of time control could account for considerable variance in actual behaviour. With a focus on perceived control over time, the final set of four linkages proposed that a perception of control over time leads to fewer job-induced and somatic tensions, greater satisfaction with the job, and better job performance.

Research on organizational stress suggests that work-related stress is a critical influence on employee health and well-being (Ganster, Mayes, Sime & Tharp, 1982). In fact, medical research has documented the physical changes that occur to the body in response to stress. Somatic complaints include heart disease, ulcers, headaches, digestive diseases, and diseases of resistance (Matteson & Ivancevich, 1987). Is a perception of control over time related to stress reactions, that is, job-induced tensions and somatic tensions?

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Macan et al. (1990) found that students who perceived themselves to have control over their time felt fewer school and somatic tensions than those students who did not perceive themselves to have control over their time. In contrast, King et al. (1986) found that neither of the two global stress measured in their study showed reliable differential change across conditions assessed immediately after and 3 months after time management training.

The specific link between perceived control of time and stress responses, however, was not examined. If time management is a useful technique for dealing with stress, negative path coefficients between perceived control over time and the two measures of tension may be expected. Those who perceived that they had control over their time should experience fewer frustrations and tensions in response to their job (job-induced tension) than those who did not perceive themselves as having such control. Furthermore, those who perceived themselves to have control over time should report fewer physiological symptoms of stress (somatic tension).

In effect, those who perceived themselves to have control over time should be healthier employees. Employee job satisfaction is typically a concern for organisations, especially because there is a relationship between it and behavioural measures of absenteeism and turnover (Porter & Steers, 1973). Students in the Macan et al. (1990) study who perceived themselves to have control over their time reported more satisfaction in school than those who did not perceive themselves as having control over their time. Landy et al (1991) found a significant correlation between overall job satisfaction and only one of seven dimensions of the Time Urgency Scale—Awareness of Time.

Since few studies have addressed this specific issue, examination of the linkage between perceived control over time and job satisfaction is warranted. It was expected that those who felt in control of their time would be most satisfied with their job.

Little research has been conducted on the relationship between job performance and time management. A perception of control over time was positively correlated with students' self reported academic performance (Macan et al., 1990) and with students' grade point averages according to university records (Britton & Tesser, 1991). Macan (1994), however, examined supervisors' ratings of job performance.

Despite the paucity of research, the claims of time management consultants and writers of time management books appear logical and lead to the tentative hypothesis that perceived control over time is positively related to supervisors' ratings of job performance. On the basis of past research, Macan (1994) proposed reciprocal correlations among most of the outcome variables in the previous model.

The 20/80 principle of time management postulated by Vilfredo Pareto (1884 - 1923), an Italian economist and sociologist also throws light on time use or management. While studying the distribution of wealth in Italy, Pareto discovered that in any series of elements to be controlled, a selected small fraction of the elements always accounts for a large fraction of effectiveness. Pareto's principle theorised that 20% of the time expended usually produced 80% of the result while 80% of the time expended produces 20% of the results. According to this principle, many insignificant events happen. The important lesson is to isolate the trivial many from the vital few that can

control the major portion of results. The principle emphasized the importance of setting priorities when planning.

As reported by Nickell et al. (1975, p.34), Parkinson's Law stated that "a job expands to fill the time available to accomplish it". According to the law, "when time seems limited and people are busy they tend to squeeze many activities into a short time span and seem to accomplish more than when they are under less pressure". Parkinson backed up his theory of the elasticity of work demands on time with a study of an elderly lady of leisure who spends the day writing a short note to her niece. She uses the first hour searching for the appropriate stationery and the next hunting for her glasses. It took half an hour to find the address, an hour and quarter to compose the note, and another twenty minutes to decide whether or not to take an umbrella when going to the mail box.

In the pursuit of effective time management practices, Carnahan et al. (1987) developed the T.I.M.E. Model as an acronym for; "To Improve Management Effectiveness". Carnahan and his colleagues proposed the following components of the TIME model. They were: Work Environment: The term Environment refers to several factors, the first one is the *immediate work setting*. The elements of this first factor according to Carnahan et al. included; office furniture, classroom, telephone facilities, equipment and buildings. These physical facilities affected the use of time during a typical day.

The general organization or institution in which work takes place is the second factor of the environment. It has been observed that from the degree of noise at the work place to the disquiet tension that pervades to management

meetings, were all elements which affected the effectiveness with which time is used. A third factor of the environment component of TIME model was the calibre of colleagues at the work place. Carnahan et al. (1987) explained that the overall effectiveness depended largely on people we knew and worked with such as our superiors and subordinates. The level of interpersonal relationships was essential for goal achievement, and the use of time was very much keyed to the character of colleagues at the work place. Our friends, family members and cultural background were also identified by Carnahan et al. (1987) as other factors of the environment which affected the use of official time. For example, a family man may sometimes have to direct time and energy from immediate work objective toward family objectives.

Time Wasters in Institutions

Effective time management is crucial for accomplishing organisational tasks as well as avoiding waste of organisation's resources. Time wastage may reflect in lateness, loafing, and reclining, which have implications on worker utilisation. Many workers also resort to tardiness, and intermittent stoppages that have appreciably high frequency (Cole, 1997). In this way workers waste work hours at the workplace, perhaps because employees have discretion with respect to their efforts and work time. This behaviour affects the rest of the work group, particularly their morale, workload, and time supply. In such instances, workers introduce moral hazard behaviour at the workplace (Kuttor, 1999). In this way, and under some circumstances, the worker fails to obey the contractual agreement and supplies less hours of work than the hired time.

There are several dimensions to time wastage. It may be voluntary or involuntary since work performance depends on the individual worker's willingness, capacity and the opportunity to perform (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, as cited in Tibu 2005). Involuntary wasting of work time may have roots in capacity under-utilisation, ill health and under-employment. It is therefore, held that involuntary time wasting is related to organisational support. Most often it is embedded in organisational inefficiencies. In such instances workers do not strategize to waste the work time. This aspect of worker time wasting is therefore, based on situational constraints which, according to Rhodes and Steers (as cited in Adom, 2002) had much effect on how workers collaborate with management to improve labour utilisation.

On the other hand, it turns out to be voluntary when the worker has the opportunity but fails to supply optimum work time. In this way, persistence of good voluntary behaviour is manifested in how people were willing to arrive at the workplace on time, finished a project a few hours earlier, stay on work honestly, or continue supplying their effort for the required amount of time or beyond (McShame, and Glinow, as cited in Adom 2002). Where the contrary is the case, then definitely it is a manifestation that work time is being wasted. Even though Mcshame and Glinow held that majority of people believed that work is important, virtuous, a source of dignity, and inherently good, and so people have to work even if their financial situation does not require it, many workers do waste the work time.

According to MacKenzie (1972), time- wasters exist in all institutions. In an institution like the Ghana Education Service, valuable time is wasted

through voluntary or involuntary actions. MacKenzie identified the following as time wasters in institutions which can inhibit effective use of work time:

Telephone interruptions - situation in which one has no control over the number of calls received; - hanging too long on the phone.

Drop-in-visitors - having no control over the number of visitors who call in during working hours; - discussion unofficial matters during office hours.

Misuse meetings - meetings which are held without a specific agenda and nothing productive comes out of it, clearly such meetings are unnecessary and a waste of official work time.

Crisis management - being caught off guard; is resorting to stop-gap measures.

Lack of clear objectives - when one starts the day without any set of priorities or daily plan.

Ineffective delegation - attempting to delegate both authority and responsibility; rendering capable hands incapable.

Attempting too much work at a time - non-use of time plan; failure to classify tasks.

Procrastination - putting off things that need to be accomplished; applying one's talent and time only to tasks one finds interesting and rewarding immediately.

Inability to say 'no' - feeling pressurized to say 'yes' to work; when we are unable to draw a clear line between official and unofficial work.

Lack of self-discipline - lack of self-control; poor attitude to work; lack of commitment on the part of an employee is unhealthy in time abuse.

The characteristics stated above affect the productivity of the education offices where activities are interrelated and complex. However, it is of great importance to adopt pragmatic measures to control the effect of the time-wasters in order to minimize their impact on the organization.

Causes of Time Wastage

Economic theory holds that, the decision to accept employment depends on the person's level of wealth, the wages offered, and several other factors. When he or she accepts this incentive package and gets to the workplace, it is assumed that the worker is prepared to offer adequate services, all things being equal.

However, Beach (as cited in Santis, 1998) explained that if an employee or worker is faced with situations that affect him or her materially or socially, and the fact that labour is immobile and therefore cannot change jobs easily, the worker tries to take advantage of benefits and avoid disadvantages by behaving in ways appropriate to him or her. In this direction, some workers become inclined to the wasting of the work time. However, their behaviours can be dangerous where it is not overt but surreptitious and individualistic.

According to Porter and Steers (1973), major reasons for a decline in an individual's supply of work time may not rest with him but there may be some other issues to consider. For example, work-related stress, poor remuneration and conditions of service (incentives), and adverse working environments are very critical issues to consider. Also, changes in the individual's personal circumstances also affect his supply of work hours, and

the more obvious of such circumstances may be reflected in an individual's regular lateness.

The wage rate, which is the price for labour is very important in determining labour participation in the job market. Cole (1997) posited that the number of hours and the level of effort to wages can even make labour behave characteristically contrary to the norm and work ethics. Cole further notes that as hourly wages increase, workers increase productivity. In this wise, if the assumption that labour is always efficient is accepted, then one can argue further that at the previous wage rates labour could have still increased productivity through adequate supply of work time. It can be deduced that if the same effective supply of labour is assumed, then work time gets deliberately wasted when wages are low.

Some employers normally assume that when an employee agrees to work for them, the obligation is for a payment of only remuneration for the services rendered, nothing is provided apart from their meagre wages. Most often basic needs guide the worker in the determination of the worker's self-estimated wage (Cole, 1997). In the case of basic needs being unfulfilled most workers resort to quitting their jobs where possible, or apathy and time wasting where quitting may not be advisable. However, workers are known to have two main individual needs that they have to fulfil. By fulfilling these basic needs workers may be able to provide for their necessities and where appropriate, for their households. However, how eager employers may be regarding satisfying these basic needs could be a big issue for work operations.

In another instance, it is asserted that age presents differences in labour force participation and peoples' desires to supply extensive employee-hours differ over time (Carnahan, et al. 1987). Furthermore, even though as people grow they gain enough experience their capacities deteriorate. At the same time, their relative utilities for work may be shifting as they find their work harder to do. This might be the more reason why in advanced countries flexibility in choice of hours of work is preferred to the mandatory fixed period or standard work week. Though it is not known how age affects time wasting, these assertions serve as pointers to what must be happening when workers advance in years.

Even though issues relating to the work environment are very important to economists the greater part of such conditions rests with Ergonomics. However, as far as Economics is concerned, the work environment has two main components. These are the physical and socio-economic environments. The physical environment embraces the structural and other visible elements that are needed for the effective performance of work. The socio-economic environment takes care of the human, economic and social aspects of life required for effective labour performance.

The social environment requires a firm base upon current ideas of social justice and Development Economics. Rebore (2001) argues that one other provision that contributes positively towards a healthier, happier and hence more efficient labour force is welfare services provided by employers, which may include the institution of National Insurance Schemes, Health Schemes, Out of job payment plans, Sickness benefits, and Supplementary

services. Generally, welfare services help to maintain the health and morale of workers.

Strategies to Manage Time

Time management is a conscious process and its focus is on effectiveness. An employee has to determine which tasks are necessary to the performance of his or her job, how much time each task will take, and which task should be done first. According to Lakein (1978), once the necessary activities are clearly identified and analysed for time utilization, the following strategies can be implemented to avoid time wasters.

Identify Important Tasks

Even though workers set priorities, it is difficult to avoid the temptation to do the little tasks first because it is felt that they take less time and can be quickly disposed of. It is these relatively unimportant activities that eat up workers day, thus leaving the more important tasks not done. Lakein suggested a solution to this dilemma using the A, B, C method of setting priorities. "A" activities are those that have the greatest value in the fulfillment of objectives, "B" activities are of medium value, and "C" activities are those likely to have little payoff. Unfortunately, many workers do too many "Cs" instead of concentrating on the "As" which bring them more results. They frantically crank out memoranda and call meetings on "C' activities that do little more than perpetuate that feeling of the walls closing in. Effective superiors will delegate most "C' activities to subordinates who, because of the nature of the activities and the closeness to the situation, are better able to perform them.

