

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

TIME MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AMONG HEADS
OF SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE
ASHANTI REGION OF GHANA

BY

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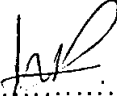
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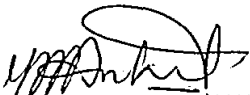
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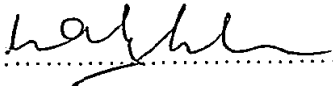
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Supervisors' Declaration

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

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ABSTRACT

Effective management of official time has been identified as an important resource to increase productivity in schools. One of the problems facing heads in administering schools is how to manage time to improve quality teaching and learning. The purpose of the study was to examine whether work behaviours, years of experience and amount of training in time Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region of Ghana.

Stratified random sampling was used in selecting the districts so that the study could cover rural and urban schools in the region. Fifty schools and 150 heads and assistants were purposively selected. Data were gathered through the use of questionnaire and observation checklist. Data were analysed using SPSS software and summarized into percentages and frequency tables. Correlation and multiple regression analyses were also conducted and the results summarized into tables.

The major findings of the study were that interruptions were common occurrence and that they compelled heads to work overtime to complete schedules. Time management practices were generally less effectively managed. Work behaviours, number of years of experience and amount of training in time management were found to have a positive relationship with time management practices.

It was recommended that Ghana Education Service should organise regular short courses in time management practices for heads to enable them acquire the needed skills in order to use time more effectively. Specific time that would be convenient to heads should be set aside to receive visitors.

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DEDICATION

To my mother, Miss Cecilia Yeboah who nurtured in me the unwavering interest in education and sacrificed everything she has to see me through my education.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Management is an important aspect of work in any educational institution. The quality of work in a school and how well students perform is largely affected by what is actually done to manage the educational institution. Atakpa and Ankomah (1998) have pointed out that factors such as a capable teaching force, professional teacher support, good supervision by school heads and especially the effective utilization of time by school administrators are necessary for effective school management. Of all the resources available to school heads in managing schools effectively, time seems to be the worst resource managed.

Time may be described as an epoch or an indefinite extent during which an event occurs or continues in uninterrupted succession (Nickel, Rice & Tucker, 1975). The modern assumption about the nature of time dates from the seventeenth century and the Newtonian vision of the Universe as a giant clockwork mechanism with time marching forward in an irreversible trajectory sometimes called the arrow of time (Coveney, Highfield & Dennis 1990; Davies, 1983; Toulmini, 1982).

The clock on the wall or the watch on the wrist is the key machine that has and continues to dominate human culture. In a strange sort of way, the clock is like a deity directing the affairs of life. Simple activities such as getting up, eating, working, relaxing and even sleeping are all directed by the clock. Time is certainly one of life's most precious commodities available to human beings in equal quantity. It is a unique resource that everyone in this world has an equal amount always.

For school heads to work more effectively to achieve the goals of the school there is the urgent need for them to manage their time effectively. Time is a dimension of school activity because important decisions are time-bound (Koomson, Acheampong & Fobih, 1999). The commonwealth Secretariat (1993) highlighted the need for school administrators to reflect on how they use time to ensure its optimal use.

Time has traditionally been incorporated into educational research as a variable to be controlled, managed or manipulated for the purpose of advancing educational objectives, improving school management, enhancing evaluation of results and guiding heads in the day-to-day administration of the school. As stated by Huebner (1975), efforts by administrators to establish clear and unambiguous goals are as a result of this dominant metaphor of time.

Although time is an important resource shared by all, what people choose to do within time and how they actually spend their time differ widely across individuals. It is believed that no one actually "manages time itself". However, the use of time can be managed through clear identification of personal and professional goals and scheduling time to reflect them (Alvy, 1983). This suggests that if the school heads are to help achieve the objectives of the school then they should effectively manage time by ensuring that they and their staff are able to make the best use of the time available to them. Indeed, as Nickel and colleagues (1975) have stated, "time lost cannot be regained" (p. 224). School heads must therefore manage time efficiently for the attainment of any given level of output.

The Ghana Education Service draws programmes, which are based on the policies of the Ministry of Education to cover all school activities. Time is

allocated to each activity to be carried out in the school. Each educational level has a specific period or duration for the execution of its programmes and activities.

The time element in school management has received much attention in the development of education in Ghana. The Education Reform Programme implemented in 1987 restructured pre-university education reducing the number of years from 17 years to 12 years. Out of the 12 years, primary school is to take six years, with Junior Secondary School and Senior Secondary School covering three years each.

The Conference of Heads of Assisted Secondary Schools (CHASS) felt that the three years assigned as the duration of the Senior Secondary School programme, was inadequate and hence called for an extension of the duration of the course (Seini, 1993). Similarly, the Education Reform Committee (1994) recommended specifically that the duration of the Senior Secondary School should be increased from three to four years. These requests were however not granted by the government with the duration remaining at three years.

In the second decade of implementing the reforms, the duration for Senior Secondary School was temporarily reduced to reverse the January – December academic calendar to that of September-August (Dery, 2001). This was aimed at establishing a common academic year for all levels of education in the country. However, the felt negative impact of such reduction of duration on the performance of students drew adverse reactions from many educational stakeholders. For example, some university authorities openly condemned the shortening of the course (De Graft-Johnson & Ezah, 2000). These reactions underscored the need to guard against the tendency to under estimate the importance of time as a basic input in school achievement. It has, however, been

argued that the official duration of school time in itself does not bring about desirable change. It is what heads do with their time that matters (Tedesco, 1997).

Ghanaians are generally noted to be poor time managers. Being late to work or in attending a programme seems to have become part of the Ghanaian culture. Lateness is therefore referred to as "Ghanaian time". It is not surprising to see school heads reporting late to work and this invariably affects administrative work and consequently reduces productivity.

Reports from schools, the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service, and even from newspapers indicate that school heads misuse official working hours. In an article written by Mr. George Ernest Asare in the "Daily Graphic" of Tuesday, June 21, 2005, titled "Time is Crucial", Mr George Ayisi Boateng, the manager of Asafo GOIL Filling Station in Kumasi is reported to have said that almost everyone in the country takes time for granted, forgetting that time is the most important factor of production and, therefore, a key to our sustainable development. He observed that heads of educational institutions, heads of departments, among others, are the most guilty ones when it comes to time management, as they waste precious time whenever they attend programmes or go to their work places.

Heads have numerous roles to play. They are responsible for co-ordinating all school programmes, providing and maintaining high teacher morale, discipline, high student achievement, a positive learning environment, and effective school-community relations. In addition, today's heads face constant barrage of conflicts and confrontations. There are increasing pressures from parents, teachers, students and the community. They come to the school, expecting the heads to be available, to have regular contact with them, to listen and respond to questions and concerns.

and to be accountable for what goes on in the school. The head who needs to complete the scheduled activities for the day will not be able to do so due to these interruptions. Sometimes in the course of writing a report or attending to visitors, unexpected calls will come and the head has no other option than to suspend whatever he was performing and receive the calls. Huffstutter and Smith (1989) in their handbook for school leaders concluded that school administrators succumb to many time wasters, which prevent them from focusing their attention on important tasks.

The heads are also held more accountable than ever before. With the increase in accountability and public concern about declining educational achievement levels, today's school heads are literally "under the gun" to produce good educational results. If the school heads are to provide the educational climate that will result in students achievement, then specific work behaviours or practices of heads should be examined (Campbell & Williamson, 1991). The kind of response the heads bring to these complex demands is first and foremost based on how they manage the time at their disposal. This research is based on the work behaviours and time management practices of heads.

Statement of the Problem

Time is a scarce resource and when it passes it is irreplaceable. Unfortunately, this scarce resource does not seem to be managed effectively by heads of Senior Secondary Schools. Precious time is dissipated through lateness to work, absenteeism, leaving work before the actual time for closing, unnecessary interruptions and other time wasters during official hours.

A cursory observation seems to reveal that there are a lot of interruptions that affect heads management of time in schools in the Ashanti Region. Yet these heads ought to complete the daily task scheduled within the limited time available. The questions that naturally arise are how do heads of Senior Secondary Schools in Ashanti Region manage their time? Are heads able to complete scheduled tasks for the day? There is the urgent need to provide answers to these and other questions. It is in the light of these questions that the study has been designed to investigate time management practices of heads of Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to find out how heads of Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region use official time. Specifically, the study sought to find out the work behaviours of heads and their relationship with the management of time. It was further designed to determine whether years of experience as head and training in time management have any relationship with management of time. The study was also to find out the common work behaviours and time management practices that are used by heads.

Finally, the study sought to explore the opinions of participants on ways and means of improving the use of official time in Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region.

Research Questions

The study sought to find out answers to the following questions:

- 1) What work behaviours do heads of Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region commonly exhibit?

- 2) What time management practices do heads of Senior Secondary Schools in Ashanti Region mostly use?
- 3) What is the relationship between the work behaviours of heads and their use of time management practices?
- 4) Is there any relationship between heads use of time management practices and their years of experience as heads?
- 5) What relationship exists between heads use of time management practices and their training in time management?

Significance of the Study

The management of time is critical for the effective administration of Senior Secondary Schools. This study attempted to examine those practices that will enable heads manage their time in such a way as to keep them focused on more important tasks.

The study is significant in a number of ways. It will help educational administrators and researchers to get first hand information of the problems that affect the use of official time in Senior Secondary Schools so that appropriate measures will be put in place to solve those problems. When such problems are identified and resolved, they will go a long way to improve the management of time in school administration.

The study will also rekindle general awareness that time is an invaluable resource that needs to be managed effectively. Furthermore, it is expected that the findings of this study would prompt heads to supervise their staff in the effective and efficient use of time.

Suggestions and recommendations that will be made in the study will aid heads to plan and implement their programmes in ways that will enable them use time available to them more effectively. The study will also contribute to knowledge by providing useful information relating to the management of schools. Finally, it will serve as reference material for people who may undertake similar studies in future.

Delimitations

The problem of managing the use of official time by heads and assistants is very common in all educational institutions from the basic to the tertiary level. The study was, however, limited to the heads and assistants of Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region.

The study was to find out the work behaviours of heads and how they impact on the use of official time to achieve the goals of the schools. The study considered only the official time between the hours of 7.30am and 3.00pm from Monday to Friday. Periods before 7.30am and after 3.00pm, public holidays and closure of school due to strike actions, demonstrations, leave and mid-term breaks were excluded. Findings were delimited to the heads of Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region.

Limitations

The study used only heads and assistants of Senior Secondary Schools. The heads and assistants form a small number of administrators in Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti region. This shows that the study was limited to a small sample.

Though the heads were assured of confidentiality and anonymity some were reluctant to provide responses to the questions for fear that their practices may be published. This might have adversely influenced the answers provided.

Definition of Terms

For pertinent concepts that are used in a study of this nature to be meaningful to readers, it is very important that some of these terms are defined and explained. Some of such terms are:

Work Behaviours – Heads method of operating or mode of managing time.

Hopper – Someone who moves from one task to another.

Perfectionist - A person who tries to do everything right.

Allergic to Detail – This refers to someone who prefers to formulate plans than to carry them out.

Fence Sitter – A person who seldom takes risks with innovations.

Cliff Hanger – An individual who waits until the last minute to complete task.

Official Time - Time allocated to administrative work, which is related to the goals of education.

Heads of schools – Headmasters and Mistresses who administer Senior Secondary Schools.

Organization of the Study

The study is organized into five chapters. The first chapter deals with the importance of time and reasons for conducting the study in Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region. The statement of problem, purpose of the study and significance of the study are dealt with. Research questions have been

formulated in this chapter to guide and direct the study. Limitations, delimitations and definition of terms have also been stated.

Chapter two takes a critical look at the current literature on theoretical and empirical issues related to the study. Chapter three comprises the description of methodology. It describes the research design, the population, sample and sampling techniques, pilot-test of instrument, data collection procedure, and data analysis plan.

Chapter four presents data analysis and discussion of research findings. Chapter five contains the summary of findings, conclusions drawn from the study, recommendations for practice and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter presents a review of literature relating to the theoretical perspectives on the management of official time. It also reviews earlier studies on time management practices particularly of heads of schools. Areas covered in the review include the following:

- a) Viewing time
- b) Conceptual framework on management of time
- c) Time management
- d) Theory of time management practices
- e) Work behaviours
- f) An historical perspective of time management
- g) Time management practices
- h) Empirical review

Viewing Time

Many nobles throughout the ages have discussed the concept of time in a variety of ways. Plato stated that time is the principle of order in nature's world. Aristotle perceived time as the simplest measurement of motion. Shipman, Martin, Mckay and Anastasi (1987) and also Sherover (1975) viewed time in this way. Time is considered as the commodity that is unbiased, and available to all in equal amounts. It does not cost anyone anything monetarily, and is completely at the disposal of everyone. The main difference among individuals is the way the time

that is available is used by each individual (Sherover, 1975, p. 21). The way heads use their time may depend on such variables as their work behaviours, their school type (public) or private, their school level (second or first cycle), their years of experiences, and their hours of training in the area of time management.

“The mistake most people make”, according to Luehman (1991), “is to believe that if I get organized, I can do everything. They think that if they operate at a hectic pace they can accomplish more” (p. 20). But Luehman stated, “that approach to time is a loser. By rushing, we diminish the quality of our work. Instead of feeling accomplishment, we become confused, disappointed, frustrated and worst of all apathetic” (p. 20).

The World Book Encyclopaedia (1994) acknowledged that time is one of the World’s deepest mysteries. Although no one can say exactly what it is, the ability to measure time makes our way of life possible. Most human activities involve groups of people acting together in the same place and at the same time. People could not do this if they did not all measure time in the same way. Time and change are related because the passing of time depends on changes taking place.

According to the Cambridge Advanced Dictionary of English (2003), time is part of existence which is measured in seconds, minutes, hours, days, weeks, months and so on or this process considered as a whole. Each day, people throughout the world have an equal amount of one resource that is time. How time is used affects each person’s goal attainment and the development or use of other resources. If a person wants to learn something, to travel somewhere, or to build or create something, he or she must use time with other resources to reach the goal.

Philosophers have tried to explain the concept of time from different perspectives. For instance, Watkins (1986) asserted that time is perceived in two basic fashions. He stated that time can either appear to show in an ongoing stream of events and moments or can be seen as a series of cycles correlating to the sequence of nature reflecting the beginning, and ending of days, seasons, and years.