Regulate Telephone Calls

According to Adom (2002), telephones are invaluable time savers. However, they could become major time wasters or robbers when they are not used effectively. The guidelines below as recommended by Adom (2002) are worth considering:

a. Minimize the opening chitchat. At least a little social talk at the onset of a call helps personalize what is to follow. But it can take time and divert you from your purpose. Be very aware of that initial socializing and keep it to a minimum.

b. Write out, in advance, a list of all the topics you intend to cover. Such an inventory will help organize your conversation more efficiently.

c. Take control of the conversation when someone else calls. This is critical if the other person is poorly organized or gabby. If he or she seems stuck in the social opening, wait for a pause and say, "So what can I do for you?" If the business portion of the call moves aimlessly or runs too long, interject something like "Sorry, but I have to be at a meeting in five minutes. Let's try to wrap this up."

d. Keep a three-minute hourglass on your desk and turn it when you begin speaking. It is believed to be the most probably very effective way for some discipline on telephone conversations.

Avoid Drop-in Visitors

The following strategies as recommended by Mancini (2003) should be adopted to reduce the number of drop-in visitors:

a. Adopt the surefire strategy: get up and ask the person to accompany you somewhere close by (e.g., the snack bar). Continue your discussion while doing your work there. When done, simply say you're glad you two talked, and then leave the person there.

b. Remain standing while you are at your workplace or in your office; it will usually make someone else feel uncomfortable about staying too long.

c. Outline your time limitations from the outset.

d. Stand up when you are ready to finish.

e. Keep your body somewhat angled to the other person. This body language will convey your need to get back to something else.

f. Try taking your work elsewhere - an empty conference room, a nearby library, even a restaurant.

Plan Meetings

Unplanned meetings could become a major source of interruption of work time. The following points as suggested by Mancini (2003) could be considered to ensure proper planning of meetings:

a. Assign the meeting a clear start time. Check for conference room availability. Equally important: the meeting shouldn't be delayed for late arrivals. Participants will soon learn that you expect them to be prompt.

b. Assign an official closing time to the meeting. Open-ended meetings can drag on, with participants mired in trivial or ancillary concerns. A tight finish time disciplines participants to work more efficiently and with fewer tangents. Shorter meetings tend to concentrate discussions

on the real goals of the meeting and keep it focused. If the meeting length must expand, it should be by the consensus of all the participants.

c. Set at least one goal for your meeting. A meeting without clear objectives is rudderless. Concentrate on how the meeting should achieve the component objectives of that goal.

d. Be reasonable about the number of topics to be covered. Having established a start time, a finish time, and a set of goals, you should be able to designate a reasonable number of subjects for discussion. An agenda too tight with topics should be deemed for the start.

Make A "To Do" List

A study has shown that there is an 80/20 management rule, that is, 80 percent of a manager's results are a direct result of 20 percent of the tasks performed. Consequently, it is important to an employee's effectiveness to set priorities among tasks and to tackle the important ones first and stand the chance of utilising his or her time effectively if he or she begins to map out a daily schedule often known as a "To Do" List. Warchay (1978) had some pertinent suggestions about the use of a daily " To Do" List.

a. Do not be too ambitious. List activities which are too long and never seem to get a dent in them and can quickly turn to frustration.

b. Expect your original list to grow. Activities you plan for will most certainly be supplemented with the usual daily crises

c. Skip a few lines between activities so you can insert unplanned firefighting activities

d. At the end of each day-or whenever necessary- reprioritize

e. Strike the activity from your list when accomplished

f. Making a "To Do" List and using it appropriately is an essential strategy combating time wasters

Delegate Responsibilities

Delegation can be one of a worker's most effective time management tools. Many superiors who have come through the ranks often find this difficult and tend to stay involved in areas of former responsibility. This is a time waster for both the superior and the subordinate. An effective manager carefully selects his or her tasks and weighs the benefits of performing a task that a subordinate could do. A manager's perception that he or she could perform a task better than a subordinate must be viewed against the fact that the alternative uses of the manager's time for such activities as planning, organising, directing, and controlling will be more beneficial to the organisation and to the performance of his or her duties. According to MacKenzie (1972) , "there are benefits to be derived from delegation and the primary one is that delegation extends results from what a manager can do and to what can control and thereby releases him from less important activities for more important tasks "(p.16).

Good management means getting things done through the support of others. It means matching the right people to the jobs, delegating to them the corresponding authority, and expecting them to accomplish the task. Good management also means that a manager does not allow subordinates delegate "up" so that he or she is doing their work for them.

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Avoid Procrastination

Procrastination is described as a major barrier to effective time management. Often procrastination is triggered because the task at hand seems impossible. Using a time management system can help you keep track of everything that you need to do, organize and prioritize your work, and develop sound plans to complete it. An integrated system is like glue that holds all the best time management practices together. Frequently that which appears overwhelming may only seem so because a manager has not analyzed the task. Fluet (1977) reminded managers of Newton's Law - a body of motion tends to remain in motion. She suggested that a manager should define what needs to be accomplished, then list all of the tasks involved in meeting the objective. Next put the tasks in chronological order.

Set Clear Objectives

Schedule time to set and evaluate your goals. Start a journal and write down your progress for each goal. Go through your goal journal each week to make sure you are on the right track. Significant number of official work time is wasted due to the lack of clear objectives. Webber (1972) outlined the following tips to overcome the challenge of lack of objectives.

a. Maintain and develop a list of specific things to be done each day, set your priorities and then get the most important ones done as soon in the early part of the day as you can. Evaluate your progress at the end of the day briefly.

b. Examine and revise your lifetime goals on a monthly basis and be sure to include progress towards those goals on a daily basis.

c. Find time to concentrate on high priority items or activities.

d. Spend some time at the beginning of each week to plan your schedule. Taking the extra time to do this will help increase your productivity and balance your important long-term projects with your more urgent tasks.

Avoid Crisis Management

It is a good idea to evaluate regularly how you are spending your time. In some cases, the best thing you can do is to stop doing an activity that is no longer serving you so you can spend the time doing something more valuable. Consider what you are giving up in order to maintain your current activities. Effective management of crisis is one of the ways to use time effectively. Lakein (1973) suggested the following to manage crisis effectively:

a. Identify the causes of unexpected events

b. Make time for the unexpected in your daily plan

c. Look ahead in your month and try and anticipate what is going to happen so you can better schedule your time

Learn to Say 'No'

Many people become overloaded with too much work because they over commit; they say yes when they really should be saying no. Learn to say no to low priority requests and you will free up time to spend on things that are more important. The following tips as recommended by Oncken (1984) could help to say 'No':

a. Give a reason. To simply decline to do something seems arbitrary, lazy, or irresponsible. If you give a good, solid reason for your decision, it will show that you are reasonable.

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b. Be diplomatic. Saying no can hurt, upset, or even anger the person to whom you are saying it. Tact is essential when turning down anything

c. Suggest a trade-off. If you explain that you are willing to find some other way to contribute, you will underscore your goodwill. For example, if your boss suggests you do something and you are convinced that you are the wrong person to do it, explain your perceptions and suggest taking on another task that you know needs to be done.

d. Don't put off your decision. It is probably the most common way for people to postpone an inevitable "no."

e. Be courageous. If you know that you cannot or will not do something, be decisive and *say* it, then and there. Delaying a decision is only justified in intricate situations.

Summary of Literature Review

The review of related literature has revealed certain important points about organisational or institutional time management practices. Throughout history, humanity has recorded the passage of time and has simultaneously struggled unsuccessfully to define and control it. While it is difficult to define time specifically, it is referred to in many metaphors, such as "time flies," time heals all," "when time stood still," "making up time," some of which are mythical and cause misconceptions about time. For example, time does not fly, rather, one finds that through inadequate planning and other comparable managerial tasks, and too much is left to do in too small a time frame. Individuals may differ in their orientation to time. While some people can

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accurately estimate the length of time they would spend in completing a task, others consistently overestimate or underestimate time.

Everyone has to manage time, and some jobs require that a greater emphasis be placed on time management than others. Time Management is more than just managing time. It is about controlling the use of the most valuable - and undervalued - resource. It is managing oneself in relation to time. It is setting priorities and taking charge of the situation and time utilisation. It means changing those habits or activities that cause waste of time. It is being willing to adopt habits and methods to make maximum use of time

There are many time wasters that workers must guard against if they want to use their time effectively. Time wasters often occur when one handles too many different kinds of duties, spends too much time on unimportant tasks, does not list objectives, fails to complete a task, or procrastinates. Educational workers with ever increasing demands on their time must manage their time better if they expect to get results. Taking the time to identify time wasters and implementing strategies to manage time better may be the best time a worker has ever spent.

The review of related literature revealed that time management studies in the education sector is very minimal especially in the district education offices. This therefore justifies this study which seeks to find out the existence or otherwise of time wasters and determine their perceived impact on the time management practices among staff of the district education offices in the Central Region.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the study was to find out the existence or otherwise of time wasters and determine their perceived impact on the time management practices among staff of the district education offices in the Central Region This chapter describes the research design adopted, the population been studied and the sampling procedure employed in the study. Also, the chapter describes the research instruments used in collecting data, data collection procedure and how the data collected was analysed.

Research Design

The design adopted for this study is the descriptive survey with the focus of the study being the Time Management Practices at District Education offices in the Central Region. According to Best and Kahn (1995), the descriptive survey basically describes and interprets what is. It is concerned with conditions or relationships that exist, opinions that are held, effects that are evident or trends that are developing. It is primarily concerned with the present, although it often considers past events and influences as they relate to current condition.

The descriptive survey was, therefore, chosen because it describes the nature of existing conditions of time management in the education offices under study and, thus appropriate for the description above. Another reason

why the descriptive survey was chosen was that it helps to gather information from a relatively large number of cases at a particular time. Furthermore, the descriptive survey design makes room for in-depth follow-up questions and this provides a better opportunity for unclear items to be explained (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000; Sarantakos, 1998).

As in other forms of research designs, certain weaknesses are associated with descriptive survey design. As indicated by Quansah (2007), respondents can provide false and careless responses to some of the items on the questionnaire. This normally happens where the values or attitudes being measured are not approved by society. Respondents may feel that their private lives are being delved into. To alleviate such feelings, questions that may delve into the respondent's private life which do not have anything to do with the study are avoided. Also, the construction of questions and statements as well as alternative responses may be unclear, ambiguous and inadequate.

Despite these weaknesses of the descriptive survey design, it was considered the most appropriate for investigating time management practices in education offices in the Central Region. This stand was based on the fact that considering the research questions and the sample of the study it was seen as the best design that could lead to a meaningful conclusion from the study in order to achieve the purpose of the study.

Population

The population for the study consisted of the district directors of education, frontliners, unit/desk heads as well as other scheduled officers and subject co-ordinators. Statistics from the Annual Review Report from the

Central Regional Education Office, Cape Coast in 2009 put this target population at 785. This was made up of 465 Teaching Staff and 320 Non-teaching Staff. The Teaching Staff are professionally trained teachers who are working in the offices while the Non-teaching staff are workers who have not received any professional teacher training to become teachers. The District Directors are part of the teaching staff.

Table 1: Staff Distribution in District Education Offices in the Central Region

District	Total Staff Establishment/ Approved	Staff at Post		Vacancies	Total Staff at Post
		Teaching	Non-Teaching		
Cape Coast	61	30	28	3	58
KEEA	61	33	28	0	61
Abura/Asebu/Kwaman	62	31	20	11	51
Assin North	74	41	33	0	74
Assin South	61	35	17	9	52
Ajumako/Enyan/Essiam	61	39	20	2	59
Asikuma/OdobenBrakwa	61	32	21	8	53
Agona	67	36	23	8	59
Awutu/Efutu/Senya	61	33	28	0	61
Gomoa	64	37	27	0	64
Twifo/Heman/Lower/Denk	66	45	21	0	66
Mfantseman	64	35	29	0	64
Upper Denkyira	70	38	25	7	63
Total	**833**	**465**	**320**	**48**	**785**

Source: Annual Review Report (2009), Central Region

NB: According to the Report, staff allocation is calculated on the number of schools within the district.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

In all, there were 13 education offices in the Central Region as at December 2009. The Education Offices are made up of one (1) Metropolitan Office, six (6) Municipal Offices and six (6) District offices. Six education offices of the target offices were selected for the study. This constitutes 46% of the targeted Education Offices. That size (46%) of the sample was chosen because it would be representative enough to make a meaningful generalisation about the population. This position stems from the view of Becker and Selltiz (as cited in Sarantakos, 1998) that a sample should be able to provide a better option to a complete coverage as the population in a short period of time, as well as produce an equally valid result.

The Districts, Municipalities and Metropolis were treated as separate stratum. The aim was to compare time management practices in the Districts, Municipalities and the Metropolitan Education Offices. The simple random sampling (lottery) technique was used to select the offices from each stratum. The Metropolitan Education Office was an automatic selection while two (2) and three (3) offices were selected from the Municipal and District stratum respectively.

In selecting the respondents, the stratified sampling was once again used. The teaching staff formed one stratum while the non-teaching staff formed the other stratum. This was done for all the six (6) education offices which were selected. According to Gay (1992), stratified sampling is more convenient when the population is large and more appropriate, when we find an intact group of similar characteristics. Through the lottery method of selection, a total number of 38 teaching and non-teaching staff were selected to form part

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of the sample from each education office. The merits of the lottery method make it suitable for the study. The merits include: first, it is quite independent of the properties of the population; it equally eliminates selection bias; besides, it is the best sampling technique for homogenous population and the fact that it has high precision (Nsowah- Nuamah, 2005)

However, the District/Municipal/Metropolitan Directors and the four 'Frontliners' from each education office were purposively selected. The researcher expressly selected those people because their opinions were invaluable as far as the study was concerned. Also, the purposive sampling technique was adopted because any other sampling techniques could have easily missed them in the sampling universe. This brings the total number of respondents from each office to forty-three (43). The total sample size for the study was 258.

Research Instruments

Three types of instruments were used to collect data for the study. They were a questionnaire; interview guide and observation guide (see Appendices AI-AIII). The questionnaire, the interview and observation guides were developed with assistance from Senior Academic Members of the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) with few items adopted from related studies.

The principal source for collecting major part of the data was questionnaire which is considered by Sapsford and Jupp (1996); Shaughnessy, Zechmeister and Zechmeister (2000); and, Davies (1997) as a highly structured and most common method of data collection. The use of the

questionnaire in the study was based on the position of Kerlinger (as cited in Morrison, 2010) that the questionnaire is widely used for collecting data in educational research because of its efficacy for producing information about practices and conditions and for enquiring into the opinions and attitudes of respondents. On the coverage of a questionnaire in educational research, Sarantakos (1998) opines that the questionnaire provides a wider coverage since the researcher can easily approach respondents more easily. He observed further that the questionnaire is less expensive, produces fast results and has uniform measure without variation.

Despite the advantages of the questionnaire as highlighted above, there are some shortcomings or limitations in the use of the questionnaire. According to Sarantakos (1998), the questionnaire is very anonymous, and for that matter, researchers are not sure whether the right people have answered the questions. He further noted that there are no opportunities for motivating the respondents to answer the questions with the use of the questionnaire.

A 35-item questionnaire (see Appendix AI) was designed to gather data on the time management practices among staff of the district education offices in the Central Region. The questionnaire consisted of five sections (A, B, C, D and E).

Section 'A' deals with demographic questions which were based on the background and experience of respondents. Section 'B' looked at the work environment of the respondents with emphasis on existing time wasters and how they are controlled. Section 'C' considered individual characteristics while section 'D' looked at work schedule of respondents and section 'E'

examined the time management training programmes available. The questionnaire consisted of both closed-ended items and open-ended items.

Apart from the use of the questionnaire, the researcher also had interview sessions with the district directors of education (see Appendix AII). Some selected questions from the main questionnaire were asked during the interview session to get respondents' reaction about their time management. The interviews were also linked with non-verbal expressions.

According to Paloma (as cited in Best and Kahn, 1995), the purpose of interviewing is to find out what is in or on someone else's mind. The purpose of interviewing is not to put things in someone's mind but to access the perspective of the person being interviewed.

The third instrument employed in the study was observational chart. The chart was a six-column time scale (see Appendix AIII). The first column is marked 08:00 GMT (the official reporting time) and it progresses at an interval of 15 minutes per column up to 09.00GMT. It was used to observe the actual time that staff or respondents of the study reported for work.

The instruments were designed mainly to collect information based on the four (4) research questions raised earlier in this study. This helped to provide answers to those research questions.

Pilot- testing of Instruments

A pilot- test of the instrument was carried out in two (2) education offices in the Central Region which were not included in the sample. One District Office and a Municipal Office were chosen for the pilot study. This was done to ensure that the pilot-testing was undertaken on respondents with

similar characteristics as those in the sample. This helped in enhancing the validity and reliability of the instruments (Amedahe, 2002). The pilot-test was intended among other things to expose words or expressions which were difficult to understand and helped to modify the instruments to ensure high validity and reliability.

The questionnaire was administered to staff of Efutu Municipal Education Office at Winneba and the Twifo-Heman Lower Denkyira District Education Office at Twifo Praso. Twenty (20) copies of the questionnaire were randomly distributed to each education office bringing the total questionnaire for the pilot study to forty (40). At Twifo Praso, 13 teaching staff and 7 non-teaching staff were selected to respond to the questionnaire while 11 and 9 teaching and non-teaching staff respectively responded to the questionnaire at the Winneba education office.   Out of this number, 35 (87.5%) were retrieved. It took about one month to retrieve the thirty-five copies of the questionnaire due to the delay in responding to the items on the questionnaire coupled with the travelling distance from Cape Coast to the two towns.

Certain short comings especially on the framing of some items were pointed out during the pilot testing. An Assistant Director in charge of the Human Resource Division at the Efutu Municipal Education Office for instance made a very useful suggestion on the need to reduce the open-ended questions to attract more people to respond to the questionnaire and also for easy analysis. All the suggestions made on the questionnaire and the interview guide helped in the re-structuring of the instruments for the final study. The

reliability coefficient of the pilot-testing questionnaire is summarise in Table 2.

Table 2: Reliability Coefficient of Pilot Test

Section	Reliability Coefficient
A	.741
B	.745
C	.741
D	.741
E	.745
Grand Reliability	**.743**

Source: Field work (2010)

The Grand Reliability Coefficient of .743 as shown in Table 2 was found to be reliable and valid hence the questionnaire was adopted for the final study. However, the necessary corrections were made before the questionnaire for the main study was administered.

Data Collection Procedure

An introductory letter was collected from the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) of the University of Cape Coast to present to the district directors and other 'frontliners' from whom data was collected. Before administering the questionnaire, preliminary contacts were made with some frontliners where the purpose and significance of the study were explained. Through the contacts, a frontliner from each of the office was nominated by their respective directors to assist in the administration and collection of the questionnaire. The respondents were given three weeks to

complete the questionnaires, after which they were contacted at an appointed time. Appointment with respondents was to ensure that they avail themselves for interaction.

Three weeks was chosen for the administration of the instrument in order to avoid the adverse effect of history on the data collected. The interview schedule with the district directors was conducted at time agreed upon by the Directors. The administration and collection of data was expected to take one month but due to the difficulty encountered in getting district directors for interview sessions and collection of completed questionnaires, the entire exercise lasted about two months.

Generally, the response from the respondents was encouraging due to the good rapport established with the respondents. The return rate of questionnaires administered is summarised in Table 3.

Table 3: Distribution of Return Rate of Questionnaire Administered

District Offices	Questionnaire Administered	Questionnaire Retuned	Percentage Retrieved	Percentage Not Retrieved
Cape Coast	42	32	76%	24%
Elmina	42	30	71%	29%
Swedru	42	29	69%	31%
Ajumako	42	30	71%	29%
Asikuma	42	30	71%	29%
Abura				
Dunkwa	42	29	69%	31%

Source: Field work (2010)

The percentage of the questionnaire not retrieved was due to the lack of co-operation from the respondents concerned. A total of 180 questionnaires and 6 interview guides were collected from the respondents. This brings the total number of respondents or instruments retrieved to 186.

Data Analysis

Since the study was a descriptive survey, descriptive statistics were used in the analysis of data collected. According to Sarantakos (1998), the analysis of data allows the researcher to manipulate information collected during the study in order to assess and evaluate the findings and arrive at some valid, meaningful and relevant conclusions.

All data collected by means of questionnaire were coded, entered, cleaned and analysed using Statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS) version 16.0. Frequencies, percentages, and cross tabulations were used to summarise the responses while data collected by means of interview were recorded and transcribed to support the discussions.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The purpose of the study was to find out the existence or otherwise of time wasters and determine their perceived impact on the time management practices among staff of the district education offices in the Central Region. This chapter deals with the analysis and discussion of data gathered from respondents through the instruments administered. The chapter has been grouped into two sections, 'A' and 'B'.

The first section deals with the background of respondents; characteristics of respondents that have been considered include age group, marital status, academic qualification, rank in the Ghana Education Service (GES) and length of service. This is to highlight the calibre of respondents covered by the study using those variables.

The second aspect of the data analysis and discussions sought to find out the existence or incidence of major time wasters in the district education offices in the Central Region. The perceived effects of time wasters on official work time and the control measures adopted by staff were also discussed. Time management training programmes available in the education offices were analysed and discussed at the final part of the chapter. This was done to assess the impact of the training programmes on the use of official work time.

SECTION A

Background of Respondents

Age group

Respondents were to indicate their ages within specific age groups. The responses to the age groups are summarised in Table 4.

Table 4: Age Distribution of Respondents

Age (Years)	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Under 20	4	2.2
20 – 30	11	5.9
31 – 40	63	33.9
41 – 50	59	31.7
51 – 60	49	26.3
Total	**186**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

Table 4 indicates that 66% of the respondents were between 31 years and 50 years, while about 8% were under 31 years.

Marital Status

Marital status is one of the major variables considered in the study of the time management practices in district education offices in the Central Region. Table 5 provides a summary of the marital status of respondents.

Table 5: Marital Status of Respondents

Marital status	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Single (never married)	17	9.3
Married	149	82.3
Divorced	6	3.4
Widowed	5	2.7
Separated	4	2.3
Total	**181**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

From Table 5, about 91% of the respondents in the selected district education offices in the Central Region have one way or the other tasted marriage before: 82.3% representing 149 respondents were married, 2.7% widowed and 2.3% separated.

Academic Qualification

Information on academic qualification was gathered to determine the level of formal education qualifications of staff of the district education offices in the Central Region. Table 6 is a summary of the academic qualification of respondents.

Table 6: Academic Qualification of Respondents

Qualification	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Post – Graduate	9	4.8
First Degree	62	33.4
Diploma	38	20.4
Teacher's Cert 'A'	16	8.6
4-year Teachers' Cert 'A' with O-level	38	20.4
Below O-level	23	12.4
Total	**186**	**100**

Source: Field work (2010)

From Table 6, 33.4% of the respondents were First Degree holders. Another 4.8% held Post- Graduate degree or qualification. This brings to 38.2% (71 out of 186) respondents covered by this study who have had University education.

According to a self – perception scale of time management developed by Walker and Pankhurst (1982), people between ages 18 and 59 years and who had completed college education had more effective time management scores. As indicated in Table 4, majority of the staff in the district education offices fell within this specific age group (18-59 years). In fact, 98% of the respondents were above 20 years of age. Also, about 38% of the respondents had College or University education as shown in Table 6. Considering the findings of Walker and Pankhurst (1982), data on the staff of the district education offices as demonstrated in Tables 4 and 6 are positive conditions for effective time management practices in the District Education Offices.

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Rank in the Ghana Education Service

Rank in the Ghana Education Service is a very important variable in determining ones position, job responsibilities and remunerations. Table 7 represents a summary of the ranks of respondents.