In a linear perspective, time is seen as being in a motion as in dynamics. It is also connected to irreversibility as in thermodynamics. In the cyclical perspective, time is seen as moving in cycles of days, seasons, or years.

In early history, human activities were solely regulated by the cycles of time such as day and night, the seasonal flights of migratory birds, rise and fall of tides, new moon and full moon and so on. Locke (1975) argued that the sense of measure of duration in terms of regular and equal distance intervals such as minutes, hours, days and years enables the conception of past and future. Locke (1975) defined time as a duration whereby several things exist and this consideration of duration is set out by certain measures or epochs (p. 185). Thus, for Locke, time is a duration set out by measures. This image of time sees time in a linear form or moving in a continual flow and not repeating itself. From this perspective, time is considered to exist irrespective of occurrence of events. If events such as the rise and fall of the sun, and others do not exist, time itself will exist.

According to Plato cited in Hanson (2002), time was the image of eternity moving through the world. The physical images of eternal truths underwent decay in time. Time was a vehicle for defining eternity and thereby existed only as debased instantiation of the forms of eternity. St. Augustine, however, construed

time differently from Plato. According to St. Augustine the source of all time was God, who existed before time began. Zerubavel quoted in Cambone (1994) said, "Time functions as one of the major dimensions of social organization along which involvement, commitment, and accessibility are defined and regulated in modern society" (p. 5).

Modern assumption about the nature of time dates from the 17th century and the Newtonian vision of the universe as a giant clockwork mechanism with time marching forward in an irreversible trajectory sometimes called the arrow of time (Coveney, Highfield and Dennis 1990; Davies 1983 and Toulmin, 1982). The popular adage 'time flies' becomes a metaphor for modern life, where the ticking clock and the flying arrow dominate human consciousness and control life experiences.

The invention of the clock, therefore, brought a new dimension in the measurement of time without relating it to an event. For example, time can now be measured in hours, minutes, seconds, and even fractions of a second. This resulted in a co-modification of time. Time is now seen as a material, a resource for production without which production cannot take place. Watkins (1986) argued that time cannot be bought but money value could be placed on it. It is, however, a non-renewable resource. Every hour that passes is gone forever.

People generally perceived time as a material resource, in that it is spent, saved, wasted, measured and scheduled. A person's subjective sense of time forms part of a perception of reality influences the arranging of activities in time and affects goal setting and goal attainment. Time could be classified as the standard against which progress is measured. According to Hindle (1998) time is costly, it is a sobering exercise to calculate exactly how much one's time costs and then

realize how much of it is not being spent effectively. Time may well be humanity's most precious natural resource.

Conceptual Framework on Management of Official Time

Management of official time can be conceptualised as a process involving a set of interrelated functions, which can be divided into the following four categories: Planning, Organizing, Directing and Controlling (Hanson, 2002).

An analysis of the heads behaviour in terms of these concepts can enhance the identification of the management tasks of heads and hence the compilation of related time frames. Figure 1 is a diagram representing the process of managing official time.

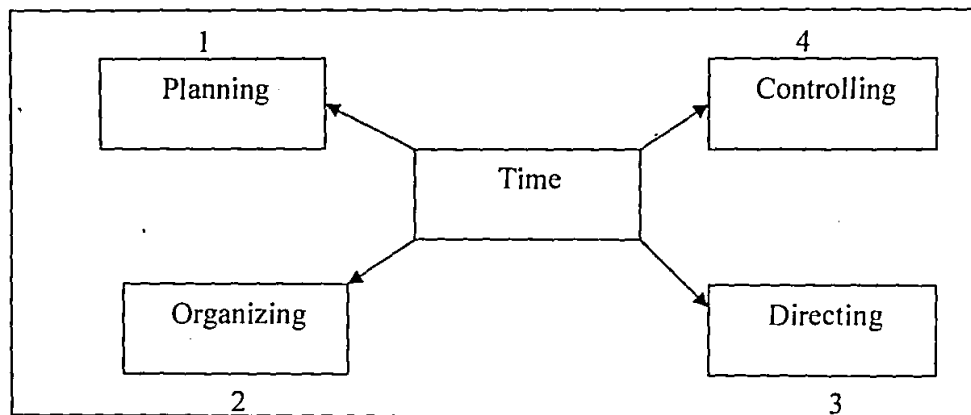


Figure 1. Managing Official Time: A Process Model

Source: Hanson (2002)

Planning according to Hanson (2002), refers to forecasting future circumstances, deciding objectives, making long and short-term plans, determining policies to be followed and the standards to be set. Musaaazi (1984) also defined planning as a rational process of preparing a set of decisions for future actions directed at achieving goals and objectives by optimal means. According to this

definition, planning is future and goal-oriented. It usually starts with a set of interrelated preliminary decisions called a plan. As efforts are made to carry out these decisions there will always be feedback of new information revealing errors, unexpected events in original decisions in order to achieve better results. Planning the use of official time involves deciding in advance on issues such as what to do, who to do it and how to do it within a stipulated period of time (Hanson, 2002). To be able to do this, there is the need for heads to understand and analyze problems and choose among alternative solutions. The work of the school head in relation to planning means he or she designs the task to be accomplished and methods to be used. In school situations, the head sets objectives and policies and procedures for implementation, which help in realization of the goals.

Organizing, on the other hand, according to Buachie-Mensah (2003) is concerned with arranging and allocating work, authority, and resources among an organization's members so that they can achieve goals effectively. Organizing time for administrative task requires a time framework. A calendar of work has to be prepared for the various activities in the school. Every minute of the official time should be used properly with other resources to achieve stated administrative objectives (Hanson, 2002).

Directing, according to Mussazi (1984), is the continuous task of making decisions and embodying terms of specific instructions and serving as the leader of the organization. To Hanson (2002) directing refers to exercising influence on other people in the school situation for them to use resources well. The influence may take the form of giving out clear and enforceable instructions for carrying out tasks. People may also be influenced by the examples of school heads. For

instance, a head's punctuality in school can make students and teachers to desist from lateness to class.

Controlling is an activity which involves checking to see that plans have been carried out and deviations are attended to (Buachie-Mensah, 2003). In controlling the use of time, setting standards for performance is important. In addition, actual performance has to be measured to find out if it meets standards so that undesirable deviation would be corrected (Hanson, 2002). With respect to time, deadlines should be set for activities and measures taken to assist people to work within the deadlines.

In sum, heads have different ways of viewing time. They normally have control on how to use it. Some people view the management process as a set of related activities, which involves planning, organizing, directing and controlling. Management of official time is a process that requires enough time.

Time Management

Matteson and Ivancevish quoted in Malik (2004) stated that, "Time is probably the only resource everyone has in equal quantities, yet some people accomplish more than others with their share of time" (p. 261). They argued that factors that contribute to effectiveness in time use are found in the perceptions people have about time, their cultural heritage, their constraints and their time management habits. They defined time management to mean getting control over what you do, when you do it and why you do it. Successful time management makes the attainment of individual and group goals possible without wasting resources or causing unnecessary waste of time. Clock time serves, to some degree, as a standard against which progress is measured.

Glickman, Gordon and Ross (1995) explained time management as, “changing the time allocated for particular job or activity through a careful study of time to achieve optimum output” (p. 211). Commenting on time management, Bliss (1976) stated that effective time management involves awareness that today is all a person has to work with. Time is irreversible, yet people seldom grasp this self-evident truth and this lack of awareness is why many do not achieve their dreams (p. 124). To him, expressions such as “yesterday is a concealed cheque, tomorrow is a promissory note, and today is ready cash, so use it” recognize the urgency of using time when it is available now.

Zikmund, William, Middlemist and Dennis (1995) viewed time management as the effective and efficient integration and co-ordination of time to achieve desired objective. Effectiveness to them is the “degree to which the school’s goals are being attained”. From the above definitions, it can be deduced that time management is a skill that enables heads to use official time effectively and efficiently to achieve a purpose.

With proper time management many heads will realize that they have more time than they need and can achieve more with what may be considered as limited time. This will, however, require effective supervision of school activities on the part of the heads. Since time is finite, priceless, 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 set targets.

The father of scientific management, Taylor (1856 – 1915) cited in Amuzu-Kpeglo (2004) developed his time motion principle, which sought to relate work to time and play, in order to increase products. It opened the way for increased

research in ways of reducing waste in terms of time in the industrial sector through time management techniques.

The attitudinal aspect of time management has to do with self, one's attitude towards work, goals and aspirations, priorities and others. The school head would have to merge his aim, aspiration and individual goals with the ultimate goal and objectives of the school. Goals are important because they are the *raison d'être* for a period of time. Managing time had to start with goal setting and prioritizing on a daily, weekly and monthly basis.

Weldy (1974) conducted a study and the following time wasters were reported by suburban high school principals and administrators: too many meetings, uncontrollable interruptions, losing time when people needed are unavailable, misplacing priorities, spending time on unimportant matters, and neglecting the important, working without clear purpose and goals, postponing decisions, and over- commitment to outside activities.

The material aspect of managing one's time on task has to do with the various techniques to attain optimal results. These techniques seek to check events or activities that waste heads time. These events or activities are known as time wasters. Researchers such as Carnahan, Gnauck, Hoffman and Sherony (1987), Nickel and others (1975) and Hindle (1998) have all developed several strategies for managing time and eliminating time wasters so as to increase efficiency and output.

Whelton and Cameron (1984) termed these measures for dealing with time wasters as "Rules of Thumb for Managing Time" (p. 107). Some of these time wasters include telephone interruptions, drop-in visitors, emergency meetings, crisis management, attempting too much at once and so on.

Rue and Byars (1999) similarly enumerated the following as time wasters. Telephone interruptions, visitors dropping in without appointments, meetings both scheduled and unscheduled, reading non-essential e-mail, crisis situations for which no plans were possible, lack of objectives, priorities, deadlines, clustered desk and personal disorganization, involvement in routine and detail that should be handled by others, attempting too much at once and underestimating the time it takes to do it, failure to set up clear lines of authority and responsibility, inadequate, inaccurate, or delayed information from others, indecision and procrastination, lack of, or unclear communication and instruction and inability to say "no".

Obviously, not all of these time-wasters can be eliminated or reduced by managing time effectively. In pursuit of effective time management practices at work places, Carnahan et al. (1987) developed the TIME Model, which is the acronym for "To Improve Management Effectiveness". Carnahan et al. proposed the following as components, of their TIME model – Environment, Experience, Individual characteristics, Awareness, Action and Improved performance.

The term environment refers to several factors, the first of which is the working or administrator's immediate work setting. The elements of this first factor include office furniture, telephone facilities, equipment and buildings, and that these physical facilities all affect the use of time during a typical day.

The general organization in which work takes place was identified as a second factor of the environment. Carnahan and his colleagues reported that the degree of noise at the workplaces and the quiet tension that pervades top management meetings, are all elements that affect the effectiveness with which time is used.

A third factor of the environment component of the model is the calibre of colleagues at the work place. Carnahan et al. explained that the heads overall effectiveness depends largely on how he or she knows and works with subordinates. According to them, the level of interpersonal relationships is essential, and the use of time is very much keyed to the character of colleagues at the work place.

Friends, family members and cultural background of workers have been identified as other factors of the environment, which affect the use of official time. Carnahan et al. (1987) cited the example of how a family man may sometimes have to direct time and energy from immediate work objectives towards family objectives. They concluded that the way workers come opposing responsibilities and pressures is affected by the culture and expectations of people close to them. In the Ghanaian school situation, this happens in situations such as when a head attends a funeral or outdooring of a relative instead of performing administrative duties.

Experience is another factor that influences the use of official time and it is more than knowledge applied. The application of knowledge can lead to more effective utilization of time. According to Carnahan et al. (1987) people who have worked a number of years or who have done a variety of things in or outside the work generally have a broader knowledge, which often enhances their effectiveness. Carnahan and his colleagues proposed that experience is a function of the number of years to work, the variety of work of subjects that were studied, and degree of responsibility, the number of years of training of formal education and the variety of non-job activities. They concluded that the nature of experience

helps to use time effectively. This makes it possible for some administrators to complete task while others are unable to do so.

Carnahan et al. (1987) noted that one source of difference of managerial style results from difference in attitudes. An attitude is a mental position with regard to or feeling towards a fact. Further, attitudes are acquired through experience, consciously or unconsciously. According to them, attitudes make individuals to act quickly without considering all the facts every time one must take a decision. Motivation and personality in addition to attitudes are other vital ingredients of individual characteristics. To Carnahan et al., motivation is the degree of energy that is mobilized and exerted when an action takes place. Personality is the sum of all behaviours that define who human beings are. They concluded that a blend of attitude, motivation and personality determines the degree of workers effective use of time.

Awareness is related to both realization and alertness. The past and present environment makes people aware of what is around them. People store information within themselves. The information people receive is continually being updated as more information come to use through them. If the new information corresponds with the information already stored, ideas are supported, and we are encouraged to take certain appropriate actions. If the information individuals encounter does not fit their previous beliefs, clarification is required by another party or by those individuals own reasoning. Cohesive feelings are required to take action. Appropriate action cannot be taken when people are confronted with confusing and contradictory information.

Carnahan et al (1987) stressed that it is the responsibility of managers to be aware that in dealing with subordinates, they must make them aware of those

factors that will affect their performance on the job. This is one way to become a better manager. Action is not just doing and saying things, but rather doing and saying the correct things. The concern is not on the amount of activity but the achievement of results. The right action is guided by mental expectations of what you want to happen. Actions cause what happens, that is, results. It is important to note that some actions may seem to be more successful than others, and some actions are a waste of time. Rather than trying to identify specific actions, such as conducting a meeting, each action is to be classified in terms of the degree to which it leads to improved performance. Improved performance means improved organizational performance, which results from improved performance of individuals within the organization. Performance is based both on what is accomplished and on the accomplishments of subordinates.

Performance has many meanings in terms of efficiency; it can refer to output as compared to input i.e. the learning outcome compared with teaching. This is measuring how much is accomplished given a particular amount of effort. An efficient organization accomplishes more with less effort. Another term associated with performance is effectiveness. Effectiveness is the degree to which the goals of the school are achieved that is, meeting goals on deadlines. This is a valuable concept because an effective organization is a collection of individuals who are achieving useful goals in a timely manner.