Table 7: Rank in Ghana Education Service

Rank	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Director	5	2.7
Deputy Director	2	1.1
Assistant Director	53	28.9
Principal Superintendent	67	36.6
Senior Superintendent	16	8.7
Superintendent	10	5.4
Below Superintendent	30	16.4
Total	**183**	**100**

Source: Field work (2010)

According to Table 7, 69% of the respondents were above the rank of Senior Superintendent- 67 respondents were Principal Superintendents while 28.9% or 53 respondents were Assistant Directors. This clearly shows a high incidence of superior rank officers in the Central Region. Apart from the position of a District Director of Education (DDE) which requires a rank of a Director, the other units or division heads may not necessarily require ranks before the appointment is made (Adom 2002).

Length of Service

Information on length of service is to determine the number of years each respondent has served in the Ghana Education Service. Table 8 is a report on the length of service of respondents.

Table 8: Length of Service of Respondents

Years	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Below 5 years	57	31.1
6 – 10 years	6	3.2
11 – 15 years	18	9.8
16 – 20 years	6	3.2
Above 20 years	96	52.4
Total	**183**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

From Table 8, 96 respondents or 52.4% of the respondents have worked in the Ghana Education Service for more than 20 years. The time management practices of those who have been in the service for over 20years are likely to influence those who just joined the service. According to Macan (1994), long serving officers are expected to have acquired the necessary skills, resources, and knowledge of organisational procedures to work more effectively and this could imperceptibly be passed on to the 'new entrants' such as those who are serving for less than 5 years.

Incidence of Time Wasters

Research Question 1: What type of time wasters exist among staff of the district education offices?

The rationale behind the research question was to find out the types of time wasters which existed among the staff of the district education offices in the Central Region.

Time wasters fall under two main categories. The first category is self generated internal time wasters. These are the things that workers do to waste time and are the easiest to control. The second category is of the external time wasters. These are the things other people do to waste a worker's time. This can be more difficult to control, though it can be controlled with a little bit of effort and ingenuity. This section examines the incidence of both self generated internal and external time wasters.

Interruptions by Colleagues

The work environment describes the immediate work setting which according to Carnahan et, al. (1987) includes office furniture, classroom, telephone facilities, equipment and buildings. The second aspect of the work environment is the general organisation or institution in which work takes place. The third aspect of the work environment is the calibre of colleagues at the work place. These physical facilities and conditions affect the use of time during a typical day.

From the study, it was discovered that 93% of the respondents had office space to work with while the remaining 7% had no office space to work.

However, on the question as to the number of people sharing an office space, the responses were mixed. Table 9 summarised the responses.

Table 9: Number of People You Share Office With

No. of people	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Nobody	12	6.8
One	19	10.9
Two or more	143	82.3
Total	**174**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

As shown in Table 9, 143 respondents representing 82.3% shared office with two or more people while only 12 respondents shared office spaces with nobody. According to Tibu (2005), staff with separate office spaces are likely to work more effectively than those who shared offices with others.

Closeness to one another at the work place is likely to cause interruptions of work time since it enhances the ability to engage in conversations which may not be directly related to the office. Clearly, there is a high incidence of inter personal relationships since over eighty percent shared office spaces with two or more people. According to Macan (1994), interruptions and distractions arise due to lack of planning, poor concentration and lack of control over environment. The use of time is very much keyed to the character of colleagues at the work place. Table 10 provides a summary of the responses to the extent which work time is interrupted by colleagues.

Table 10: Interruptions by Colleagues

Response	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Not at all	50	27.9
Quite often	77	43.0
Often	34	19.0
Very often	18	10.1
Total	**179**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

From the summary in Table 10, 43% of the respondents were of the view that interruption of work time by colleagues were quite often while 50 respondents representing 27.9% stated that there were no interruption of work time by colleagues. Only 10.1% of the respondents agreed that interruption of work time by colleagues were very often. From the statistics, it is clear that about 72% of the respondents assert that there were certain degrees of interruption of work time by their colleagues.

Studies by other time management experts such as MacKenzie (1975), Lakein (1973) and Mancini (2003) have established that interruption of work time by colleagues and other workers is a natural phenomenon. It is therefore difficult to eliminate such interruptions entirely. However, attempts must be made to minimize such interruptions

Telephone Interruptions

According to Mancini (2003), the telephone is the single most powerful and versatile time management tool. It saves time, travel, distance, and energy. It is an instant form of communication. It also permits

technological tools, like the fax machine and the modem, to ply their electronic paths. In a slightly different form, the telephone allows interaction with all manner of computer knowledge and can access the Internet.

Telephone facilities were identified as major time wasters in the study. According to Adom (2002), telephones are made to be invaluable time savers, however, they could become major time wasters or robbers when they are not used effectively.

From the study, 85% of the respondents indicated that they had telephone facilities installed in their offices in addition to their personal mobile phones. Table 11 provides a summary of the interruption of work time by telephone calls daily.

Table 11: Average Daily Telephone Call Interruptions

Duration	Frequency (f)	Percentage
0 – 4 mins	81	43.5
5 – 9 mins	50	26. 8
10 – 14 mins	7	3.9
15 mins and above	46	24.8
Total	**186**	**100**

Source: Field work (2010)

According to Table 11, 81 out of 186 respondents representing 43.5% of the respondents spent between 0 – 4 minutes on the average per day on telephone calls. Another 26.8% of the respondents spent between 5 – 9 minutes on the average per day on calls. According to several respondents

who had access to telephone facilities in their offices as well as mobile phones, they received between 5 to10 calls on the average each day.

It is observed from the study that the interruption of work time by telephone calls is very 'high' since 64% of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that telephone calls encroached on the effective use of time.

A cross tabulation was run on the number of calls received while at work by Districts to establish the rate at which staff received calls while at work across the districts. The result is shown in Table 12.

Table 12: Number of Calls Received While at Work by Districts

	Number Of Calls Received While At Work				
District	0 – 4	5 – 9	10– 14	15 and above	Total
Cape Coast	14	6	2	1	23
Agona	7	11	0	2	20
Ajumako Enyan Esiam	14	13	1	2	30
Asikuma Odoben Brakwa	23	8	2	0	33
K EEA	19	7	2	1	29
AAK	10	8	0	0	18
Total	**87**	**53**	**7**	**6**	**153**

Source: Field work (2010)

From Table 11, it is observe that respondents from Asikuma Odoben Brakwa, Komenda Edina Eguafo Abrem (KEEA) and Ajumako Enyan Esiam received the highest number of calls while at work. It is important to note that out of the 153 respondents who received calls while at work, more than half spent between 0-4 minutes on each call while 53 respondents spent between 5-

9 minutes on each call with only six (6) respondents spending 15minutes and above on each call. The results in Table 12 confirms the position of Waheed et al. (2004) that telephone calls are major time wasters in organizations.

Drop-in Visitors

Question number 18 on the questionnaire sought to find out the number of drop-in (unexpected) visitors that respondents received each working day. Table 13 provides a summary of the responses.

Table 13: Average Drop-In Visitors Received Daily

Drop - in visitors	Frequency (f)	Percentage
0-3	99	53.5
4 – 7	51	27.6
8 – 11	24	13.0
More than 12	11	5.9
Total	**185**	**100**

Source: Field work (2010)

According to Table 13, 99 respondents or 53.5% of respondents received between zero and three drop-in visitors whilst 51 respondents or 27.6% of respondents received between four and seven visitors daily. Further questions on drop-in visitors revealed that each drop-in visitor spent between five and fifteen minutes. If the above statistics is anything to go by, one can then agree with MacKenzie (1972) that drop-in visitors are indeed one of the major time wasters or robbers in institutions. A cross tabulation was run on the average number of drop-in visitors received daily by Districts, the result is summarised in Table 14.

Table 14: Drop-In Visitors Received Daily by Districts

District	Number Of Drop-In Visitors Receive Daily				Total
	0 – 3	4 – 7	8 – 11	More than12	
Cape Coast	8	3	2	0	13
Agona	7	5	2	0	14
Ajumako Enyan Esiam	10	4	5	0	19
Asikuma Odoben Brakwa	13	7	1	1	22
KEEA	10	6	2	0	18
AAK	7	5	2	0	14
Total	**55**	**30**	**14**	**1**	**100**

Source: Field work (2010)

From the cross tabulation in Table 14, Ajumako Enyan Esiam and Asikuma Odoben Brakwa recorded the highest number of drop-in visitors of 19 and 22 respectively. However, Cape Coast which is a Metropolitan office recorded only 13 drop-in visitors, the same number recorded by Agona Municipal office.

Crisis Management

According to Mancini (2003), crisis management is an offspring of lack of prioritisation of tasks. As a result of the inability to distinguish between the urgent, the important and the unnecessary tasks, unimportant tasks are likely to get done first at the cost of important tasks. Consequently, the staff are not likely to find enough time to get around to the important things.

Effective management of crisis is one of the ways to use time effectively. New information may change the urgency of a task and may lead to dissipations in a planned programme. Table 15 deals with the incidence of crisis management on respondents.

Table 15: Crisis Management

Response	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Not at all	17	9.2
Sometimes	143	77.7
Frequently	22	12.0
Very frequently	2	1.1
Total	**184**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

According to the responses in Table 15, 9.2% indicated that they never left tasks unfinished due to competing demands or caught up in crisis management while 77.7% said they are sometimes caught up in crisis management situations. The admission by about 90% of the respondents that they sometimes frequently or very frequently left tasks unfinished due to competing demands is worth noting. It is an indication that crisis management exist among the target group.

Mantha and Sivaramakrishna (2005) described such people as Firemen - For them, every event is a crisis. They are always seen busy dousing the fires. They find scarcely any time for anything else and do not spare a thought on time-management, tasks keep piling up around them, while they are seen rushing from fire to fire all day.

A cross tabulation was run on the length of service by the percentage of work left unfinished which is a measure of crisis management. The result is summarised in Table 16.

Table 16: Length of Service by Work Left Unfinished

Years	About 5%	About 10%	About 15%	Above 15%	Total
Below 5 years	51	17	2	0	70
6 -10 yrs	35	6	9	2	52
11 – 15 yrs	6	8	3	0	17
16 – 20 yrs	2	4	0	0	6
Above 20 yrs	1	0	4	0	5
Total	**95**	**35**	**18**	**2**	**150**

Source: Field work (2010)

From the cross tabulation results in Table 16, 51 respondents who have been in the service for a period below 5 years had about 5% of work left unfinished at the end of a given period, while 17 of them had 10% left unfinished. However, respondents who have served above 20 years had the lowest amount of task left unfinished. This is a vindication of the position of Macan (1994) that officers who have served for long have the necessary skills and knowledge to work more effectively.

Lack of Clear Daily Objectives

It is an undeniable fact that setting clear and attainable objectives in advance for any official work greatly facilitate the operation and functioning of organizations. The aim of setting clear objectives is to prevent waste of time. According to Lakein (1973) description of time management, individuals first determine their needs and wants and then rank them in terms of importance. Specific activities include setting clear objectives to achieve the needs or wants and prioritising the tasks necessary to accomplish them. The tasks of utmost importance are then matched with the time and resources available by planning, scheduling, and making lists.

Any plan is only as good as the objectives that lie behind it. Clear objectives are really important, and any lack of clarity can affect every aspect of a worker's completion of tasks. Table 17 summarised the response on lack of clear daily objectives.

Table 17: Lack of Clear Daily Objectives

Response	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Not at all	76	42.2
Sometimes	67	37.2
Frequently	25	14.0
Very frequently	12	6.6
Total	**180**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

From Table 17, 76 respondents representing 42.2% never set or did not have daily clear objectives; another 67 or 37.2% sometimes set one for

themselves. However, 14% of the respondents stated that they frequently set clear daily objectives.

The results from Table 17 correlate very positively with those in Table 14 where as high as 77.7% of the respondents stated that they were sometimes caught up in crisis management situations. The situation is very crucial and need critical attention for the growth of the organisation, for according to Macan (1994) staff in organisations stand to gain a sense of mastery over how they allocate their time by setting objectives which are attainable.

Time management must not be seen as only concerned with packing more activity into the available time, though this may be part of it; it must be instrumental in ensuring that objectives are met. Objectives are normally assessed with a very popular acronym which spells out the principles involved: SMART, that is: Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, and Timed.

Ability to Say "No"

According to Deacon and Firebough (as cited in Adom, 2002), a person dissatisfied with current time use, may feel pressured by time demands and may want to improve the effectiveness of its use. Question number 22 on the questionnaire attempted to test the extent to which respondents felt pressurized to accept task which was outside their plan. The response is summarised in Table 18.

Table 18: Ability to Say 'No'

Response	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Yes	99	53.5
No	86	46.5
Total	**185**	**100**

Source: Field work (2010)

According to the responses in Table 18, 99 or 53.5% of the respondents felt pressurized sometimes to accept task outside their own plan or unable to say 'no' while 86 or 46.5% of the respondents could say 'no' or were under no pressure to accept task outside their plan. Saying 'yes' can lead to unexpected pressures, but the mistake workers often make is to say 'yes' to too many things. This causes them to live to the priorities of others, rather than according to their own plan. Every time a worker agrees to do something else, something else will not get done.

Mantha & Sivaramakrishna (2005) described workers who just cannot say 'No' as Over-Committers. They oblige and try to please everybody. All that anyone has to do is just ask, and they will chair another committee, take on another project, or organize yet another community event. Consequently, none of the tasks receives complete attention and remains half-done.

General Anxieties from Home

Human feelings about work cannot be ignored. In this instance, the assumption that labour does not have feelings whatever about work presents a weakness in the formulation of time supply functions. In fact, most often deviant behaviours are observed from workers who have negative emotional

feelings (Colander, 1998). Colander contended that most often, workers who become deviant, use withdrawal behaviours as a means of controlling their work-related stress and frustration. Workers' feelings have much influence on most of the things they do, more especially regarding time wasting.

As identified by Carnahan et, al. (1987), friends, family members and cultural background could also affect the use of official time. For example a family man may sometimes have to direct time and energy from immediate work objective toward family objectives. It is therefore up to the staff of the district education offices in the central region to manage these responsibilities and pressures in order to ensure effective use of work time. Table 19 deals with how anxiety from domestic, health and financial matters affected the effective use of official time.

Table 19: General Anxieties from Home

Response	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Strongly agreed	62	33.8
Agreed	78	42.6
Disagreed	30	16.4
Strongly disagreed	13	7.1
Total	**183**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

From Table 19, it is clear that some level of anxiety from domestic, health and financial matters affected the effective use of time. This is based on the fact that over 76% of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed that some level of anxiety from domestic, health and financial matters affected the

effective use of time while less than 24% either disagreed or strongly disagreed.

The results from Table 19 confirmed the assertion by Burke & Greenglass (1987) that experiencing more demands on one's time from family (home) may spill over into one's work and create conflict. A cross tabulation was run on general anxieties from home by sex of respondents. The result is summarised in Table 20.

Table 20: General Anxieties from Home by Sex of Respondents

	General Anxieties from Home				
Sex	SA	A	D	SD	Total
Male	18.5	22.2	21.0	6.2	67.9
Female	14.8	13.6	2.5	1.2	32.1
Total	**33.3**	**35.8**	**23.5**	**7.4**	**100.0**

 Source: Field work (2010)

According to Table 20, majority of the female respondents (14.8%) strongly agreed that there were anxiety from domestic, health and financial matters, while about 1% strongly disagreed. Interestingly, majority of males (about 22%) also agreed that there were certain levels of anxiety from domestic, health and financial matters.

A chi-square test on Table 20 revealed that there is a significant relationship between sex of respondents and general anxieties from home ($X^2 = 14.1$; df = 3 ; P = 0.003).

Procrastination

Another time waster identified in the study was procrastination. Procrastination is normally regarded as the 'thief of time'. Most often, workers do not complete a project once they start. When a worker drops one thing to do another, it creates interruption. It takes more time for a worker to re-familiarize him or herself with a project than to finish it as expeditiously as possible on the first handling. Often procrastination is triggered because the task at hand seems impossible.

Table 21 is data on the extent to which respondents procrastinate.

Table 21: Procrastination

Factors	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Not at all	6	4.1
Sometimes	19	13.1
Frequently	39	26.9
Very frequently	81	55.9
Total	**145**	**100**

Source: Field work (2010)

From Table 21, 81 respondents representing 55.9% indicated that they procrastinate 'very frequently' and thereby accounted for their inability to meet deadlines or accomplish tasks within the time allocated to specific tasks. Only 6 respondents representing 4.1% indicated that they do not procrastinate 'at all' and therefore were able to meet deadlines set for specific tasks.

It is easy to put off tasks if they are not needed urgently. The problem is, tasks pile up and can force workers to run into a time crunch later. According to Webber (1972), procrastination is generally triggered off by the

fear of failure or success, perfectionism, wanting to do it all or incorrect priorities. It is a virtue to want to do a good job, but some workers become so anxious about getting a job done perfectly that they never complete it. Workers should examine whether their efforts to get the job done perfectly are really improving things or preventing them from getting the work done.

Misused Meetings

Misused meetings can be one of the major time wasters in any organization. It is important that precious time is not lost by workers attending meeting which may fail to achieve their objective. Most of the brain cracking and careful examination of issues normally takes place at meetings and as such a lot of time is spent at such meetings. An enquiry into the duration of meetings attended by the staff of the district education offices, revealed that significant amount of time was spent on meetings whether planned or unplanned. Table 22 shows the responses on the duration of meetings.

Table 22: Duration of Meetings at the Office

Duration	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Less than 1 hour	54	29.0
1 – 2 hours	50	27.0
2 – 3 hours	44	24.0
Over 3 hours	37	20.0
Total	**185**	**100.0**

 Source: Field work (2010)

It can be observed from Table 22 that, meetings were generally held between 0-2 hours by the staff of the District Education Offices. Out of the 185 respondents, 54 and 50 representing 29% and 27% respectively attended meetings which lasted for over one hour. The observation confirmed the assertion by Sitterly (1993, p.52) that, "most managers spend 15% or more of their time in meetings". This is definitely a time waster. Respondents were asked to express their opinions about the outcomes of meetings held at the office.   Table 23 summarised the responses.

Table 23: Opinion about Outcome of Meetings

Opinion	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Not satisfactory	4	2.2
Quite satisfactory	65	35.1
Satisfactory	99	53.5
Very satisfactory	17	9.2
Total	**185**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

From Table 23, 99 (53.5%) respondents were satisfied about the outcome of their meetings with colleagues or superiors while only 4 respondents (about 2%) stated that they were 'not satisfied' with the outcome of their meetings. It is important to mention that, about 37% were either not satisfied or quite satisfied.   This showed that there was some feeling of misused of their meetings.

Ineffective Delegation

Delegation is the assignment of authority and responsibility to another person to carry out specific activities. According to Drucker (1966), superiors should delegate tasks which other subordinates could do reasonably well. However the person who delegated the work remains accountable for the outcome of the delegated work. Good management means getting things done through the support of others. It means matching the right people to the Jobs, delegating to subordinates the corresponding authority, and expecting them to accomplish the task. Delegation is one of the ways through which the use of time can be either enhanced or wasted away. Table 24 provide a summary of how respondents felt about works or jobs that were assigned (delegated) to others.

Table 24: Assessment of Delegated Tasks

Assessment	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Not satisfied	19	10.4
Satisfied	121	66.1
Very satisfied	41	22.4
Otherwise	2	1.1
Total	**183**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

According to Table 24, 66.1% of respondents were satisfied with tasks that were delegated to others. Only 10.4% of respondents were of the view that delegation of tasks to others did not enhance their effective use of time. It is important to note that the degree of effective delegation of tasks depends upon the calibre of the subordinate to whom task is delegated. This according

to Sefenu (2001) is due to the fact that whilst some subordinates respond very effectively to delegated tasks, others are just mediocre.

A superior's perception that he or she could perform a task better than a subordinate must be viewed against the fact that the alternative uses of his or her time for such activities as planning, organising, directing, and controlling will be more beneficial to the organization and to the performance of his or her duties. MacKenzie (1972) stated that "there are benefits to be derived from delegation and the primary one is that delegation extends results from what a manager can do and to what he/she can control and thereby releases him from less important activities for more important tasks" (p.123).

MacKenzie went on to suggest that the most important people to whom a manager can delegate responsibilities to is the secretary. According to him, a well-informed secretary, working with a manager as a team, can increase the effectiveness of a manager by handling routine correspondence, managing the calendar, monitoring visitors and phone calls, and meeting deadlines

Though MacKenzie did not include lateness to work and electricity cuts on the list of time wasters, a study by Sefenu (2001) revealed that lateness to work and electricity cuts could be major time wasters in educational institutions. Interestingly, respondents also identified lateness to work and electricity cuts as time wasters in the district education offices.

Lateness to Work

The Ghana Education Service (GES) like most public institutions has set 8:00am as the official reporting time for workers of the various district education offices. Staff have one hour break time (12:30pm – 1:30pm) and close at 5:00pm.

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Lateness to work has been identified as one of the most avoidable time wasters in institutions (Sefenu, 2001). To test the situation among staff of the district education offices, an observational chart was developed to personally observe staff at the selected offices as they reported to work. Table 25 provides a summary of the findings.

Table 25: Lateness to Work

Reporting time	Frequency (f)	Percentage
At or before 8:00am	112	8.6
8:01am – 8:30am	345	26.4
8:31am – 9:00am	746	57.0
9:01am – 9:30am	104	8.0
Total	1307	100.0

Source: Field work (2010)

From 1307 observations, as presented in Table 25, 112 representing 8.6% reported to work at or before the official reporting time while 746 or 57% of the respondents reported to work between 8:31am - 9:00am. The result of the observations indicate that majority of staff (about 83%) reported to work one-hour late (8:01- 9:00am) which is quite significant.

The direct observation method was adopted in order to crosscheck information obtained from the time register or the attendance books in the selected district offices. While the information from the time or attendance books indicated that staff were punctual and regular at work, the direct observation revealed the opposite. Further checks revealed low supervision

and monitoring of the time book to ensure that staff recorded the actual times that they reported to work.

Electricity Cuts

In an era of Information Communication Technology, dependence on electricity supply for work and its reliability is very high. Manual typewriters have been replaced by electrical typewriters, computers and other types of sophisticated office machines which are mostly powered by electricity. The supply and reliability of electricity therefore plays a very significant role in achieving organizational goals. From the results obtained from question 13(a) in the questionnaire, about 70% of the respondents had access to office machines which depended greatly on electricity supply to work. Sub questions sought to find out the reliability of electricity supply to the offices. Table 26 is summary of the responses.

Table 26: Electricity Supply

Response	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Irregular	60	52.6
Quite Regular	32	28.0
Regular	14	12.3
Very Regular	8	7.1
Total	**114**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

According to Table 26, 60 respondents or 52.6% stated that electricity supplies to their offices were irregular while 14 respondents representing 12.3% indicated that electricity supply was regular. Thus apart from the

exceptional case of 7.1% who indicated that electricity supplies were very regular, over 80% of the respondents were not positive about the electricity supplies. The responses on the electricity supplies indicated that substantial official work time was lost through electricity cuts especially by those who depended on electricity for work.

Perceived Effects of Time Wasters on Official Time

Research Question 2: What do the staff of the district education offices perceive as the effects of time wasters on their official work time?

This research question was raised to find out what staff of the district education offices perceive as the effects of the identified time wasters on their official time.

According to Santis (1998), time wasting could lead to the disruption of work co-ordination and impair adequate resource use thus making employed resources (labour) to lie idle. Apart from making the organisation incur social costs in the form of services that staff fails to provide, time wasting poses danger to individuals, communities and the entire nation.

According to Todaro (as cited in Dewotor 1992), low productivity has been a phenomenon in Ghana, and industrial output has been stagnant for over two decades exhibiting shortage of locally manufactured goods. Consequently, if Todaro's claim of productivity gap holds, then deliberate time wasting of man-hours by workers may be a major underlying cause of low productivity. Good time management is an overriding factor that can differentiate people of otherwise equal talent and ability, making it more likely that some will succeed better in career terms than others. The effect of

inefficient management of time on organizations remains a crucial issue for managers of organizations to address in order to ensure the achievement of organizational goals. Cole (2002) posited that performance can be affected by workload being too high or too low. He however believed that, sustained low workload could lead to boredom, loss of situation awareness and reduced alertness.