The components of the T. I. M. E. model are interrelated. The use or misuse of time is largely a function of the environment, experience, and individual characteristics. Therefore, understanding the environment, experience, and individual characteristics help to be better users of time. The major time wasters, as listed, are primarily environmental and are related to individual characteristics.

Thus, a comprehensive knowledge of the environment, experience and individual characteristics lead to awareness. Once one becomes aware, he can take action. This action leads to the ultimate goal of improved performance.

In addition to the T.I.M.E model, the heads also need to maximize time on task by first planning their time. This could be addressed by making a list of things to be done and then prioritising them. The head has to plan activities and take into consideration when his peak period in the day is. Proper communication, delegation of duties, keeping clocks at strategic places such as classroom, dormitories, staff room and others, keeping a diary, among others, can help the heads have more time. This means that to manage time effectively, several factors will have to be taken into consideration, such as: Avoiding time wasters, making use of the T.I.M.E model and the Time Management System. School heads also need to provide the right kind of environment, providing modern equipment like computers, overhead projectors to enhance teaching and learning

Work Behaviours

Schlenger and Roesch (1989) postulated that people approach time basically in five ways. They have defined these five ways as organizational styles or behaviours. These are the Hopper behaviour, Perfectionist Plus behaviour, Allergic to Detail behaviour, Fence Sitter behaviour, and Cliff Hanger behaviour. Other authors refer to a person's style of managing time using other names such as procrastinator or perfectionist (Hartley 1990; Shipman, Martin McKay, Anastasi 1987 and Winston, 1983). However, all of these behaviours basically fall within the same five categories offered by Schlenger and Roesch. The following five scenarios adapted by the authors are related to school heads.

The Hopper

The hopper is a person who handles several tasks simultaneously, literally hopping from one thing to another, often not completing tasks because of constant interruptions. Heads who operate as hoppers have several teachers standing at one door while parents are also in the office waiting to see them. Generally, no one makes appointments. Just as the head starts to speak to a teacher, the phone rings and one conversation is interrupted with another. These heads are also easily distracted by the noise coming from the school canteen. The heads often monitor the canteen personally, which leaves reports and other paper work undone. The day is very hectic for the Hopper, and those heads work overtime regularly just to complete tasks that have not been done during the day. Working on the weekend is common. There is not much alignment of daily activities with long goals or priorities. Much of the day is one reaction rather than pro-action.

The Perfectionist

The perfectionist plus generally schedules the day to handle several tasks with few interruptions. Generally, appointments are made through the school secretary. There are set times during the day for routine tasks. A time is set-aside for the usual walk-in parents just after morning assembly. Unexpected incidents are handled but do not drive the day. These heads generate correspondence with a personal computer for fear that too much time will be spent on editing the work of others. To be certain that every little detail is known, these heads read their mail thoroughly, sometimes two or three times to be certain that no details are omitted. These heads are often frustrated with the disorganization of other people.

The Allergic to Detail

These heads prefer to focus on the big picture by formulating plans and leaving the details of implementation to subordinates. The secretary is "in charge" of gathering data for many reports, payroll procedures, and reading electronic mail (e-mail) for heads. The Allergic to Detail heads generally have avoided learning or were some of the last to learn to use the computer. These heads generally get major tasks accomplished but avoid analyzing numerical figures for budgets or test data. These heads frequently read the newspapers and are up on global affairs. Because it is the nature of these heads not to miss some important details, they seldom, if ever, write grants. Grants require too many details.

The Fence Sitter

The Fence Sitters have trouble making up their own minds when faced with lots of choices. They want to make the best decision possible and often seek information from others. They hold back decisions because of the risk involved. Fence Sitters weigh information carefully and listen to both sides of an issue. These heads seldom take risks with innovations. They implement programmes that have been tried by others. They often use a collection of ideas that may not reflect any consistent philosophy. They often miss out favourable outcomes because they take so long to make decisions.

The Cliff Hanger

These heads wait until the last minute and generally need outside pressure (deadlines, visitors, or boss) to complete tasks. They involve others in their rush to

finish and meet deadlines. They have frequent "emergency meetings" with staff for their input. They are often late for meetings themselves. Cliff Hangers tend to get bored easily and need new challengers to keep them motivated. They frequently work overtime trying to meet deadlines for important projects at the eleventh hour. Those who work for Cliff Hangers are often frustrated by the commotion of last minute rushing.

In summary, these five work behaviours are certainly not absolute. Heads may see several characteristics of themselves in two or more of these scenarios. In fact, the more flexible heads are, perhaps, the more work behaviours they will use. However, if they look more inwardly at their individual patterns of managing time, they may have a personal preference for one of the work behaviours. On the other hand, external conditions may influence their choice of work behaviours to adopt. Under what conditions then will they use anyone or a combination of these five work behaviours? Perhaps it is the pace of the job, the complexity of a particular school, the level of the school, the number of years of experience as a head, or the amount of training received in time management that influences which work behaviour heads use.

Theory of Time Management Practices

As the pace of a school head work day increases or decreases, the work behaviours and the frequency of use of time management practices may change based on the flexibility of each head to adopt the work behaviour that best matches the demands of the day. Even though a head may have preferred work behaviours that coincide with personalities, the job may demand that different work behaviours be used on that day. Will the dominant work behaviour for managing

time prevail over the demand of the job? Or will the pace of the job dictate which work behaviour heads use? What other factors may have an impact on the time management practices heads use? Figure 2 is an example of a head with a preferred work behaviour that is congruent with personal and situational conditions.

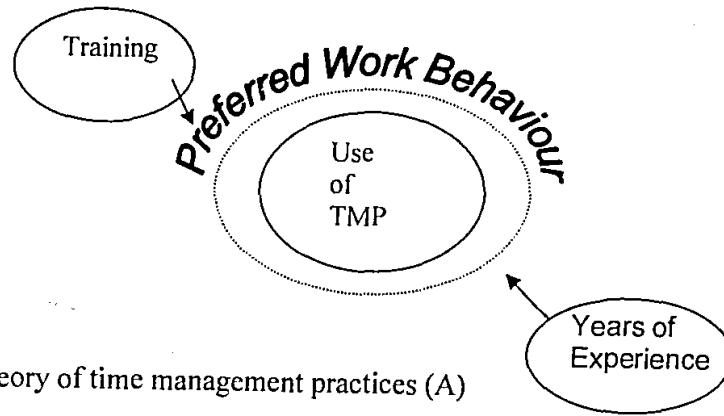


Fig. 2. Theory of time management practices (A)

Source: Schlenger, S. & Roesch, R. (1989).

In the hypothetical scenario in Figure 2, the pace of the day was such that everything was in synchronization with the preferred management behaviour of the head. An example could be when the head uses the perfectionist behaviour to work by having the office secretary schedule appointments with the parents, teachers, and students. The school appears to be somewhat complex, and the head has been the head in that school for a number of years. This figure depicts the forces that may impact the frequency of use of time management practices and the work behaviour used by a head. A head's preferred work behaviour, indicated by a dotted circle, is aligned with the time management practices (TMP) used. The congruent circle titled Use of TMP and Preferred Work Behaviour indicates this alignment. Other factors as represented by the two circles on the outside of the work behaviour that possibly may have an impact on the use of time management practices are training and years of experience

Figure 3, on the other hand, depicts the same head on a different day in the same school. On this day, the same head seems to just hop from one task to another and the day is so much more hectic than the day in the previous scenario. A key to this particular day is the fact that the office Secretary is absent, there is no substitute provided, and several parents are standing at the office counter because it is a parent teacher conference day, a day set-aside for parents and teachers to hold conferences. This same head recognizes the unusual circumstances of the day and seems unable to use the same time management practices that were used the day before in the previous scenario. What happens then to the work behaviour of this head and the frequency of use of time management practices? Even though this head is naturally a Perfectionist, the events of the day require that the head become a Hopper and serve as surrogate office secretary to meet the needs of the many parents standing in the office scheduled to see the head. The use of TMP circle indicates that the head is way off centre from his dominant work behaviour. It is not a preferred practice to serve as secretary, but those particular circumstances required it of the head. Notice that the work behaviour, indicated by the elliptical circle, is slightly to the left of the time management practices (TMP) used by the head in his new situation. The head is relying on previous training and his ability to change to Hopper, which is an indication of his flexibility to make the day run as smoothly as possible.

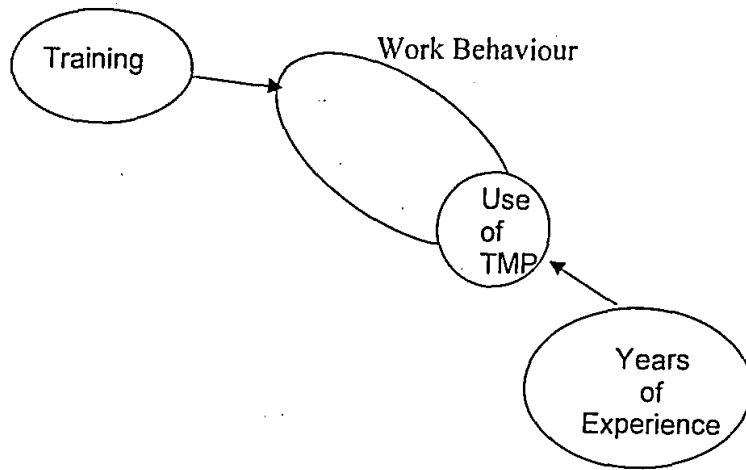


Fig 3: Theory of time management practices (B)

Source: Schlenger, S. & Roesch, R. (1989).

An example of a head who adjusts preferred work behaviour to accommodate situational conditions.

A Historical Perspective: The Four Generations of Time Management

Another way of perceiving preferences for managing time is to look at Covey, Merrill, and Merrill's (1994) four generations of managing time. These authors believe that people approach the management of time developmentally. Based on this belief, they did an intensive history of time management which takes the patterns of the way people manage time through four generations with each generation building on the next, moving towards greater efficiency and control.

The approaches of Covey et al. (1994) in their four generations range from the more Traditional Efficiency-Oriented Approach to the Get Organised Approach, the Warrior Approach, or the ABC or Prioritisation Approach to some of the newer approaches that are pushing traditional paradigms. These include the more Far Eastern "Go-with-the Flow" Approach, which encourages us to get in touch with the natural rhythms of life to connect with these "timeless" moments in

time “when the tick of the clock simply fades away in the joy of the moment” (p. 22-23).

First Generation

Covey et al. (1994) believed that some people enter the time management paradigm in the first generation by responding flexibly to people with changing needs. “People in this generation work on their own time-table and do whatever they feel they need to do or seem pressing at the time” (p. 24). Much like the Hopper, the first generation head will forget appointments and commitments. Without an empowering sense of life-time vision and goal setting, meaningful accomplishment is less than it could be” (p. 24). The first generation of time management is based on “reminders.” Covey et al. (1994) observed that “People make lists of what they want to do or rather what they do not want to forget to do as reminders to themselves. Simple notes and checklists characterize this generation. If the item is not accomplished on one day, it goes on the list for the next day. The people in this generation operate from crisis to crisis and often ignore major items that need attention. Important reports are often neglected and relatively little of importance is accomplished. Relationship with others may suffer because of the “Go with the flow, be flexible” philosophy of the people in this generation (p. 29).

Second Generation

Some have evolved to the second generation of time management where the emphasis is on “planning” and “preparation”. Covey et al. (1994) said that calendars and appointment books characterize this generation. Managers in this

generation prefer to set goals, plan ahead, and schedule future events. A weakness of this generation is that sometimes the schedule takes priority over people. People are viewed as a means to accomplish goals. The first things done are those related to what are on the schedule. The people that operate in this generation have more effective meetings and presentations because they are usually thoroughly prepared.

Third Generation

The third generation approach emphasize, "planning, prioritizing and controlling" (Covey and others p. 3). Those in this generation spend some time clarifying values and setting priorities. Long-range and short-range goals are set to obtain these values. Planners and organizers characterize this generation, electronic as well as paper-based, with detailed forms for daily planning. Covey et al. (1994) reminded us that "for many people, the pinnacle third generation approach feels rigid, structured, and unnatural and the intensity is hard to maintain" (p. 31). Practising the most efficient method of time management does not necessarily mean that one is using time on what is most important.

Fourth Generation

Covey et al. (1994) asserted that there is clearly a need for a fourth generation that embraces all the strengths of generations 1, 2, and 3, but eliminates the weaknesses and moves beyond. This requires a paradigm and an approach that is not different by degree, but in a kind of fundamental break with less effective ways of thinking and doing. In the fourth generation, there is a movement beyond time management to life leadership where the paradigm creates quality of life result.

like Mayer (1995) and Winston (1983) used the same principle of prioritizing tasks by assigning numbers (1, 2 and 3) in the same manner. In some cases, they suggest a combination of the two systems where all tasks are further prioritized using A1, A2, and A3, not to exceed three. The main idea is to use a system that denotes the setting of priority in some fashion

For heads, this practice seems difficult because of the frequent demands (pressure) and dependency on school leaders. Teachers, students, parents and others have come to expect the head to be available, to have regular contact with them, to be in the dormitories and classrooms, to listen and respond to questions and concerns, and to be accountable for what goes on in the school. These expectations can cause problems because they can prevent heads from spending time on other essential activities according to priorities.

To keep priorities in full view, various authors (Mayer 1995; Schlenger & Roesch, 1989; Shipman et al. 1987 and Winston 1983) agreed on maintaining a "to-do" list either on a separate sheet, in a day planner, or on the computer where daily priorities can be analyzed at the beginning and ending of the day. These authors also recommend that the managers or administrators decide which tasks are more important than others on this "to-do" list. These are the high priority tasks. Indeed most heads know how to prioritize tasks that are on their "to-do" lists. Although they prioritise as they work, yet they never "write it down" on paper. The efficient "to-do" list does not have to be written everyday. Covey et al (1994) recommended that it should rather be written weekly.

Setting job priorities, working on them in order, and listing on paper the major tasks for the day in order of priorities were time management practices. The unique pressures of the job of heads may prevent them from handling high priority

tasks. Druckner (1993) suggested that "the only question is which will make the decision, the executive or the pressures. If the pressures rather than executives are allowed to make the decision, the important tasks will predictably be sacrificed" (p. 109). Heads who operate like Hoppers and Cliff Hangers allow pressures to dictate their way. They spend their day reacting to urgent tasks rather than managing and scheduling priorities. Druckner (1993) stated that when we "leave control of priorities to the pressure, then the work of the top level management does not get done" (p. 109).

Heads who operate in Perfectionist Plus mode would tend to prioritise tasks fairly efficiently, sometimes to fault. According to Schlenger and Rosech (1989), it is important for school heads who use this style of managing work to remember, "they sometimes have hard time distinguishing between high expectations and superhuman expectations" (p. 53). Pressures do not dictate their day. Their own high standards and beliefs dictate the priorities of the day. As long as these types of heads remain flexible in their day and are not rigid while working on priorities, they can get the most important things done.

An important question to ask is do heads manage their priorities rather than allow the priorities to manage them? Covey et al (1994) said, "the key, however, is not to prioritise your schedule, but to schedule your priorities" (p. 88). They have a thorough process for analysing priorities called the Quadrant II process. It encourages one to think about the various roles that are played in life and how to balance one's life against these roles. This process adds the dimension of balance to heads priorities. Covey et al. stressed that "it is important to make sure that whatever system is used is aligned with what heads are trying to do" (p. 78). Shipman et al (1987) also reminded heads to keep in mind the main functions of

their job as they prioritise. According to Anton (1993), proficient heads know how to "link their priorities to school priorities, get input on next year's priorities during annual evaluation conferences of staff, and attend only those community events that are linked to their school priorities" (p. 1).

Paperwork

A major task of the head is to manage in a timely manner a lot of papers that are received from many sources. Much of the paperwork comes into school from the district education office, regional office and headquarters to convey pieces of information to the school through the heads. Heads get hand-delivered notes and letters written from teachers, parents, and students making some requests of them. Everyone sending correspondence wants individual responses from the head in a timely manner of course; there is also paperwork that is generated by heads themselves (observation records, cumulative records, discipline records, evaluation forms, calendars, newsletters, and so on).

Winston (1983) put it very well when she wrote "paper mismanagement can cripple heads ability to function effectively neither neat nor sloppy is the key to paper management. The real cause of the paperwork crisis is a problem with decision-making. The key to paper management is processing: that is, channelling each piece of paper from your in-box to its appropriate destination" (pp. 35-36).

A key person to assist school head or administrator with managing papers is the school secretary. The utilization of the secretary may be based on the secretary's and the head's perceptions of the job, the competence of the secretary, and the unrelenting pace of the school to which they have been assigned.

Winston (1983) reminded managers or heads not to underutilize their secretaries by holding to a narrow definition of a secretary's job. The competence level of secretaries has three levels or grades. Grade 1 refers to those secretaries who answer the phone, handle walk-ins, and may need guidance on all paperwork. Grade 1 secretaries take very little initiative and rely totally on guidance from the heads. Grade 2 secretaries can handle standard inquiries, file telephone calls, make appointments and track assignments given out at meetings. The "senior secretary" or grade 3 secretary demonstrates initiative by composing letters, summarizing reports, and managing the head's calendar, and can generally schedule the head's supervising less senior clerical personnel.

Winston also suggested that "instead of interrupting each other at will throughout the day with questions and instructions, heads should use this time to outline the day's assignments and priorities, to discuss any problems; to clarify tasks; to answer questions; and to update previously assigned projects" (p. 269). Mayer (1995), Shipman et al. (1987) and Winston (1983) suggested that setting such a mutually agreeable mail time would increase the heads efficiency. If the secretary is allowed to handle routine tasks, heads will then have more time to handle more important tasks. Heads should expect their secretaries to open, read, and put the most important letters on top before bringing the letters to them. They should also process mail with their secretaries, return most papers to the secretary with instructions, and retain only those items that require further thought.

Many school secretaries do not view themselves as "senior secretaries" and do not operate in that manner. For some heads, having their secretary type a letter takes more time to edit and re-edit because of the secretary's inabilities. Winston (1983) reminded heads that the key to building an effective partnership is to help

the secretary expand the secretary's functions from grade 1 to grade 3 secretaries by analysing their current secretarial duties.

It is indicated that heads need to schedule an appointment for themselves as they work with their customers. Covey et al. (1994), Mayer (1995), Schlenger & Roesch (1989) Shipman et al. (1987) and Winston (1983) opined that a time to work on administrative paperwork should occur during regular working hours. It is suggested that administrative paperwork is not to be done before or after official hours. Covey et al. (1994) recommended that as heads look at their week, they should not try to schedule every moment of every day, but to try to schedule time zones of interchangeable blocks of time which are set aside for specific important activities. They reminded heads to "give themselves the same consideration that they would give to anybody else" (p.90). Drucker (1993) called this same concept "chunks of time no matter what the time is called, time management experts recommend that the administrative paperwork be done at regularly scheduled time during the work day". Mayer (1995) added that heads must learn to respect their own time and not interrupt themselves with their own use of the telephone, letters, or email.

Partin (1982) recommended that on receiving a letter, a response should be made immediately, and when feasible, writing the response on the bottom of the original letter and returning it to the secretary for quick responses. Shipman et al. (1987) also suggested that heads write their responses directly on the incoming letters. This practice saves both time and paper.

Indeed paperwork is a fact of life in the headship business. It allows heads to communicate with the entire customers. Reports, mail, memos, correspondences, journals, magazines, and newsletters do not have to dominate the

life of heads or be the cause of endless hours after work. The "stacked desk syndrome" as Rowan (1978) called it, does not have to be the norm.

Practices for Scheduling Contacts

Kmetz and Willower's (1982) study of heads work behaviour showed that over 86% of principals activities and more than 70% of their time were found to be spent on personal contacts. The contact included face-to-face meetings, telephone calls, and often brief visual or verbal interactions that occurred during monitoring or touring the building. The head should have the school secretary screen telephone calls and should designate a specific time for return calls.

Mattauch (1987) suggested that by setting up a block of time for returning calls, the average time for each call could be reduced. Used properly, the telephone could be one of the greatest time savers. Anton (1993, Schlenger and Rosech 1989; Shipman et al 1987 and Winston 1983) said that secretaries need to screen telephones calls of heads or administrators. They should be given a list of callers to whom heads will always be available and should intercept the rest of the calls by keeping a log of them in one place that will be reviewed during the daily meeting with the head. It is the responsibility of heads to let secretaries know when there is an exception to their rule. The inexperienced secretary will probably just take down vital information (name and number) from a telephone call. However, the senior secretary can be trained to get the reason for the call, possibly refer it to someone else on the staff who is equally qualified to handle the matter, or answer the caller themselves. Often, with a senior or experienced secretary the head need not to be involved in this activity.

Another practice that can assist secretaries is properly screening calls and giving them vital information in advance of telephone calls. Secretaries can be given vital information to give to others such as registration, information, examination results, and fees. Most heads can anticipate the frequently asked questions by callers and give that information to the secretary or put it in a voice mail, which saves everyone's time. Certain times of the school year yield certain kinds of questions. The most important point is that heads should not take every call as they come into the office.

Schelenger and Rosech (1989), Shipman et al. (1987) and Winston (1983) all agreed that the majority of heads calls can be consolidated and returned at one time, beginning with priority calls. Winston (1983) even recommended that the calls be returned when people are less inclined to chat right before lunch or near the end of the day. Winston also recommended that heads develop a uniform system of keeping track of call-backs. Additionally, when people know there is a formal telephone message system, there is less likely the chance of misuse of the telephone for personal purposes.

Shipman et al (1987) suggested that principals have a specific list of key issues prior to making return calls. The secretary should be trained to ask enough questions to get the main issues that callers want to discuss with heads. In this way, time is not wasted when heads say, as Cliff Hangers might, "I will have to call you back when I find the answer." As each issue is addressed, they should be marked off the list. This practice keeps the head and the caller on task, and important issues are not forgotten. Mackenzie (1972) asserted that the telephone is useful in the following ways:

- (a) It saves multiple calls by way of conference calls

- (b) It saves time required for arranging and participating in a meeting
- (c) It eliminates unnecessary trips
- (d) It saves time both in writing letters and writing for a reply.

Even though many heads carry calendars, day planners, and computers with them to meetings where they can schedule appointments for themselves, it is a better practice to have their secretaries schedule most appointments for them. Heads must communicate with their secretaries about which blocks of time are for what purpose on their schedules. Then, secretaries and heads will not double schedule time, which allows heads to get to the priority items of each day.

Practices for Handling Interruptions

In a study by Tanner et al. (1991), it was found that heads activities were often interrupted. This resulted in a polychrome that is, doing too many things at once. About 38% of all the heads activities were either interrupted or the heads interrupted themselves by hopping from one task to another. The activities of the heads that were most likely to be interrupted were monitoring, scheduled meetings and desk work in that order.

Anton (1993) found that the senior secretary could serve as an excellent buffer from excessive unproductive personal contacts. A more productive strategy for a head is to understand the "pattern of the people in the school building" and plan to be available during the time of most walk-ins. Teachers generally come to school before the students. Setting a time to answer the teachers quick questions at the office in the mornings and afternoons is an efficient way of handling routine concerns.

helps, it is vital that everyone involved knows who is actually responsible for what task. "A key organizational precept is that decision is best made at the lowest level possible" (Bimbrose 1987, p. 22). "Decisions ought to be delegated to the lowest possible level where they can be made intelligently and where the relevant facts and required judgement to make sound decisions are available" (Mackenzie 1972, p. 123).

To this end, Anton (1993) made the recommendation to "give strong public recognition to staff members who succeed in their delegated responsibilities. Give quiet, personal, and constructive feedback to those whose efforts fall short" (p. 3).

Winston (1983) stated that when communicating with staff, administrators give a specific time that delegations are due. Specific time means not only the date that the delegations are due, but also the exact time of the day. When there are competent people working together, a mutual time could be agreed upon for delegations to be completed. Heads should print the due dates for recurring tasks in school newsletters and school calendars. Then there is no question as to when the head is expecting the task to be completed.

Using target dates and benchmarks with employees have been discussed by Winston (1983). He recommended that for those tasks that require stages of completion, benchmark dates be established early in the delegation. When employees have advanced notice and sufficient time to complete a delegated project, the best quality of work can be accomplished.

Another responsibility of heads is learning to track important delegations and projects while managing the unrelenting pace of a school organization. Several authors (Anton 1993; Luehman 1991; Mayer 1995; Schlenger & Roesch 1989 and

Winston 1983) agreed that a "ticker" system of some kind is useful for reminding the heads to follow up on delegations, reports and important projects. Calendar notations, file folders referral systems, and electronic tickers used correctly, they can save time and remind the heads to get things done in a timely manner. Indeed, learning to delegate appropriately is a skill of time management that can, as Bimbrose (1987) noted, "reap huge dividends in terms of freeing the head for quality and creative time on matters more worthy of their time" (p. 22).

Practices for Managing Meetings

Meetings, scheduled and unscheduled, take up a great percentage of heads time. However, if managed appropriately, meeting can be a useful vehicle for communicating with colleagues, teachers, students, and parents. Taylor (1981) averred that properly conducted meetings are useful in sharing information, gathering ideas, gaining consensus, and improving communications.

In the study of work behaviours of school administrators, Kmetz and Willower (1982) found that over 43% of school administrators time was spent in their scheduled or unscheduled meetings. Scheduled meetings are those planned in advance. The unscheduled meetings are hastily arranged contacts between the heads and one or more persons, which usually occurred spontaneously. Heads give much of their time to this activity than to any other. The heads have most of their unscheduled meetings with parents and persons within the school.

Shipman et al (1987) emphasized the need for heads to hold meetings only for a specific purpose. The purpose should be stated in writing and distributed to prospective participants well in advance, whenever possible. If there is no real purpose of a meeting other than to dispense information, then the information

should be distributed to the departments without the meeting. If there are common questions about the information, then a purpose has to surface and a meeting should be held.

Winston (1983) suggested the use of what she calls the action agenda: a written list of specific question or discussion topics. This agenda should be distributed at least a day in advance and should include desired objectives of the meeting. For instance, authors agenda could specify papers or information that participants should bring, as well as any advance preparation such as reading or studying certain documents required for the meeting. This allows participants not only to be prepared, but also allows the best use of the limited time for meetings in a school. Weldy (1974) suggested that heads follow the prepared agenda with stated objectives, unless the group agrees that more pressing items are warranted.

For informal or impromptu staff meetings, as well as one-on-one appointments and phone conversations, Winston (1983) reminded executives or administrators to make a list of issues they want to cover. This way, when there is limited time, the pertinent issues are covered. This practice will prevent the conversation from veering from the real issues. When agendas are sent well in advance of meetings to participants with preliminary topics to be discussed, they have time to add any other pertinent items that have been omitted.

For ensuring more efficient and productive meetings, Weldy (1974) suggested that school administrators recognise that meetings which last longer than one and half often hours lose their effectiveness. Most school schedules will not allow meetings to last more than one hour. In the study, Tanner et al. (1991) found out that elementary principals spent an average of 35 minutes in their meetings.

To keep meetings on track, Winston (1983) recommended that a time limit be set for each item on the agenda unless the group decides that some issues warrant more time. The group comes to consensus about time limits at the beginning of the meeting. The leader of the meeting should assign a timekeeper to keep everyone on task. The start of school, lunchtime, or quitting time provides built-in limits for most meetings held in a school setting. Heads should list priority issues first on the agenda and be flexible should other important issues surface in the meeting. Heads should not feel compelled to resolve all issues. Some issues may need to be put on another agenda for another meeting. However, they should be certain to meet objectives set at the beginning.

Unlike the unproductive practice of the past, where every Tuesday or other specified day there was a departmental meeting whether the need existed for one or not, meetings should take on a more productive air in the current era. Only those staff or members of the department that are affected by the decisions to be made in the meeting need to be invited to attend and participate in the meeting. For example, if a school is deciding on a special computer programme for first year students, then only those first year teachers, and maybe some first year parents will need to attend that meeting.

Summarizing the major points of the discussions at the end of the meeting is an effective practice. Assignments and deadlines should also be reviewed so that there are no questions about who does what and by what date (Mayer 1995 and Winston, 1983). Summarizing the major concerns of a parent or teacher at the end of a conference and resting actions that will be taken is also a good practice for principals. This practice cuts down on misunderstanding between school heads and others.