Also as workload increases, performance may not decrease as the worker may have a strategy for handling task demands. Respondents were asked to indicate whether their workload and the time allocated to them were enough to complete the tasks. Table 27 provides data on how the respondents felt about their workload and the time allocated to complete them.

Table 27: **Opinion about Workload**

Opinion	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Too Much	59	32.0
Much	58	31.0
Not Much	41	22.0
No response	28	15.0
Total	**186**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

From Table 27, 59 respondents (or 32%) believe that their workload at office is 'Too Much' while 41 respondents (or 22%) describe their workload as 'Not Much'. However, 28 respondents representing 15% did not comment on their workload. Harris and Liba (as cited in Kutor, 1999) described workload as all the time and energy directly or indirectly employed by a worker to perform his or her duties. Workload is thus seen as embracing time

spent on actual work as well as the time spent on other related duties. Harris and Liba consider a worker's total workload to include both official load and the load resulting from other related activities such as planning, setting and assessing objectives, and engaging in co-curricular activities. According to Adom (2002), the feeling of being overloaded can cause a whole lot of psychological setback resulting in using longer time to complete a task.

According to Mantha & Sivaramakrishna (2005), workers of public institutions lose at least one hour of productivity each day due to disorganization and inefficiency (the activities of time wasters). The study reveals that time wasters affected the official work time of respondents.

Tasks Left Unfinished

One major perceived effect of the activities of time wasters was the amount of work or tasks which remained outstanding at the end of a given period. Respondents were asked to indicate the amount of work or tasks which were left unfinished at the end of a given period. Table 28 summarised the response.

Table 28: Amount of Tasks Left Unfinished

Amount	Frequency (f)	Percentage
About 5%	26	14.0
About 10%	35	19.0
About 15%	105	56.0
About 20%	20	11.0
Total	**186**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

From Table 28, 105 out of 186 respondents (representing 56%) had about 15% of work or tasks left unfinished at the end of a given time period while 26 respondents or 14% of the respondents had about 5% of tasks left unfinished at end of a period. However, only 20 respondents or 11% had about 20% of work left unfinished. From the results in Table 28, it is obvious that majority of the respondents (over 85%) had between 10-20% of work left unfinished and as such could not meet their deadlines.

According to Adom (2002), certain internal and external factors can contribute to the completion of a task after the deadline. The internal or self-generated factors may include indecision and procrastination while the external factors can be traced to interruptions from colleagues, telephone calls, drop-in visitors and other time wasters already identified in this study. In an attempt to assess the perceived effect of the time wasters on the inability to meet deadlines, respondents were asked to indicate the factors which are responsible for not meeting deadlines. Table 29 provides a summary of the responses.

Table 29: Factors for not Meeting Deadlines

Factors	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Procrastination	81	56.0
Drop-in visitors	39	27.0
Short deadlines	19	13.0
Other official duties	6	4.0
Total	**145**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

According to Table 29, 81 respondents or 56% attributed their inability to meet deadlines to procrastination while 27% (39 out of 186) attributed it to drop-in visitors. Only 6 respondents representing 4% attributed their inability to meet deadlines to other official duties which according to them were normally outside their plans but needed to be attended to due to pressure from their superiors or in emergency situations. It is a fact that some tasks take more time than anticipated. That is why it is necessary to plan activities or set objectives and prioritize them.

Overtime Work

Overtime work was identified as one of the major effects of the activities of time wasters on the official work time among staff of the district education offices. Question (25a) on the questionnaire sought to find out whether respondents had a cause to stay after official hours to complete a task. About 85% of the respondents answered in the affirmative while 25% answered in the negative. A sub question on the estimated extra hours put in work per week indicated the prevalence of overtime work in the district education offices. Table 30 provides a summary of the responses on overtime work.

Table 30: Overtime Hours per Week

Hours	Frequency (f)	Percentage
0 – 4 hours	92	59.4
5 – 9 hours	46	29.6
10 – 14 hours	18	11.0
Above 15 hours	0	0
Total	**156**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

From Table 30, 92 respondents or 59.4% spent between 0 – 4 hours extra time at work per week while 29.6% put in between 5 – 9 hours per week. The interpretation is that majority of the staff at the district education offices spent extra hours to complete their official task which may be due to procrastination and other time wasters identified in Table 29. The findings on overtime work are consistent with the findings of Rice (1973). Rice discovered from a study on 600 Executive managers in Chicago that, the Managers worked more than ten hours outside the office, indicating that they had to take work home. The discovery by Rice is a proof that that some managers do not manage their time well at the office. Whilst some institutions see nothing wrong with overtime work, and even go to the extent of giving monetary reward for overtime work, Drucker (1966) takes exception to it. To Drucker, it is another way by managers to avoid tackling their time management problems.

<center>**Time Management Control Measures**</center>

Research Question 3: How are time wasters controlled by the staff of the district education office?

The rationale behind this research question was to find out how the staff of the district education offices control time wasters. This question has been discussed in two ways. First, the time management control measures by individual staff members on the major time wasters shall be considered and second, finding out the time control measures in place at the various district education offices.

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Control on Drop-In Visitors

Drop –in visitors have been identified as one of the major time wasters in the District Education Offices. The researcher sought to find out how staff controlled their drop-in visitors. Table 31 deals with the responses.

Table 31: Control of Drop-In Visitors

Measures	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Drive them away	24	21.2
Attend to them shortly	42	37.2
Meet them at break	35	31.0
Others	12	10.6
Total	**113**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

Respondents seem to have acknowledged the negative impact of this time waster on their official work time and have therefore adopted one control measure or the other. From Table 31, 21.2% of the respondents stated that they drove their 'unexpected' visitors away while 42 respondents or 37.1% attended to the 'unexpected' visitors shortly.

Of great concern was the 31.0% of the respondents who would prefer to meet their drop-in visitors during the break time. This will put unnecessary pressure on the staff concerned to attend to a number of visitors who may be kept waiting at the limited office spaces available at the district education offices. Some visitors may even be compelled to stand or sit on chairs meant for colleague workers. It is therefore important for staff to heed to the advice

by Scott (1992, p.87) that "time is a personal resource - if it is wasted it is our waste not anybody else's and if success is achieved it is ours". The assertion by Scott (1992) is intended to make staff in institutions responsible and accountable to their official work time.

Control on Telephone Calls

There was a time when people left work on Friday evening and were able to switch off their phones until Monday morning. With advances in technology, workers are now available all the time. Telephone calls are identified as major time wasters in institutions. Table 32 provides a summary of how respondents have been able to control the encroachment of their work time by telephone calls.

Table 32: Control on Telephone Calls

Measures	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Put phones at silence	36	33.6
Pick calls at break times	18	16.8
Do not pick all calls	35	32.7
Others	18	16.8
Total	**107**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

According to Table 32, 36 respondents representing 33.6% put their phones at silence as compare to 16.8% of the respondents who would prefer to pick their calls at only break times. However, 35 respondents or 32.7% stated that they regulated their calls or did not pick all calls.

The second aspect of this section is to look at the time control measures put in place at the office by management to ensure effective use of official work time. From the study, about 64% of the respondents were of the opinion that there were adequate time control measures in place while only 36% indicated that there were inadequate time control measures. This position is in sharp contrast to the findings of Sefenu (2001), who concluded from his study on the Time Management Practices of the Senior Administrative Personnel of the University of Cape Coast that time management controls measures were inadequate.

Among the time management control measures cited by the majority of the respondents to support their claim were:

a. Availability of attendance book which are to be filled by staff to indicate time of arrival to work and the departure time. In addition to this, there is a movement book which staff were supposed to sign when going out either officially or unofficially.

b. Official working hours which start from 8:00am to 1:00pm and an hour's break from 1:01pm to 2:00pm followed by the afternoon session at 2:01pm and ends at 5:00pm.

c. Units or Divisional Heads ensure that staff under their unit/division use official time effectively.

d. Schedule of activities which regulates time for statutory and sometimes ad hoc meetings of the directorates as well as outreach programmes.

Despite these concrete examples, direct observations confirmed that non-enforcement and abuse of these time control measures have rendered them ineffective.

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Time Management Training

 Research Question 4: What are the time management training programmes available in the district education offices?

This research question was intended to find out the time management training programmes available at the district education offices in order to assess their relevance. According to Lakein (1973) description of time management training, individuals first determine their needs and wants and then rank them in terms of importance. Time management training programmes have been identified as one major way to ensure an effective usage of official work time.

The first part of the section sought to find out whether respondents had participated in any time management training programme. Table 33 provides a summary of the results.

Table 33: Participation in Time Management Training Programmes

Response	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Yes	101	54.3
No	85	45.7
Total	**186**	**100**

Source: Field work (2010)

According to Table 33, 101 respondents representing 54.3% had participated in time management training programme or seminar as compared to 85 respondents or 45.7% who had not participated in any time management training programme. Respondents who had received the training indicated that the training centered on (a) setting goals, (b) prioritizing, (c) making lists, (d)

scheduling and planning, (e) organizing desk and papers, (f) dealing with procrastination, and (g) dealing with interruptions.

These training areas are consistent with those stated by Lakein (1973) as major time management training programmes for institutions. They included setting goals to achieve the needs or wants and prioritizing the tasks necessary to accomplish them. The tasks of utmost importance are then matched to the time and resources available by planning, scheduling, and making lists.

Lakein also described other time management tips, such as organizing the work space and determining the approach to projects. In developing a measure of time management, Macan, et al. (1990) found three time management factors consistent with Lakein's description: (a) the setting of goals and priorities, (b) the mechanics of time management (e.g., making lists), and (c) a preference for organization. `

Effect of Time Management Training on Time Utilisation

According to investigations conducted by Hall & Hursch (1982), time management training can affect the amount of time spent in various activities previously identified by workers in public organizations as high priority, such as completing projects and other official tasks. For instance, in the study by Hall and Hursch, four members of a university's faculty and staff who had trouble completing projects read a time management manual and met weekly with a time management consultant. Results indicated that their self-evaluations of work effectiveness and satisfaction were positively related to their self reports of time spent on the high-priority activity.

Respondents who had participated in time management training programmes were asked to either agree or disagree to the position that time management training led to improvement in the use of official work time. Table 34 provides a summary of the responses.

Table 34: Time Management Training Leads to Efficient Time Utilisation

Response	Frequency (f)	Percentage
Strongly agreed	62	61.4
Agreed	28	27.7
Disagreed	11	10.9
Strongly disagreed	0	0.0
Total	**101**	**100.0**

Source: Field work (2010)

From Table 34, 62 out of 101 respondents representing 61.4% strongly agreed that their use of official work time improved after participating in time management training, with 11 respondents or 10% disagreed to the statement. It is also observed from Table 34 that almost 90% of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed that time management training led to efficient time utilization. The finding is consistent with the views postulated by Ajzen (1991). He postulated that a perception of control over time leads to fewer job-induced and somatic tensions, which leads to greater satisfaction with the job, and better job performance. However, time management training experts believe that it is not the time management training programme per se that leads to efficient use of official work time but the perceived control over time

that these training programmes afford an individual. In her time management training model, Macan (1994) proposed that time management training is not linked directly to efficient time utilisation, but instead operate through a perception of control over time. Macan believed that time management training programme should provide a worker with the perception that he or she has control over time in order to ensure efficient time utilisation.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter deals with the summary of the study, findings of the study, conclusions drawn from the findings and recommendations to be considered by the staff of the district education offices to enhance effective utilization of their time.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate time management practices by staff of selected district education offices in the Central Region. According to Douglass & Goodwin (1980), the essence of time management is for a worker to manage him/herself in such a way that better results are achieved in the time available. This suggests that the problem does not lie with the actual number of hours available. Rather the problem lies with how well available time is utilized (MacKenzie, 1974). Time cannot be managed, the only thing a worker can do is to manage himself or herself in relation to time available. In other words, the amount of time cannot be controlled but its use can be controlled.