When minutes of all meetings are shared with everyone, then everyone is aware of decisions and actions. Distributing minutes is an especially good practice for large organizations. Having decisions in writing also serves as an historical record of how some decisions have evolved

The problem of time management prompted Imundo (1991) to come out with some activities, which he believed, could minimize the misuse of official time by heads. These activities include planning, organizing, controlling, socialising, managing mail and avoiding indecision.

Planning

The first step in the better management of official time according to Imundo (1991) is to be time conscious. Time-conscious heads are continually sensitive as to how well their time, as well as the time of others, is used. Heads need to develop a daily plan or things to-do list, recognizing the fact that not everything always goes according to plan. Depending upon the type of work one does, planning also requires heads to develop and use daily plans.

A daily plan does not have to be an elaborate minute-by-minute schedule; it can be as simple as a list of what needs to be done that day. Once planned activities are listed, they are to be compared to one's goals and priorities. The planned activities should then be modified to concentrate on meeting goals. The final plan should serve as a guide for the day's activities.

The next step in using a daily plan is to organize the day's activities in some type of logical sequence, and to estimate the amount of time for each activity. Imundo (1991) noted that the organization of activities into logical groups always results in increased efficiency.

As the day progresses, the planned activities are to be compared to what is being accomplished with new activities added and others deleted. At the end of each day, the plan that was accomplished is to be compared with the activities. Why certain activities were not accomplished should be analysed. The feedback increases one's awareness about the use of time and facilitates planning and organizing. Whatever was not accomplished in one day becomes a priority item for the next day. Improvement goals need also be established.

According to Imundo (1991) heads who plan their activities to meet objectives and stick as close as possible to daily plan accomplish more in less time. They also accomplish them better. The more accurate one is about one's goals, needs, and priorities, the more one can accurately plan and schedule activities. The more accurate the plan, the less one will be compelled to deviate from it.

Organization

According to Imundo (1991), heads who plan ahead also learn to become better organized. Some heads are so highly organized that they become compulsive. Over organized heads can become so structured that they are unable to adjust or adapt to changing conditions. It is also important to remember that the best plan is worthless if it is not followed.

Heads are required to maintain all types of records. Reference to records and other types of information occurs daily. Developing a classification system and maintaining records in a timely and orderly manner are effective ways to reduce time spent looking for information. A little time spent each day or week on keeping records up to date and discarding information that is no longer needed pays high dividends.

Controlling Socialising

Imundo (1991) observed that it is possible to control socializing when an employee is in one's office. The head is to remember the purpose of the visit, once the objective is achieved, continued socializing is unnecessary.

When others socialize with the head, it is important for the head to let them know how much time is available. He is to exercise caution in telling others how much of his time they can use. Rudeness, abruptness, or aggressiveness can impede communication. Tact and diplomacy should be the guiding principles. Letting visitors know that one has to attend a meeting, keep another appointment, make telephone calls, complete some reports can be effective ways to terminate a social visit without being rude or abrupt.

Some visitors will come into one's office and say they want only a minute of your time. If no time can be spared, the head has to tactfully but firmly say no, and if appropriate, schedule a time to meet the visitors. Another approach is to tell the person that a minute or two is all one can give. If they continued beyond the allotted time, one has to politely end the interaction.

Managing Mail

Most schools generate too much information, be it paper or electronic. To avoid having to handle unnecessary information, one needs to get off the mailing or distribution lists. One also has to learn to distinguish between important and unimportant mail although it may be difficult to track down the source selling one's name.

The head has to screen his mail by reading the first paragraph and quickly scanning the rest. If the first paragraph appears unimportant, it should be

immediately discarded. If in doubt, there should be further reading to decide whether the letter requires action.

Avoiding Indecision

Management requires making decisions, and all decisions involve the use of time and an element of risk taking. Heads, like all others, normally do not want to make mistakes. Fear of making mistakes or worse, failing can and does lead to indecisiveness.

Successful heads have learned that mistakes will occur in decision-making. It is usually better to make a decision and be wrong than not to make a decision at all. The key to avoiding indecision is to gather information quickly, sort and evaluate it quickly, examine the alternatives, weigh the consequences, and then make the decision. Invariably, some decisions will turn out to be wrong. The mistake is to be used as a learning experience to guide future decisions.

Empirical Review

This section of the review takes a critical look at studies already conducted by researchers on time management. There have been a lot of researches into related topics in which findings revealed the importance of effective use of time as a factor vital to the very survival of every organisation. Robertson (1998) examined the relationship between school principals management styles and time management practices in America. The purpose was to determine how principals managed time. The study comprised 304 participants. A questionnaire was employed to elicit information from the participants. The study resulted in findings that were negative and statistically significant at .01 level of significance

not. The time principals actually spend on important tasks differs from the amount of time they believe should be spent on those tasks. The researcher recommended that principals should concentrate on delegating authority and duties to subordinates, thus creating more time for those tasks considered most important.

Huges (1989) conducted a study in Texas in which he examined 51 supervisors of instruction. He found out from the study that only 10% of the time for supervision was spent on classroom observations. Heading the time constraints were telephone interruptions, preparing less important reports and other paperworks. Huges concluded that if principals do not learn to manage interruptions and paperwork, they too would continue to spend less time on important tasks such as instruction.

Weldy (1974) conducted a study on time wasters in Washington, DC in which 35 time wasters were reported by suburban high school principal and administrators. The top seven time wasters were: Too many meetings, uncontrollable interruptions, checking on delegations, junk mail, using clerical services poorly, using ineffective office routines and filing systems and misplacing priorities. Weldy suggested the need for basic time management practices among school principals is to reduce time wasters.

Similar studies have been conducted in Ghana. Sefenu (2001) conducted a study on time management practices in the Central Administration of the University of Cape Coast to investigate the effects of the time wasters on the use of official time and how such time wasters are controlled. Sefenu sampled 180 senior personnel of the Central Administration. The study used the questionnaire, interview guide and observation chart as data collection instruments. Sefenu found that 50% of the official time at the central administration of University of Cape

Coast was spent on time wasters tested among the administrative personnel. The most significant time wasters identified were telephone interruptions, the open door policy, lateness to work, unclear daily objectives, self-indiscipline with regard to time and lack of control over time wasters. The researcher suggested, among others, that senior administrative personnel should develop self-discipline by analysing their general attitude to work and stick to a task till it is accomplished.

A similar study on time management practices was conducted by Adom (2004) in Ghana. The study investigated time wasters and their impact on the administrative heads of the Ghana National College in Cape Coast. Adom's study comprised 36 school administrators. Questionnaire and interview guide were adopted for the study. A salient component of Adom's work was his observation that the administrative heads have not regularly been reviewing and prioritising demands on time, with about 72% respondents confirming that. It was also found that drop-in visitors, interruptions by colleagues and subordinates, telephone, misused meetings, inability to say 'no', ineffective delegation among others were the existing time wasters. Adom suggested that specific periods that one thinks would be convenient to receive visitors, could be displayed to reduce the influx of people at all times.

Hanson's (2002) study of teacher role and instructional time management in Senior Secondary Schools in the Kete-Krachi district of Ghana had a sample of 72 teachers. The study sought to ascertain teachers role in managing instructional time, using interview guide to gather information from the participants.

Hanson found out that considerable amount of instructional hours were used to perform non-teaching activities assigned to teachers. He suggested that administrators should be cautious when assigning non-teaching duties to teachers

so that performances of these duties do not reduce the time for both instruction and management.

One notes that studies on time management practices of heads of the Senior Secondary Schools in Ashanti is different from studies conducted in Cape Coast, United States of America, Zimbabwe in terms of description, purpose, significance, geographical area, target population, analysis and findings. Attempts have been made to examine the work behaviours of heads and their impact on management of time. These form the details of the present study. These details have not been examined since they have not been the target of the previous studies. The previous studies focused on time wasters and their effects on administrators use of time, relationship between time management and academic achievement, relationship between principals management styles and time management practices, perception of school principals on the importance they place on identified daily tasks and others. A key finding of the previous studies was telephone interruption while the present study indicated visitor interruption as common occurrence among heads of Senior Secondary Schools.

Summary of the Review of Literature

The review of literature tried to explain the concept of time, Conceptual framework, time management, work behaviours, theory of time management, historical perspective of time and time management practices.

The literature again examined earlier studies conducted in time management and how these studies are different from the present study. The areas discussed in the literature are related to this study because the purpose of the present study was to determine the relationship between work behaviours and time

management practices of heads of Senior Secondary Schools in Ashanti Region. The study was to find out the relationship between number of years of experience and amount of training in time management and time management practices. The study followed the issues which emerged from the literature reviewed.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the design, the population, the selected sample as well as sampling procedure used in the study. Again, the development of the instruments, pre-testing of the instruments, and procedure for administering the questionnaire and data analysis plan have all been described.

The Design

The descriptive correlational survey was used in the study since the researcher wanted to find out whether there was a causal relationship between heads work behaviours and their use of time management practices. It was also to describe the current characteristics, attitudes, opinions, ideas and measures taken by heads and their effects on the management of official time in Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region. Leedy (1989) supported the use of descriptive correlational survey for this study when he stated that correlational survey investigates relationship between one dependent variable and two or more independent variables. The survey looks at surface relationships without necessary probing for causal reasons underlying them. Best and Kahn (1998) has recommended the use of correlational survey as they stated that the survey describes and interprets relationship between non-manipulated variables that are already in existence.

Osuala (1987) said that the design interprets, synthesizes, integrates data and points to implications and relationships. The current study assessed the management of official time as it pertains in the Ashanti Region among heads of

Senior Secondary Schools in the region. The survey enabled the researcher to obtain information from sample of individuals representative of the entire population.

The survey design was adopted because it has the advantage of providing useful information from a large group of people. The survey enables the researcher to get a broad and accurate views or responses on issues concerning heads work behaviours and their time management practices (Peil, 1995). The design provides a meaningful picture of events and seeks to explain people's behaviour on the basis of data gathered. In addition, in-depth follow up questions can be asked and items that are not clear to participants can be explained (Frankel & Wallen, 1993).

Descriptive correlational survey is highly regarded by policy makers for research in the social sciences where large populations are dealt with, and is widely used in educational research since data gathered by way of correlational survey establish relationship between two variables.

It is, however, difficult to ensure that the questions or statements to respond to are clear and not misleading because survey results can vary depending on the wording of questions, the circumstances and who the participants are. It may provide unreliable results because they delve into private matters which participants may not be prepared to provide the right responses (Seifert & Hoffnung, 1991). Despite these disadvantages, the researcher sees the correlational survey as the appropriate design for conducting the research on time management practices because it produces a clear picture of situations and seeks to explain relationships based on the information gathered.

Population

The Ashanti Region has been selected as the area for the study. Of late, one hears of public complaints about a number of workers not reporting to work on time and generally not abiding by the code of ethics associated with their work especially in respect of the use of time.

The Ashanti Region has 21 districts under its jurisdiction. According to statistics compiled by the Statistics Unit of the Ashanti Regional Directorate of Education in Kumasi, there are 87 Senior Secondary Schools in the region. Out of the 87 Senior Secondary Schools, 12 are unisex made up of eight girls schools and four boys schools.

The target population for the study comprised all heads' and assistants of Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region. Statistics compiled by the Statistics Unit of the Ashanti Regional Directorate of Education put the population of heads in the region for the 2006 academic year at 332, which is made up of 87 heads and 245 assistant. The accessible population was all heads and assistants in the eight selected districts of Ashanti.

Sample and Sampling Technique

The sample was selected from the 21 districts of Ashanti. Eight out of the 21 districts in Ashanti Region were selected for the study. These comprised four rural districts and four urban districts.

Stratified random sampling was used to select the districts so that the study could cover both rural and urban schools to ensure a fair geographical representation of the schools. The 21 districts were separated into the categories of urban and rural with assistance from officials of the Regional Education office.

The lottery technique was applied in selecting the required districts from each of the categories. The names of the districts were written on pieces of paper folded and put in a hat. The folded papers were thoroughly mixed and picked one at a time. This was done separately for the rural and urban districts until the researcher obtained the needed number of eight districts for the study. Eight districts, which formed 43% of the districts in the region, were considered sizable enough to be representative of the population. Nwana (1992) suggested that if the population is a few hundreds, a 40% sample size or more will do. It is based on this that the researcher selected eight districts, which represented 43% of the districts in the region for the study. (Refer to Appendix C).

There are altogether 50 Senior Secondary Schools in the eight districts selected. All the 50 in the eight districts which formed 57.5% of the schools in Ashanti Region were purposively selected with all the heads purposively included as participants in the study. A total of 150 representing 45.2% of heads from the 50 Senior Secondary Schools constituted the sample for the study. According to Frankel and Wallen (2000), purposive sampling is a non-random sample and it is used because those 50 schools and 150 heads selected were considered to have the requisite information.

Instruments for Data Collection

The study employed the use of questionnaire and observation checklist. The questionnaire is mostly used in quantitative research because it is highly structured and standardized. The questionnaire was used to gather information from participants because the study was conducted at educational institutions where all the participants were literates. Kerlinger (1973) observed that

management practices. This enabled the researcher to delve into certain areas where questionnaire responses from the participants were unable to provide the detailed information. This method enabled the researcher to confirm results from the questionnaire.

The observation was conducted in 10 of the participating Senior Secondary Schools. The schools were chosen by a simple random selection process. During the observation, the researcher paid particular attention to:

- 1 Number of drop-in visitors
- 2 Involvement of all staff in every meeting
- 3 The time meetings start and end
- 4 Number of times heads visit the school compound
- 5 The use of computers by heads
- 6 Whether meeting agenda was distributed a day before the meeting
- 7 Working overtime
- 8 Delegation of routine activities

Pre- Testing of Study Instrument

There was the need to pre-test the main study instrument to establish the validity and reliability of the items. According to Best and Khan (1989), validity and reliability are important to effectiveness of any data-gathering procedure. Validity is the appropriateness, meaningfulness and usefulness of specific inferences made from the instrument. Reliability is the degree of consistency that an instrument or procedure demonstrates (Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996).

A pilot test of the instrument was conducted using a group of heads and assistants in the Atwima district of Ashanti. These categories of heads were not

included in the actual study. Aspects of the pilot-testing included finding out whether the items were explicit enough to guide the participants to complete the questionnaire as accurately as possible. It was also to ensure that the questionnaire and the data collection procedures, among others, were appropriate to derive the best results when the actual study was conducted.

Validity Test

The design of the items in the questionnaire was based on the purpose of the study, the research questions, and the review of literature. To obtain high degree of validity, expert lecturers and colleagues of Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) of University of Cape Coast were contacted to assess the items and determine whether the items measure the intended purpose (face validity). Then again, the experts found out whether the items covered all the possible aspects of the research questions. They analysed the unclear and ambiguous items (content validity) and the extent to which the items measure specific construct (construct validity), (Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh, 1990). The examination of the items enabled the researcher to reconstruct, reshape and delete those items, which were found to be unclear, ambiguous and misleading.

Seventy-five items were written at first for questionnaire and observation checklist. The questionnaire was reduced to 49 items while the observation checklist was also reduced to eight items respectively. Items revised included the following:

- (1) I blocked time (set aside time whereby no visitor or telephone calls were accepted except for emergencies).
- (2) I reserved certain hours for drop-in visitors.

- (3) I used file with listed schedules to monitor delegation.
- (4) I discussed high priority task with my administrative personnel.

Some items which were deleted were:

- (a) I used electricity to enhance my work.
- (b) Minutes of each meeting was taken.
- (c) Each telephone message for me was written on separate sheets of paper.
- (d) Conference calls were used and others.

Reliability Test

A reliability test was then conducted using the Cronbach Alpha to determine the reliability of the questionnaire items for the main data. Almost all the items in the questionnaire were multiple scores and therefore, the Cronbach Alpha was considered appropriate to use. Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990) stated that Cronbach alpha is used when items have multiple scores (p. 235). The overall reliability estimates for the heads had a coefficient alpha of .79, which was above Wallen's (1979) rule of thumb of an alpha level of .60 and above as satisfactory enough for a set of items to form a composite.

Data Collection Procedure

The researcher presented the introductory letter obtained from the Director of the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) to the Ashanti Regional Director of Education to enable her gain permission to go to the schools to carry out the study. A letter obtained from the Regional Director introducing the

researcher and permitting her to have access to the schools was personally submitted to heads of the selected Senior Secondary schools.

In each school, the researcher personally contacted the participants who were the heads and their assistants and explained the purpose of the study to them after which copies of the questionnaire were handed over to them. The researcher established a cordial relationship with the participants which made them felt at home in responding to the questionnaire. The researcher moved from one school to another to administer the questionnaire to the participants for their completion by the participants and collected at a later date. To ensure that right responses were given, the researcher made herself available to explain the meaning of those items, which were not clear to the participants. In each of the 10 schools where observation was also conducted, the researcher spent two full days to administer the questionnaire to the participants and to observe the time management practices prevailing there. The researcher arrived in those schools by 7:15am on each visiting day to enable her observe and record all important activities relating to the study. The completed questionnaires were collected after two weeks.

Data Analysis Plan

Data from the completed questionnaire were edited for consistency. The open-ended items were categorised based on the responses given by the participants. Both categorised open-ended and closed-ended items were coded for entry into the computer using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). This was done by defining variables and keying in data. In analysing the data, two types of analysis were employed. The first involved the use of means, percentages and frequency tables to describe participants personal data and to answer research

questions one and two. The second was the use of inferential statistics such as correlation and multiple regressions to answer research questions three, four and five. The correlation was analysed to test for the significance of the relationships that existed between work behaviours, years of experience, training and time management practices. The regression analysis was performed to test for the significance of the regression coefficients that determined the effects of the work behaviours, years of experience, amount of training of heads on time management practices. The regression analysis was performed to find out the following: the best predictor of time management practices (dependent variables), the percentage of the dependent variables that can be explained by the independent variables, the contribution of each independent variable to the prediction and the significance results of each independent variable. All the correlations were tested at .05 significance level.

Data from the observation exercise were edited and assembled under each of the broad themes identified on time management practices and work behaviours. The time management practices and work behaviours observed in all the 10 schools were put together for analysis and description. This was to make it possible a confirmation on the responses from the questionnaire. The results were analysed manually and presented in narratives.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter deals with presentation, analysis and discussion of the field data on time management practices. The data was gathered from 150 participants, including 50 heads and 100 assistants in public Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region through questionnaire administration and observation. The interpretation of the data was done with the use of frequency tables, percentages, means and correlation and regression analyses.

The main aim of the study was to find out how heads of Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region manage official time. Independent variables such as work behaviours, years of experience and amount of training were examined for their relationships with time management practices.

This chapter has been grouped under five main areas. These are:

1. personal data of participants
2. work behaviours
3. time management practices
4. correlation analysis
5. regression analysis

Personal Data of Participants

The personal data of the participants such as sex, highest qualification, rank of heads, number of years of experience as head and amount of training received in time management were examined. The participants personal data were required to enable the researcher know the kind of participants used in the study and also to

find out whether the participants personal data had any effect on their time management practices. The first part of the analysis concerns the sex of the participants for the study. This is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Sex distribution of participants

Sex	N	%
Male	126	84
Female	24	16
Total	150	100

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006.

As indicated in Table 1, 84% of the heads in the selected Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region were males and 16% were females. Thus, from the data in Table 1, the majority of heads in Senior Secondary Schools are males. The finding is in line with the figures given by the Statistical Department of the Ashanti Regional Directorate in Kumasi where there are more male heads than female heads in Senior High Schools.

Highest Qualification

The highest qualification of participants was further analysed. This information was used to find out the level of education attained by heads. Table 2 presents responses given by participants on their qualifications.

Table 2

Highest qualification of heads and their assistants

Highest Qualification	N	%
Post Graduate	41	27.3
First Degree	107	71.3
Diploma	2	1.4
Total	150	100

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006.

Results from Table 2 reveal that majority of the heads involved in the study representing 71.3% were first degree holders while only 1.3% had diploma certificates. A little over 27% had post – graduate qualification. This means that almost all heads in Senior Secondary Schools have the basic qualification of first degree. This is in line with Ghana Education Service (G.E.S.) policy that every head of a Senior Secondary School should have minimum qualification of a bachelor’s degree.

Rank of Participants

In the teaching service in Ghana, the professional status of teachers is indicated by their rank. According to Ghana Education Service (G.E.S.) rules and regulations, every head of a Senior Secondary School should be an Assistant Director in order to be considered experienced enough to run the school more effectively. Table 3 presents the findings on the ranks of the heads who participated in the study.

Table 3

Rank of heads and their assistants

Rank	N	%
Assistant Director	137	91.3
Principal Superintendent	13	8.7
Senior Superintendent	0	0
Total	150	100

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006.

As presented in Table 3, the heads of Senior Secondary Schools involved in the study were of ranks that are in conformity with GES expectations. As high as 91.3% representing 137 heads in Senior Secondary Schools were Assistant Directors and only 8.7% were Principal Superintendents. Thus, from the analysis, the majority of heads are Assistant Directors who are considered to be experienced enough with respect to their rank.

Years of Experience

Another important aspect of personal data that was analysed was the number of years of experience heads involved in the study have gained in their present position in the respective Senior Secondary Schools. Table 4 displays the results on the years of experience of the participants.

Table 4

Years of experience as head or assistant

No. of years	N	%
Below 5 years	37	24.7
5 – 10 years	65	43.3
11 – 15 years	48	32.0
Total	150	100

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006.

Table 4 depicts the frequencies of the years of experience participants have gained in three categories. The largest percentage of heads (43.3%) had 5 – 10 years of experience while the next largest percentage of heads and assistants (32.0%) had over 11 years of experience.

The results show that the majority of heads have held the position for not less than five years and are expected to have the needed experience to control and supervise the activities of teachers, students and non-teaching staff in the school. This finding agrees with Gnaucky, Hoffman and Sherony (1987) that experience is one of the important factors that contribute to a manager's success in an organization. They were of the view that people who have worked for a considerable number of years have a broader knowledge, which enhances their effectiveness.

Amount of Training in Time Management Received

Table 5 is a summary of responses on time management training received by heads who participated in the study. The data was gathered to find out the amount of training received by heads in time management.

Table 5

Amount of training in time management

Scale	N	%
0 – 9 hours	22	14.7
10 – 19 hours	23	15.3
20 – 29 hours	42	28.0
30 – 39 hours	63	42.0
Total	150	100

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006.

Table 5 reveals that 42% of heads have received 30 – 39 hours of training in time management and 28% had 20 hours or more training. It is worthy of note that those who have received no training at all and those who have received one hour to nine hours of training in time management constituted 14.7% of heads. This implies that majority of heads of Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region have received between 30 hours and 39 hours of training in the area of time management. Carnahan, Gnauck, Hoffman and Sherony (1987) were of the view that the growth of every organization depends on a variety of factors including training, the resources and conditions that influence the day's activities. This is in line with the finding in Table 5. The training heads and assistants had received will ensure effectiveness in their administration.

Analysis of Main Data Based on Questionnaire

Research Question 1: What Work Behaviour do Heads of Senior Secondary Schools Commonly Exhibit?

This section deals with the analysis and discussion of the responses on the common work behaviour exhibited by heads in Senior Secondary Schools. Each participant chose from a four point-likert scale provided on the questionnaire to rate the frequency with which they use each of the work behaviours in conducting their work. Their rating options are 4 (very often), 3 (often), 2 (sometimes) and 1(never).

The discussion has been organized in harmony with the various behaviours emerging from the literature as follows:

- 1 Hopper behaviour
- 2 Allergic to detail behaviour
- 3 Fence sitter behaviour
- 4 Cliff.hanger behaviour
- 5 Perfectionist behaviour

Table 6 deals with responses that relate to the hopper behaviour. This represents the frequency of the occurrence of the various work behaviours.

Among the three items for the Hopper, working a lot of overtime to complete tasks that could be done during the day with a mean of 3.43 was common among the heads. Again, majority of the participants representing 34.7% reported that they “very often” handled several tasks at the same time. As much as 56% of the participants said that they “very often” moved from one task to another often not completing a task because of constant interruptions. As high as 54% of the participants indicated that they “very often” worked overtime to complete tasks.

This is in harmony with what the researcher observed. It was realized during the observation that heads reported to work before official time and stayed beyond closing time.

Table 6

Hopper behaviour

Item	Very often		Often		Sometimes		Never		Total		Mean
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
I handle several tasks at a time	52	34.7	47	31.3	39	26.0	12	8.0	150	100	2.93
I move from one task to another	84	56.0	36	24.0	24	16.0	6	4.0	150	100	3.32
I work overtime trying to complete tasks	81	54.0	55	36.7	11	7.3	3	2.0	150	100	3.43

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006

Overall mean =3.22

It could, therefore, be seen that heads and their assistants “very often” practised the hopper behaviour. This implies that the majority of the participants who participated in the study hop from one task to another in their work place due to constant interference and this prevents them from finishing the daily task scheduled. If school heads are not able to complete activities for the day they may not be able to plan ahead or take good decisions which in the long run can affect academic progress in the school. Schelenger and Roesch (1989) pointed out that those principals who operated as hoppers were distracted by visitors. The

distraction caused them to leave reports and other paperwork for the end of the day or the beginning of the next day and working on the weekend therefore is thus common. This is also in line with Robertson's (1990) finding that majority of principals were Hoppers.

The Allergic to details behaviour was also analysed. Table 7 displays the results.

Table 7

Allergic to details behaviour

Item	Very often		Often		Sometimes		Never		Total		Mean
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
I scan tasks quickly	57	38.3	75	50.0	12	8.0	6	4.0	150	100	3.22
I can remain Flexible	104	69.3	27	18.0	17	11.3	2	1.4	150	100	3.55
I seldom work overtime	12	8.0	22	14.7	34	22.7	82	54.6	150	100	1.76

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006

Overall mean = 2.84

Of all the allergic to detail behaviours, remaining flexible and open to events of the day was practised frequently with the highest mean of 3.55. Findings presented in Table 7 depict that a larger proportion (50%) of heads "often" scanned tasks quickly and allowed the staff to handle the routine details, and 4% claimed that they did not scan task quickly and did not leave the routine task to the staff.

Furthermore, over 104 participants representing 69.3% "very often" remained flexible and opened to events of the day and 1.4% indicated that they "never" did it. Again, over 54% of participants used in the study seldom worked

overtime and 22.7% of participants indicated “sometimes” for this behaviour. The results show that heads “often” used Allergic to detail behaviour. This means that heads are allergic to detail. They prefer leaving detailed work to subordinates than to perform them. Such behaviour may lead to a low quality of work by subordinates and the needed information to run the school may be lacking. Schelenger and Roesch (1989) observed that administrators with Allergic to detail behaviour miss some important details because they do not like work requiring too many details. They get a major task accomplished but avoid analyzing data.

Information in Table 8 provides responses of participants on Fence sitter behaviour. The scores are displayed below.

A close scrutiny of the scores in Table 8 indicates that pondering over decisions of others was frequently exhibited by heads with a mean of 3.19. A considerable number of participants representing 36% “very often” sought information from others when decisions were to be made and 3.4% said it was not done. Analysis from Table 8 again shows that 73 or 48.7% “very often” spent a lot of time to ponder over decisions of others and 18.7% of the participants “sometimes” spent time pondering over decisions of others. Only 5.3% did not spend time pondering over decisions of others.

Moreover, the scores show that 8% of the participants did not follow tried methods of others. As many as 72 participants (48%) “Often” followed tried methods of others and 25.3% said they “sometimes” did it.

Table 8

Fence sitter behaviour

Item	Very often		Often		Sometimes		Never		Total		Mean
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
I seek information before decisions are made	54	36.0	110	73.3	35	23.3	5	3.4	150	100	3.06
I ponder over decisions of others	73	48.7	114	76.0	28	18.7	8	5.3	150	100	3.19
I follow tried methods of others	28	18.7	72	48.0	38	25.3	12	8.0	150	100	2.77

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006

Overall mean = 2.89

The data revealed that heads and assistants “often” used Fence sitter behaviour. The implication is that heads with this type of work behaviour are more likely to waste official time when it comes to decision making since they rely on other people for concrete decisions to be made. This might result in delay in formulation and implementation of policies in the school, which can retard academic progress. Schelenger and Roesch’s (1989) study in America revealed that some administrators seldom take risks with innovations. They use a collection of ideas that may not reflect any consistent philosophy and often miss out favourable outcomes because they take so long to make a decision.

Cliff Hanger

Participants views were sought on Cliff hanger behaviour. Results are presented in Table 9.