MacKenzie (1972) mentioned that time wasters abound in all institutions or organizations. It was based on this statement that the research was conducted to find out the effect of time wasters or robbers and how they

are controlled by the staff of the district education offices in the Central Region.

The descriptive survey design was used to collect data and descriptive statistics was used to analyse the data. The research was guided by four (4) main research questions. The research questions sought to find out the existence of time wasters or robbers in the district education offices, the effect of time wasters on official work time, how time wasters are controlled and the time management training programmes available in the offices.

The simple random sampling method was employed to select respondents from Cape Coast Metropolitan Education Office (Cape Coast), Komenda Edina Eguafo Abrem Municipal Education Office (Elmina), Agona West Municipal Education Office (Swedru), Ajumako Enyan Esiam District Education Office (Ajumako), Asikuma Odoben Brakwa District Education Office (Asikuma) and Abura Asebu Kwamankese District Education Office (Abura Dunkwa) all in the Central Region.

The research instruments for data gathering were a 38-item structured questionnaire, a 27-item interview guide exclusively for District Directors of Education and an observational chart for direct observation. The instruments were pilot-tested at the Efutu Municipal Education Office (Winneba) and the Twifo Heman Lower Denkyira District Education Office (Twifo Praso). The data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Service Solutions (SPSS) version 16.0.

Major Findings of the Study

This study was undertaken with a view to reaching some concrete findings about the use of official time in district education offices. The findings have been summarised below:

a. The study discovered that over 40% of official time could be lost to the major time wasters such as telephone calls, drop-in visitors, procrastination, lateness to work and electricity cuts.

b. Significant amount of tasks (over 15%) were left unfinished due to the activities of the time wasters identified in the study.

c. The study revealed that staff of the district education offices worked overtime in order to meet deadlines or complete tasks assigned to them.

d. There were internal and external time control measures in the district education offices. Examples of the control measures included time movement books, attendance register etc.

e. Majority of the respondents (over 80%) had participated in one or more time management training programme(s) organized at the district education offices. The training programme(s) centred on on setting goals, prioritizing, making lists, scheduling and planning, organizing desk and papers, dealing with procrastination, and dealing with interruptions. Respondents agreed that the training programmes led to a significant improvement in the use of official time.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions could be drawn.

a. Long serving officers at the district education offices were expected to utilise official time effectively since they have acquired the necessary skills, resources, and knowledge of organisational procedures to work more effectively.

b. Sharing office space with more colleagues may invariably accounted for a high rate of interruption of work time by colleagues since interruptions and distractions arise due to lack of planning, poor concentration and lack of control over the work environment.

c. Time wasting among staff in the district education offices is real and therefore has negative effect on time management practices. It is estimated that up to 3 hours which is about 40% of scheduled or official time (8 hours per day) could be lost to the specific time waster(s) identified in this study by staff of the district education office. The major time wasters identified were telephone calls, drop-in visitors, procrastination, lateness to work and electricity cuts among others. The revelation is very serious and needed urgent attention to nib it in the bud.

d. It can also be concluded from the study that no technique of time management can give more time. The problem is not the shortage of time but rather, how well the available time is used. This is the major point that in a world of ever- increasing demand on time, its effective utilisation must be a major concern to every staff.

e. Even though some amount of time control measures existed at the offices, inadequate monitoring and supervision had rendered them ineffective. The analysis on lateness to work for example supports this conclusion.

Recommendations

In the light of the findings, conclusions of the study and to ensure the effective and efficient utilization of time among the staff of the district education offices, the following are recommended to minimise the activities of time wasters identified in the study:

a. A more convenient office accommodation should be provided for Frontliners and Unit Heads. This will help to curtail the interruption from colleagues and their visitors at the Office.

b. Staff should make individual arrangements for the best ways to communicate with the people they work closely with. For instance, staff should ask their co-workers to provide them with one- hour a day in which they will not walk into their offices, except in a dire emergency.

c. Staff should avoid a lot of personal calls and if possible allocate time for making calls and should have someone to screen their visitors.

d. Time management is a conscious process and its focus is on effectiveness. A worker has to determine tasks which are relevant to the performance of his or her work, how much time each task will take, and which task should be done first.

e. Staff should maintain and develop a list of specific things to be done each day, set your priorities and then get the most important ones done as soon in the early part of the day as they can.

f. Frontliners and other Unit Heads must ensure effective supervision of the existing time management control measures.

g. Time management training topics should be included during in-service training programmes. Also, time management tips could be given during morning devotions and other office gatherings.

Suggestion for Further Study

1. A study on the time utilisation rate among the staff of the District Education Offices.

2. An investigation could be made into the impact of time management training on the time management behaviours of staff of the District Education Offices.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A1

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STAFF OF DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICES IN

THE CENTRAL REGION ON TIME MANAGEMENT PRACTICES IN AT

DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICES.

This questionnaire is designed solely to obtain information that will

assist the researcher to undertake a study in ''Time Management Practices of

the Staff of District Education offices in the Central Region.

Please you are requested to answer the following questions as frank as

possible. You are fully assured that any information provided is purely

academic and that will be held in confidence. Thank you.

SECTION A- BACKROUND DATA

1. Name of district ……………………………………………………

2. Sex

   Male [   ]   Female [   ]

3. Age (as at last birthday)

   (i)   Under 20 years   [   ]

   (ii)   20 – 30years   [   ]

   (iii)   31 – 40years   [   ]

   (iv)   41 – 50years   [   ]

   (v)   51 – 60years   [   ]

4. Marital status

   (i)   Single (Never married)   [   ]

(ii)   Married   [   ]

(iii)   Divorced   [   ]

(iv)   Widowed   [   ]

(v)   Separated   [   ]

5. Academic /Professional Qualification

(i)   Postgraduate   [   ]

(ii)   First degree   [   ]

(iii)   Diploma   [   ]

(iv)   Teachers' Cert 'A' Post Secondary   [   ]

(v)   4-years Teachers' Cert 'A' with 'O' Level [   ]

(vi)   Any other (specify) ………………………………………

6. Status in the Ghana Education Service

(i)   Teaching   [   ]

(ii)   Non- Teaching   [   ]

7. What is your present rank in the GES?

(i)   Deputy Director   [   ]

(ii)   Assistant Director   [   ]

(iii)   Principal Superintendant   [   ]

(iv)   Senior   Superintendant   [   ]

(v)   Superintendant   [   ]

(vi)   Any other (specify)………………………………………

8. Length of service in the GES

(i)   Below 5years   [   ]

(ii)   6 – 10years   [   ]

(iii)   11 – 15years   [   ]

(iv)   16 – 20years   [   ]

(v)   Above 20years   [   ]

SECTION B- WORK ENVIRONMENT

[Please tick (√) or fill in as appropriate]

9. Do you have an office (room) where you work?

(i)   Yes   [   ]

(ii)   No   [   ]

10.   How many colleagues share the office (room) with you?

(i)   Nobody   [   ]

(ii)   One   [   ]

(iii)   Two or more   [   ]

(iv)   Use the general office [   ]

11. To what extent is your work time interrupted by colleagues?

(i)   Not at all   [   ]

(ii)   Quite often   [   ]

(iii)   Often   [   ]

(iv)   Very often   [   ]

12. How often do your work time interrupted by visitors of your colleagues?

(i)   Never   [   ]

(ii)   Occasionally   [   ]

(iii)   Frequently   [   ]

(iv)   Very frequently   [   ]

(b) If your response to question (12) is option (ii), (iii) or (iv), please indicate how you have been able to control the interruption of your time

……………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………

13. Do you depend on electricity for your work?

    (i)   Yes   [   ]

    (ii)   No   [   ]

  (b) If your response is 'Yes', how regular is your electricity supply?

     (i)   Irregular   [   ]

     (ii)   Quite regular   [   ]

    (iii)   Regular   [   ]

    (iv)   Very regular   [   ]

14. Do you have access to any office machines such as typewriters and computers which are in use in your office either by yourself or by your subordinates?

    (i)   Yes   [   ]

    (ii)   No   [   ]

  (b) If yes, how has it enhanced your work time?

    (i)   Not at all   [   ]

    (ii)   Quite much   [   ]

    (iii)   Much   [   ]

    (iv)   Very much   [   ]

15. Do you have a telephone facility; either installed or mobile telephone?

    (i)   Yes   [   ]

    (ii)   No   [   ]

(b) If yes, about how many calls do you receive while at work in a day (this includes internal-intercom calls, outside-local and international calls)?

(i)   0 – 4   [   ]

(ii)   5- 9   [   ]

(iii)   10 – 14   [   ]

(iv)   15 and above   [   ]

(c) Estimate the time you spend on each call……………………………

(d) Do you agree that some of the telephone calls you receive encroach on your   planned use of time?

(i)   Strongly disagree   [   ]

(ii)   Disagree   [   ]

(iii)   Agree   [   ]

(iv)   Strongly agree   [   ]

(e) Indicated measure(s) to control the encroachment……………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………

SECTION C- INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

18. How many people do you receive in your office in a normal day without prior appointments (drop-in visitors)?

(i)   0 – 3   [   ]

(ii)   4 – 7   [   ]

(iii)   8 – 11   [   ]

(iv)   More than 12   [   ]

19. Estimate the amount of work time you spend on each drop-in visitor.

 (i) 0 – 4   minutes   [   ]

 (ii) 5 – 9 minutes   [   ]

 (iii) 10 – 15 minutes   [   ]

 (iv) More than 16 minutes   [   ]

20. How do you control your drop-in visitors?

……………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………

21. Do you have occasions to leave a task in order to start a different one because of competing demands?

 (i) Not at all   [   ]

 (ii) Sometimes   [   ]

 (iii) Frequently   [   ]

 (i v) Very frequently   [   ]

22. Do you sometimes feel pressurized to accept a task, which is outside your plan?

 (i) Yes   [   ]

 (ii) No   [   ]

23. Would you say anxiety from home, health problems, financial matters and others affects your effective use of work time?

 (i) Not at all   [   ]

 (ii) Sometimes   [   ]

 (iii) Frequently   [   ]

 (i v) Very frequently   [   ]

24. Have you had to complete any official task after the deadline?

(i) Yes   [   ]

(ii) No   [   ]

(b) If 'Yes', which of the following factors best accounts for this type of situation?

(i) Other official duties   [   ]

(ii) Drop-in visitors   [   ]

(iii) Very short deadlines   [   ]

(i v) Procrastination   [   ]

25. Have you had to stay after official hours to complete a task?

(i) Yes   [   ]

(ii) No   [   ]

(b) If 'Yes', estimate the extra hours you put in per week.

(i) 0 - 4 hours   [   ]

(ii) 5 – 9 hours   [   ]

(iii) 10 -14 hours   [   ]

(i v) Beyond 14hours   [   ]

26. How do you feel about tasks you delegate after they have been accomplished?

(i) Not satisfied   [   ]

(ii) Satisfied   [   ]

(iii) Very satisfied   [   ]

(iv) Otherwise (specify)……………………………………………………..

27. Do you think you enhance your own use of time through delegation of tasks?

(i) Not at all   [   ]

(ii) Quite much   [   ]

(iii) Much   [   ]

(i v) Other (specify) …………………………………………………………………

SECTION D- WORK SCHEDULE

28. Do you consider your working hours as enough to accomplish your task

for the year?

(i) Yes   [   ]

(ii) No   [   ]

(b). If 'No', indicate how you accomplished all your tasks on schedule

……………………………………………………………………………..

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

(c) Estimate the percentage of work that was left unfinished at the end of the

given period

(i) About 5%   [   ]

(ii) About 10%   [   ]

(iii) About 15%   [   ]

(i v) Above 15%   [   ]

29. How often do you attend meetings with your colleagues/subordinates?

(i) Never   [   ]

(ii) Occasionally   [   ]

(iii) Frequently   [   ]

(iv) Very frequently   [   ]

30. On the average how long do your meetings last?

(i) Less than 1hour   [   ]

(ii) 1 – 2hours   [   ]

(iii) 2 – 3hours   [   ]

(iv) Over 3hours   [   ]

31. How would you assess the outcome of such meetings as against the time spent?

    (i) Not satisfactory   [   ]

    (ii) Quite satisfactory   [   ]

    (iii) Satisfactory   [   ]

    (iv) Very satisfactory   [   ]

32. Would you say the District Education Office has any time control measures in place?

    (i) Yes   [   ]

    (ii) No   [   ]

 (b) If 'Yes', indicate them…………………………………………………

     ………………………………………………………………………..