Of all the items under cliff hanger behaviour, working overtime to meet deadlines was used most with a calculated mean of 3.26. From Table 9, 49.3% out of the 150 participants "very often" worked overtime to meet deadlines. Only four percent of the sample said they "never" worked overtime to meet deadlines. The finding is in harmony with the view expressed on hopper behaviour presented in Table 6. According to Table 6, working overtime to complete task that was started during the day was "very often" practised. If working overtime to complete task that was started during the day was common then one can say that the heads mostly work overtime to meet deadlines for important projects at the eleventh hour.

Results in Table 9 cover opinions of participants on whether they wait until the last minute and generally need outside pressure to complete a task. Sixty-five representing 43% of the participants confessed that they "often" waited until the last minute to complete a task, and 16 (4.0%) indicated "never" for this behaviour. One logical conclusion that could be drawn is that the heads and assistants wait until the last minute to complete tasks.

Another question asked was aimed at ascertaining whether heads involve others in their rush to finish task. According to Table 9, while 52% responded "often", 6.0% indicated that they never involved others in their rush to finish a task.

Table 9

Cliff hanger behaviour

Item	Very often		Often		Sometimes		Never		Total		Mean
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
I work overtime to meet dead-lines	74	49.3	47	31.3	23	15.3	6	4.0	150	100	3.26
I wait until the last minute	44	29.3	65	43.3	25	16.7	16	4.0	150	100	2.91
I involve others to finish a task	46	30.7	78	52.0	17	11.3	9	6.0	150	100	3.07

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006

overall mean = 2.85

It can be seen that heads "often" practised the Cliff hanger behaviour. This implies that heads wait till the last minute to work overtime to meet deadlines and also involve others in their rush to meet deadlines. This kind of behaviour is not likely to yield any good outcome and it will affect effective management of time as well as performance in the school. Schlenger and Roesch (1989) reason similarly when they maintained that cliff hangers are frustrated by the commotion of last minute rushing. They work to complete projects at the eleventh hour and try to employ other people in their rush to finish a work.

Perfectionist Behaviour Among Heads

Information was elicited from the participants on the perfectionist mode of managing time among school heads. Table 10 presents the results.

Table 10

Perfectionist behaviour

Item	Very often		Often		Sometimes		Never		Total		mean
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
I schedule my day to handle tasks	3	8.7	21	14.0	52	34.7	64	42.6	150	100	1.89
I work overtime trying to attend to details	70	46.7	49	32.7	24	16.0	7	4.7	150	100	3.21
I do things perfectly which keep me from completing tasks	77	51.3	34	22.7	26	17.3	13	8.7	150	100	3.17

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006.

Overall mean = 2.75

Working overtime to attend to details was frequently used among all the heads with the highest mean of 3.21. The scores displayed in Table 10 indicate that 42.6% of participants “never” scheduled their day to handle tasks.

About 34.7% indicated that they “sometimes” scheduled their day and 8.7% said, they “very often” scheduled the day and had few interruptions. About 46.7% of the

participants admitted that they “very often” worked overtime to attend to details, while 16% reported that they sometimes worked over time and 4.7% said they “never” did it.

Furthermore, while 51.3% of heads reported that trying to do things perfectly “very often” kept them from completing tasks, 8.7% expressed the view that trying to do things perfectly did not keep them from completing tasks. This means that some heads allocate time during official hours for routine tasks and, therefore, unexpected incidents are handled but such incidents did not drive the day and work is done perfectly so that details are not omitted. This is likely to result in managing official time effectively.

Rank Order of Work Behaviours

On question one of the study of work behaviours (see Appendix B) participants reported the work behaviours that were commonly exhibited by heads'. Table 11 provides the rank order of the work behaviours.

Findings in Table 11 show that heads used Hopper behaviour (Mean = 3.22 and standard deviation = .491) of managing time most frequently, followed by Fence sitter behaviour (Mean = 2.89 and standard deviation = .399), the Cliff hunger behaviour (Mean = 2.850 and standard deviation = .3524), the Allergic to details (Mean = 2.84 and standard deviation = .461) and lastly the Perfectionist behaviour as the least exhibited by heads (Mean = 2.75 and standard deviation = .543).

Table 11

Rank order of work behaviours

Behaviour	Score	Mean	Standard deviation
Hopper	483.76	3.22	.491
Fence sitter	434.75	2.89	.399
Cliff hanger	427.50	2.85	.352
Allergic to details	428.67	2.84	.461
Perfectionist	413.33	2.75	.543
Total	2815.92	14.57	1.12

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006

These findings support the nature of how busy heads are. These finding also support the notion that heads may not intentionally just move from task to task, but rather the nature of the job requires them to respond to teachers, parents and the community members very often, thus they frequently cannot complete a task that was started.

**Research Question 2: What Time Management Practices do Heads of Senior
Secondary Schools Mostly use**

Participants were asked a number of questions relating to the six categories of time management practices. They are analysed and discussed under the following sub-topics:

1. Scheduling contacts
2. Delegation
3. Managing meetings
4. Managing interruptions

5. Managing paperwork
6. Establishing priorities

Scheduling Contacts

Information was elicited from participants on their practices for scheduling contacts. This is presented in Table 12.

Table 12

Practices for scheduling contacts

Item	Very often		Often		Sometimes		Never		Total		Mean
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
Appointment for me are made through my secretary	4	2.7	23	15.3	25	16.7	98	65.3	150	100	1.55
My secretary protects me from walk-ins	7	4.7	17	11.3	58	38.7	68	45.3	150	100	1.75
A daily time is set for my return calls	3	2.0	11	7.3	51	34.0	85	56.7	150	100	1.55
I set time limits for all contacts	14	9.3	18	12.0	50	33.3	68	45.4	150	100	1.85

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006.

Overall mean = 1.67

Setting time limits for all contacts was mostly practised with the highest mean of 1.85. As displayed in Table 12, the majority of participants (65.3%) said that appointments were not made for them through their secretaries while 15.3%

representing 23 participants indicated that appointments for them were “often” made through their secretaries.

From the analysis it can be seen that people who visit the heads in the Senior Secondary Schools do not make appointment through the secretary. The results of the analysis confirm the observation made by the researcher that a lot of people just came to see the heads without making any prior appointment through their secretaries.

Further investigations to ascertain whether secretaries do protect the heads from walk-ins revealed that 45.3% of the heads said that their secretaries did not protect them from walk-ins. Over 38.7% said that they were “sometimes” protected from walk-ins and 16% also indicated that they were protected from walk-ins. The responses of the heads together with the observations made by the researcher go to strengthen the fact that majority of the school secretaries do not protect the heads from walk-in.

Again, 85 participants (56.7%) reported that they did not set aside a daily time for returning telephone calls. Just over 51 or 34% of heads responded that they “sometimes” did that. Only 3(2.0%) reported that they “very often” set a daily time for returning calls. The analysis further shows that nearly 9.3% of the participants “very often” set time limits for contacts such as meetings, conferences, seminars, durbars and phone conversations. A little over 45% responded that they did not set time limits for contacts and 50 (33.3%) indicated that they “sometimes” did that. This means that majority of the heads do not set time limits for contacts.

It could be deduced from the analysis that majority of the heads do not apply this basic practice, and there is the likelihood that a lot of man-hours may be lost. This finding is in line with the finding in a study conducted by Kmetz and

Willower (1982) in America on principals work management style. They found out that over 86% of the principals activities and more than 70% of their time were spent on personal contacts with 80% of their time spent on phone each day. This finding also agrees with that of Mackenzie (1972) in which it was found that 90% of school principals use the phone each day, while 40% of them spend more than two hours per day on phone.

Delegation of Duties

Delegation of duties is one of the administrative practices by which the use of time can either be properly managed or wasted. The heads expressed their views on how they practise delegation. The results are presented in Table 13.

Among the items under delegation of duties, staff knowing those assign delegated duties was frequently practised by heads with a calculated mean of 3.03. As shown in Table 13, 74(49.4%) participants indicated that their secretaries "sometimes" knew those to whom certain duties were delegated and used that information to distribute letters while 33(22 %) indicated that their secretaries "often" knew those to whom certain responsibilities were delegated and used that information to distribute letters and other information. Only 13.3% admitted that their secretaries were "never" aware of this. Thus, for the majority of the heads their secretaries do not always know those to whom certain responsibilities are delegated to make direct contacts.

On the other hand 40% of the heads reported that their staff members "often" knew those to whom certain responsibilities were delegated and only 2.7% confessed that their staffs did not know those to whom certain responsibilities were delegated.

Table 13

Practices for delegation of duties

Item	Very often		Often		Sometimes		Never		Total		Mean
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
My Secretary knows those to whom I delegate certain responsibilities	23	15.3	33	22.0	74	49.4	20	13.3	150	100	2.39
Deadlines are set when I delegate	10	6.7	11	7.3	59	49.4	70	46.7	150	100	1.74
My staff know to whom certain responsibilities are delegated	49	32.7	60	40.0	37	24.7	4	2.7	150	100	3.03
I use a file with listed schedules to monitor delegation	7	4.7	22	14.7	35	23.3	86	57.3	150	100	1.67

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006.

Overall mean = 2.20

This confirms the observation made by the researcher. It was realized during the observation that teachers were assigned minor duties to perform. Those teachers had their names and respective roles pasted in the staff common room for the information of all others.

Majority of the participants (46.7%) conceded that they were unable to set deadlines when they delegated duties. Only 10(6.7%) said that they “very often” gave deadlines when they delegated. This means that majority of the heads do not give a period within which delegated duties are to be completed.

Then again, approximately 57% of the participants admitted that they did not use a file with listed schedules to monitor delegation. Only 4.7% of them reported that they “very often” monitored delegation by using a file with listed schedules. This analysis means that a great number of heads do not monitor delegated duties by using a file with listed schedules. The observation made by the researcher confirms this finding that heads hardly supervised delegated duties. Those assigned delegated duties were not given specific time to complete work.

It could be inferred from the discussion that supervision of delegated duties is not properly practised. The general implication is that when subordinates are not given a time frame to finish work and they are also not supervised, quality of work may not be achieved. There is also the likelihood that the work would not be finished at the right time with lots of work left outstanding, and it might lead to ineffective use of time. Winston (1983) recommended that principals give a specific time that delegations are due. Bimbrose (1987) stated that decisions are best made at the lowest level and therefore, subordinates should be assigned certain roles to play to enable them come out with rich decisions.

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Then again, approximately 57% of the participants admitted that they did not use a file with listed schedules to monitor delegation. Only 4.7% of them reported that they "very often" monitored delegation by using a file with listed schedules. This analysis means that a great number of heads do not monitor delegated duties by using a file with listed schedules. The observation made by the researcher confirms this finding that heads hardly supervised delegated duties. Those assigned delegated duties were not given specific time to complete work.

It could be inferred from the discussion that supervision of delegated duties is not properly practised. The general implication is that when subordinates are not given a time frame to finish work and they are also not supervised, quality of work may not be achieved. There is also the likelihood that the work would not be finished at the right time with lots of work left outstanding; and it might lead to ineffective use of time. Winston (1983) recommended that principals give a specific time that delegations are due. Bimbrose (1987) stated that decisions are best made at the lowest level and therefore, subordinates should be assigned certain roles to play to enable them come out with rich decisions.

Practices for Managing Meetings

Proper management of meetings is a skill of time management that can result in efficiency in administration. Therefore, the researcher attempted to investigate how meetings are managed. Data in Table 14 cover responses of participants on whether meetings are effectively managed.

As shown in Table 14 below, 54% of the participants said it was not only staff members affected by a decision who were involved in a meeting. However, 11.3% of the heads responded that they "often" involved only staff members affected by a decision in a meeting. Thus, from the analysis, majority of heads do

not involve only staff members who are affected by a decision in meetings. This is contrary to what the researcher observed during the observation. It was found out that all staff members were invited to every meeting irrespective of the agenda. The implication is that a lot of time, which could have been used for different activities, would be wasted at the meeting by those who are not affected by the decision and planned activities would not be completed.

Similarly majority of the participants (51.3%) reported that they did not set general time limits for meetings. Only 6.0% reported that they "very often" set general time limits for meetings. This result implies that majority of heads do not give a period within which meetings should end with the likelihood of some of them being prolonged.

Meetings, which are prolonged end up not being fruitful and the implementation of the decision taken at the meeting, may not be successful. No wonder, only 25.3% agreed that they "often" start and end meetings on time. The majority of heads (56 %) only "sometimes" start and end meeting on time. It was realized during the observation that almost all the seven schools visited which had meetings, could not start at the said time. They were late between 15 to 30 minutes and the meetings went beyond the stipulated time. Weldy (1974) asserted that meetings, which last longer than one and half hours, lose their effectiveness.

It is revealed in Table 14 that 38% of participants "often" informed the staff of the purpose of each meeting one-day ahead. Only 3.3% of participants reported that they did not make their staff aware of the purpose of their meetings before they start. Making staff aware of the purpose of meetings ahead of time enables the staff to prepare in advance and come out with rich contributions to enhance the running of the school.

Table 14

Practices for managing meetings

Items	Very often		Often		Some- times		Never		Total		Mean
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
Only staff affected by a decision Time limits are set	6	4.0	17	11.3	46	30.7	81	54.0	150	100	1.65
Meetings start and end on time	10	6.7	38	25.3	84	56.0	18	12.0	150	100	2.27
Purpose of each meeting is known	40	26.7	57	38.0	48	32.0	5	3.3	150	100	2.88
Agenda is distri- buted a day ahead	14	9.3	18	12.0	44	29.3	74	49.4	150	100	1.81

Source: Computer From Field Data, 2006

Overall mean = 2.06

This assertion is collaborated by Shipman, Martin, McKay and Anastasi (1987) that the purpose of a meeting should be stated in writing and distributed to prospective participants well in advance whenever possible.

In a follow up question as to whether an agenda of each meeting is distributed at least one day prior to the meeting. Only 14 (9.3%) indicated that they "very often" distributed an agenda of each meeting at least one day prior to the meeting. The majority (49.4%) reported that they did not distribute an agenda of each meeting a day prior to the start. This analysis shows that heads do not manage meetings by using this basic practice. The researcher realized during the observation that an agenda of a meeting was written on the notice board in the classroom on that very day when the meeting was to take place. It cannot be denied that if the staff members do not get the agenda at least a day before the meeting, the effectiveness of the whole meeting may not be achieved.