      …………………………………………………………………………

     ………………………………………………………………………….

33. What time control measures would you recommend for the District Education Office?

    ………………………………………………………………………..

………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………

SECTION E

TIME MANAGEMENT TRAINING

34. Have participated in any time management training programme before?

Yes [   ]   No   [   ]

b.) If your response to question (34a) is yes, indicate the focus of the training. TICK AS MANY AS APPLICABLE

Setting goals   [   ]

Prioritizing   [   ]

Making lists   [   ]

Scheduling and planning   [   ]

Organizing desk and papers [   ]

Dealing with procrastination [   ]

Dealing with interruptions   [   ]

35. Would you say that your use of time has improved after participating in the training programme?

Strongly agreed   [   ]

Agreed   [   ]

Disagreed   [   ]

Strongly Disagreed   [   ]

Thank you for spending time to answer the questions.

APPENDIX AII

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR DISTRICT DIRECTORS OF EDUCATION IN

THE CENTRAL REGION

This questionnaire is designed solely to obtain information that will assist the researcher to undertake a study in "Time Management Practices of the Staff of District Education offices in the Central Region.

Please you are requested to answer the following questions as frank as possible. You are fully assured that any information provided is purely academic and that will be held in confidence. Thank you.

SECTION A- BACKROUND DATA

Name of district

………………………………………………………

1. Sex

Male [   ]   Female [   ]

2. Age (as at last birthday)

(i). 31 – 40years   [   ]

(ii)   41 – 50years   [   ]

(iii)   51 – 60years   [   ]

3. Marital status

(i). Single (Never married)   [   ]

(ii). Married   [   ]

(iii). Divorced   [   ]

(vi)   Widowed   [   ]

(vii)   Separated   [   ]

4. Academic /Professional Qualification

       (i). Postgraduate   [   ]

       (ii). First degree   [   ]

       (iii). Diploma   [   ]

SECTION B

WORK ENVIRONMENT

5. To what extent is your work time interrupted by colleagues?

(v)   Not at all   [   ]

(vi)   Quite often   [   ]

(vii)   Often   [   ]

(viii)   Very often   [   ]

6. How often do your work time interrupted by visitors of your

     colleagues?

(v)   Never   [   ]

(vi)   Occasionally   [   ]

(vii)   Frequently   [   ]

(viii)   Very frequently   [   ]

(b) If your response to question (12) is option (ii), (iii) or (iv), please

indicate how you have been able to control the interruption of your

time…………………………………………………….………..

………………………………………………………………………

7. Do you depend on electricity for your work?

(v)   Yes   [   ]

(vi)   No   [   ]

(b) If your response is 'Yes', how regular is your electricity supply?

(i)   Irregular   [   ]
(ii)   Quite regular   [   ]
(vii)   Regular   [   ]
(viii) Very regular   [   ]

8. Do you have access to any office machines such as typewriters and computers which are in use in your office either by yourself or by your subordinates?

(v)   Yes   [   ]
(vi)   No   [   ]

(b) If yes, how has it enhanced your work time?

(i)   Not at all   [   ]
(ii)   Quite much   [   ]
(vii)   Much   [   ]
(viii) Very much   [   ]

9. Do you have a telephone facility; either installed or mobile telephone?

(v)   Yes   [   ]
(vi)   No   [   ]

(b) If yes, about how many calls do you receive while at work in a day (this includes internal-intercom calls, outside-local and international calls)?

(i)   0 – 4   [   ]
(ii)   5- 9   [   ]
(vii)   10 – 14   [   ]
(viii) 15 and above   [   ]

(c) Estimate the time you spend on each call…………………………….

(d) Do you agree that some of the telephone calls you receive encroach on your   planned use of time?

    (i)   Strongly disagree   [   ]

    (ii)   Disagree   [   ]

    (v)   Agree   [   ]

    (vi)   Strongly agree   [   ]

(e) Indicated measure(s) to control the encroachment……………

………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………

SECTION C- INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

10. How many people do you receive in your office in a normal day without prior appointments (drop-in visitors)?

    (i)   0 – 3   [   ]

    (ii)   4 – 7   [   ]

    (v)   8 – 11   [   ]

    (vi)   More than 12   [   ]

11.   Estimate the amount of work time you spend on each drop-in visitor.

    (i) 0 – 4   minutes   [   ]

    (ii) 5 – 9 minutes   [   ]

    (iii) 10 – 15 minutes   [   ]

    (iv) More than 16 minutes   [   ]

12.   How do you control your drop-in visitors?

………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………

13. Do you have occasions to leave a task in order to start a different one because of competing demands?

    (i) Not at all   [   ]

    (ii) Sometimes   [   ]

    (iii) Frequently   [   ]

    (i v) Very frequently   [   ]

14. Do you sometimes feel pressurized to accept a task, which is outside your plan?

    (i) Yes   [   ]

    (ii) No   [   ]

15. Would you say anxiety from home, health problems, financial matters and others affects your effective use of work time?

    (i) Not at all   [   ]

    (ii) Sometimes   [   ]

    (iii) Frequently   [   ]

    (i v) Very frequently   [   ]

16. Have you had to complete any official task after the deadline?

    (i) Yes   [   ]

    (ii) No   [   ]

  (b) If 'Yes', which of the following factors best accounts for this type of situation?

    (i) Other official duties   [   ]

    (ii) Drop-in visitors   [   ]

    (iii) Very short deadlines   [   ]

(i v) Procrastination   [   ]

17. Have you had to stay after official hours to complete a task?

    (i) Yes   [   ]

    (ii) No   [   ]

 (b) If 'Yes', estimate the extra hours you put in per week.

    (i) 0 - 4 hours   [   ]

    (ii) 5 – 9 hours   [   ]

    (iii) 10 -14 hours   [   ]

    (i v) Beyond 14hours   [   ]

18. How do you feel about tasks you delegate after they have been accomplished?

    (i) Not satisfied   [   ]

    (ii) Satisfied   [   ]

    (iii) Very satisfied   [   ]

(iv) Otherwise (specify)……………………………………………………..

19. Do you think you enhance your own use of time through delegation of tasks?

    (i) Not at all   [   ]

    (ii) Quite much   [   ]

    (iii) Much   [   ]

(i v) Other (specify) …………………………………………………………

SECTION D- WORK SCHEDULE AND WORKLOAD

20. Do you consider your working hours as enough to accomplish your task for the year?

    (i) Yes   [   ]

    (ii) No   [   ]

 (b). If 'No', indicate how you accomplished all your tasks on schedule

    ……………………………………………………………………………

    …………………………………………………………………………….

(c) Estimate the percentage of work that was left unfinished at the end of the given period

    (i) About 5%   [   ]

    (ii) About 10%   [   ]

    (iii) About 15%   [   ]

    (i v) Above 15%   [   ]

21. How often do you attend meetings with your colleagues/subordinates?

    (i) Never   [   ]

    (ii) Occasionally   [   ]

    (iii) Frequently   [   ]

    (iv) Very frequently   [   ]

22. On the average how long do your meetings last?

    (i) Less than 1hour   [   ]

    (ii) 1 – 2hours   [   ]

(iii) 2 – 3hours　　　　　　　　　　[　　]

　(iv) Over 3hours　　　　　　　　　[　　]

23. How would you assess the outcome of such meetings as against the time spent?

　　(i) Not satisfactory　　　　　　　[　　]

　　(ii) Quite satisfactory　　　　　　[　　]

　　(iii) Satisfactory　　　　　　　　[　　]

　　(iv) Very satisfactory　　　　　　[　　]

24. Would you say the District Education Office has any time control measures in place?

　　(i) Yes　　　　　　　　　　　[　　]

　　(ii) No　　　　　　　　　　　[　　]

　(b) If 'Yes', indicate them………………………………………………

　　………………………………………………………………………..

　　　………………………………………………………………………

　　……………………………………………………………………….

25. What time control measures would you recommend for the District Education Office?

　………………………………………………………………………..

………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………

SECTION E

TIME MANAGEMENT TRAINING

26. Have participated in any time management training programme before?

Yes [   ]   No   [   ]

b.) If your response to question (26a) is yes, indicate the focus of the training. TICK AS MANY AS APPLICABLE

Setting goals   [   ]

Prioritizing   [   ]

Making lists   [   ]

Scheduling and planning   [   ]

Organizing desk and papers [   ]

Dealing with procrastination [   ]

Dealing with interruptions   [   ]

27. Would you say that your use of time has improved after participating in the training programme?

Strongly agreed   [   ]

Agreed   [   ]

Disagreed   [   ]

Strongly Disagreed   [   ]

Thank you for spending time to answer the questions

Samuel Oduro

APPENDIX AIII

OBSERVATION CHART ON ACTUAL TIME STAFF REPORT FOR WORK

(OFFICIAL REPORTING TIME – 08.00 GMT)

Staff Code	07:45 – 08.00 GMT					08.01 – 08:15 GMT					08.16 – 08.30 GMT					08.31 – 08.45 GMT					08.46 – 09.00 GMT				
	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5

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APPENDIX B

DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICE ORGANIZATIONAL CHART

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                                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                                    │  DISTRICT DIRECTOR  │
                                    └─────────────────────┘
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ASSISTANT DIRECTOR (1)
ADMINISTRATION, BUDGET & FINANCIAL CONTROL

ASSISTANT DIRECTOR (1)
PLANNING & MONITORING, DATA COLLECTION, RESEARCH & RECORDS

ASSISTANT DIRECTOR (1)
HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT & DEVELOPMENT

ASSISTANT DIRECTOR (1)
SUPERVISION & MANAGEMENT OF TEACHING & LEARNING, GUIDANCE& COUNSELING & INSPECTION

(1) DISTRICT ACCOUNTANT

(5)
1. BAFE (2)
2. LOGISTICS OFFICER (1)
3. PRO (1)

(3)
1. PLANNING (2)
2. DATA COLLECTION
3. RESEARCH & RECORDS

(1) DISTRICT INTERNAL AUDITOR

1. TRAINING & STAFF DEVELOPMENT
2. WELFARE
3. BASIC EDUCATION (1)
4. SECOND CYCLE (1)
5. PERSONNEL (2)
6. I. P. P. D.
7. SHEP (1)
8. PERIPATETIC
9. GIRL CHILD OFFICER
10. WITED

1. CIRCUIT SUPERVISORS (6)
2. GUIDANCE & COUNSELLING (1)
3. AGRIC & ENVIRONMENT
4. PHYSICAL EDUCATION
5. LANGUAGE & CULTURE
6. TECHNICAL / VOCATIONAL (1)

(1) SENIOR ACCOUNTANT

(3) SENIOR INTERNAL AUDITOR

(3) ACCOUNTANT

(1)
1. SENIOR SUPPLY
2. OFFICER
3. STOREKEEPER / DEPOT KEEPER

PRINCIPAL ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICER

(2) DRIVERS

(1)
1. ADMINISTRATION
2. SENIOR CLERK
3. CLERK GRADE1

(4) DAY & NIGHT WATCHMEN

SECRETARIAL (5)
1. STENOGRAPHER
2. SENIOR TYPIST
3. TYPIST GRADE 1
4. RECEPTIONIST
5. RADIO OPERATOR

LABOURERS (4)
1. CLEANER
2. CONSERVANCY LABOUER (1)
3. GENERAL LABOUERE

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APPENDIX C

…………………………..
…………………………..
…………………………..
…………………………..

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

The bearer of this letter, Samuel Oduro is a graduate student of the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration of the University o f Cape Coast. He requires some information from your outfit for the purpose of writing a Thesis as a requirement of M. Phil degree programme.

We should be grateful if you would kindly allow him to collect the information from your outfit.
Kindly give the necessary assistance that he requires to collect the information.

While anticipating your co-operation, we thank you for any help that you may be able to give.

SGD.

Y. M. Anhwere

Assistant Registrar

For: Director