This finding thus goes contrary to the assertion made by Winston (1983) that the agenda should be distributed at least a day in advance and should include desired objectives of the meeting to allow the best use of limited time. Weldy (1974) also said that school administrators follow the prepared agenda with stated objectives, unless the group agrees that more pressing items are warranted.

Managing Interruptions

Interruption is a real situation in the administration of Senior Secondary Schools. Information in Table 15 shows how heads manage interruptions in schools.

Of all the items under interruptions, walk-ins dominated with a mean of 3.56. An overwhelming 72% of the participants acknowledged that they were "very often" interrupted daily by walk-ins. Only one participant never experienced

this. This result means that visitors often interrupt Senior Secondary heads, which is likely to result in their inability to complete the planned activities for the day and also make them unable to meet deadlines. The researcher saw this practice during the observation and realized that heads entertained between 15- 30 visitors during official hours and they spent between 5-25 minutes on each visitor. This finding is in line with a study conducted by Tanner et al. (1991) in which they found out that about 38% of school administrators activities were interrupted by visitors. Only 16% of the participants in their attempt to reduce interruptions “very often” walked around the school compound to make contact with students and teachers. The majority (59.3%) only “sometimes” toured or walked around their school compound to make contact with students and teachers.

A close look at the record reveals that generally heads only sometimes practise walking around the school compound to interact with students and teachers. The implication is that heads may not always get the full knowledge of what is happening in the classrooms so that they can address serious matters affecting the school. The observation made by the researcher confirms this finding. It was observed that heads were not visiting the classrooms to interact with teachers and students. The teachers and students rather visited the heads in their various offices for their problems to be solved. Anton (1993) stated that school administrators should understand the people in their school compound and plan to be available to receive them.

Furthermore, a large proportion of heads (64.6%) admitted that they did not reserve certain hours to receive drop-in visitors. This result shows that allocating time to entertain drop-in visitors is not practised by heads and visitors are allowed

to see them at anytime which could sway them from focusing on important schedules.

Table 15

Practices for managing interruptions

Item	Very often		Often		Sometimes		Never		Total		Mean
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
I am interrupted daily by walk-ins	108	72.0	19	12.7	22	14.7	1	7	150	100	3.56
I tour around my school compound	19	12.7	34	22.7	89	59.3	3	2.0	150	100	2.53
I reserve certain hours for visitors	22	14.7	34	22.7	43	28.7	97	64.6	150	100	1.42
I block time except for emergency	1	0.7	13	8.7	75	50.0	35	23.3	150	100	1.87

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006.

Overall mean = 2.42

In a follow-up question as to whether time is blocked daily whereby no visitors or telephone calls are accepted except for emergencies, about 50% of the participants responded that they “sometimes” blocked time whereby no visitors or telephone calls were welcomed except for emergencies and 32.3% also said that they never blocked time. Only 8.7% of them “often” blocked time daily for this

Table 16

Managing paperwork

Item	Very often		Often		Sometimes		Never		Total		Mean
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
A daily block of time is set for administrative paperwork	2	1.3	27	18.0	70	47.0	53	35.0	150	100	1.84
A report log is kept to monitor all reports	10	6.7	27	18.0	33	22.0	90	60.0	150	100	1.65
I return most paperwork to my Secretary	14	9.3	32	21.3	41	27.4	77	51.3	150	100	1.79
I use the computer to generate my correspondence	5	3.3	16	10.6	22	14.7	11	7.4	150	100	1.39

Source: Computed From Field Data, 20056.

Overall mean = 1.66

To a question as to whether heads keep a log to monitor reports from all departments and staff members or not, only 6.7% indicated that they "very often" kept a report log to monitor reports from the school. Sixty percent of participants responded that they did not keep such a log to monitor reports from the departments and staff members. It could be deduced from this finding that heads in Senior Secondary Schools generally do not use this practice of keeping a log to monitor reports from the school. This analysis agrees with Robertson (1999) who found out in her study that 17.0% of school principals kept a log to check reports from the various departments in the school.

Table 16 further reveals that 77(51.3%) of participants did not return most paperwork to their secretaries with instruction and retain only those items requiring further thoughts while 9.3% reported doing this "very often". This means that heads generally do not allow their secretaries to do most of the paperwork for them. This will mean that the heads do the paperwork themselves and this prevents them from having enough time to edit the work and also supervise other activities in the school.

When the heads were asked whether they use computer to generate their correspondence, 74.7% of them conceded that they "never" did so. Only 3.3% reported that they "very often" used the computer to generate correspondence. This implies that heads generally do not use the computers themselves for their work. The observation made by the researcher during her visits to the schools confirms this result. It was realized that majority of the heads were not using the computers themselves. They depended on their secretaries for all the computer work. Some heads did not even have the computers. This finding is in contrast with the assertion made by Shipman et al. (1987) that administrators need to generate their own correspondence from personal computers, making editing with spell check and grammar check an easy task. Rowan (1978) shared a similar view when he pointed out that school administrators need to use computers to enable them use their time more efficiently and thus have more time to do what they intend to do.

It could be inferred from the analysis that majority of heads do not use computers for their office work and this will not enable them to enjoy the benefits of using the computer such as greater efficiency and time saving. This may be due to lack of knowledge in using the computer. Also, managing paperwork is never practised by most heads. The implication is that responding to letters and other

activities in the school is likely not to be done properly and in a timely manner. Winston (1983) asserted that paper mismanagement could cripple school administrators ability to function effectively.

Establishing Priorities

Opinions on how priorities were established by heads to ensure effectiveness in their administration were elicited from participants. The results are shown in Table 17 below.

Whereas only 9 of the participants, representing (6%), reported that they "very often" "maintained a To-Do" list, the majority of the heads 76 (50.7%) said they did not "maintain a To-Do" list. This result implies that the heads generally do not write down activities to be carried out. Many authors (Mayer 1995; Schlenger and Roesch, 1983) have pointed out that school administrator should "maintain a To-Do" list on a sheet or on the computer where daily priorities can be analysed at the beginning and at the end of the day. The fact that the heads generally do not maintain a "to-do" list could imply that more important tasks may not be accomplished.

On the question as to whether daily activities are linked to school priorities, 117(78%) reported that their daily activities were "often" linked to school priorities while 33(22%) of the participants claimed that their daily activities were "sometimes" linked to school priorities. This finding shows that majority of heads often do this. The finding is in harmony with the observation made by Anton (1993) that school principals know how to link daily priorities to school priorities. Robertson (1998) confirmed this finding as over 87.0% of the priorities of principals were linked to school priorities.

Table 17

Establishing priorities

Item	Very often		Often		Sometimes		Never		Total		Mean	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	
I												
maintain	9	6.0	33	22.0	41	27.3	76	50.7	150	100	1.77	
a "TO												
DO" list												
My daily	39	26.0	117	78.0	33	22.0	0	0	150	100	3.04	
activities												
are												
linked to												
school												
priorities												

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006.

Overall mean = 2.51

A follow up question attempted to find out when heads establish priorities.

Findings are presented in Table 18.

More than two-thirds (67.3%) of the heads indicated that their tasks were prioritised daily. There were 6.7% participants who prioritised tasks monthly. The analysis implies that prioritising a task is mostly done daily by heads. This idea is not in line with Covey et al (1994), when they indicated that prioritising tasks should be done weekly.

The scores displayed in Table 18 indicate that 45 participants, representing 30%, discussed high priority tasks with their staff 'daily', while 8.7% discussed high priority tasks with staff 'weekly'. A little over 42% discussed priority task with their staff monthly. It could be inferred from the analysis that majority of heads discuss priority task with their staff monthly.

Table 18

Prioritising tasks

Item	Daily		Weekly		Monthly		Termly		Total		Mean N
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
I prioritise my tasks	101	67.3	24	16.0	10	6.7	15	10	150	100	3.42
I discuss priority task with my staff	45	30.0	13	8.7	63	42.0	29	19.3	150	100	1.82

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006.

Overall mean = 2.51

Item 51 under section D requested participants to suggest ways and means of improving the use of official time in Senior Secondary Schools in Ashanti Region. Again, it must be noted that participants views were varied and the researcher deduced their views and grouped them among seven common suggestions. The following suggestions were common: The largest number 22.6% of the participants expressed the view that heads should not prolong meetings so that other activities could be covered. The next largest number 21.3% out of the 150 participants suggested that specific periods that would be appropriate to receive visitors could be pasted on the notice board to reduce the flow of visitors at anytime.

A little over 15% of the participants stressed that heads could assign minor and routine duties to staff members to perform in order for heads to concentrate on more important activities. A little below 15% suggested that there should be a time limit for making and receiving calls and that heads should not interrupt themselves with personal calls.

About 17% said that heads should report to work on time and stay till closing so that activities for the day could be completed. Around seven percent mentioned that activities to be carried out should be written down according to order of importance and strictly adhered to. Lastly, about 3% stated that tasks should be completed within a specific time frame.

Rank Order of Time Management Practices

On the research question two of the survey of time practices, participants indicated time management practices that were mostly used by heads. Table 19 presents the rank order.

Table 19

Rank order of time management practices

Practices	Scores	Means	Std deviation
Priorities	377.00	2.51	.513
Interruption	363.75	2.42	.403
Delegation	331.00	2.20	.436
Meetings	509.60	2.06	.460
Contacts	251.50	1.67	.574
Paperwork	250.25	1.66	.536
Total	1883.10	12.55	1.830

Findings in Table 19 indicate that heads used establishing priorities with the highest (Mean =2.51 and standard deviation =.513) of managing work most often, followed by interruption practices (Mean =2.42 and standard deviation =.403), delegation practices (Mean =2.20 and standard deviation =.436), meeting

practices (Mean = 2.06, standard deviation =.460), contact practices (Mean = 1.67 and standard deviation =.574) and lastly paperwork practices as the least used by heads (Mean =1.66 standard =.536).

Correlation Analysis

Research Question 3: What is the relationship between the work behaviours of heads and their use of time management practices?

Correlation analysis of the six time management practices and the five work behaviours used by heads was conducted. Table 20 presents the results.

Table 20

Pearson correlation analysis of time management practices and heads work behaviours

Time Management Practices	Work Behaviours									
	Hopper		Allergic to Detail ⁹²		Fence Sitter		Cliff Hanger		Perfectionist	
	R	Sig	R	Sig	R	Sig	R	Sig	R	Sig
Scheduling contacts	.033	.689	.071	.390	.014	.866	-.040	.626	-.137	.095
Delegation	.197*	.016	-.059	.475	.406**	.000	-.031	.704	-.012	.884
Managing meetings	.298**	.000	-.224	.767	.177*	.030	.031	.706	-.105	.200
Handling interruptions	-.169*	.039	.057	.487	-.205*	.012	-.147	.073	.049	.555
Managing paperwork	.270**	.001	-.029	.724	.187*	.022	-.016	.847	-.117	.154
Establishing Priorities	.219**	.007	-.074	.369	.222**	.006	-.066	.425	-.139	.090

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006.

*Correlation is significant at 0.05 level (two-tailed testing)

There was no significant relationship between contact practices and work behaviours. No significant relationship existed between Allergic to detail, Cliff hanger, Perfectionist behaviours and time management practices.

At the alpha level of .05, delegation practices and hopper behaviour correlated at a low coefficient of (.197). The significance level of .016 was lower than the alpha level .05 (.197, $P \leq .05$). The result of the correlation indicated that there was a positive relationship between delegation and hopper behaviour. The inference that can be drawn from this is that heads, who demonstrate the characteristics of hopper behaviour when managing work, are likely not to use delegation practices.

Again, a positive relationship was found between delegation and fence sitter behaviour. The relationship was significant at .000, which was less than .05 alpha level. The correlation coefficient .406 indicated a moderate relationship (.406, $P \leq .05$). This implies that heads with characteristics of fence sitter behaviour in managing schools are likely not to make decisions regarding delegations.

At the alpha level of .05 only two work behaviours correlated with managing meetings. These were hopper and fence sitter behaviours. Meetings correlated with hopper with a low coefficient of .298. The correlation was positive and significant. The significance level .000 was less than the alpha level .05, (.298, $P \leq .05$). This implies that heads who are hoppers and move from task to task because of constant interruptions are more likely to use practices for managing meetings less effectively.

Also, meetings correlated with fence sitter behaviour with a weak coefficient of (.177). The result showed that the correlation was positive and

significant at .030, which was less than the alpha level of .05 (.177, $P \leq .05$). This means that heads who are fence sitters and cannot easily make a decision about an issue are more likely to use the practices of managing meetings ineffectively such as sending out an agenda ahead of time, following up an action to be taken after meetings, and distributing minutes at the end of a meeting.

The correlation result from Table 20 revealed that there was negative relationship between managing interruptions and hopper behaviour with a low correlation coefficient of -.169. The relationship was found to be significant at .039 level, which was lower than the alpha level of .05 (-.169, $P \leq .05$). The result showed an inverse relationship between the two variables. This means that heads who exhibit the characteristics of hopper behaviour when working are less likely to use interruptions practices such as scheduling appointments for visitors and telephone calls effectively.

Table 20 again showed an inverse relationship between interruptions and the fence sitter behaviour. At the alpha level of .05, fence sitter correlated with interruptions with a low correlation coefficient of (-.205). The significance level, .002 was less than the alpha .05 (-.205, $P \leq .05$). The relationship was negative but statistically significant. This implies that heads, who display the characteristics of fence sitter behaviour at work, are less likely to manage interruptions. That is, heads who wait and depend on tried methods of others are less likely to have time to control routine visitors and unwelcome calls. Fence sitters do not make decisions concerning interruptions.

Further analysis from Table 20 proved that there was a statistically significant relationship between practices for managing paperwork and fence

sitter behaviour with a low positive correlation coefficient of .368 at the alpha level of .05. The P- value of .022 was less than the alpha (.187, $P \leq .05$). This means that the heads who become fence sitters, are unable to manage paperwork, such as setting a daily time to review paperwork, giving part of the paperwork to the secretary to do, using the computer to write and edit reports and letters.

Also, the Table indicated a positive relationship between managing paperwork and hopper behaviour. The correlation indicated a low coefficient of .290 at the alpha level of .05. The P- value .000 was lower than .05 alpha level therefore, the relationship was significant. (.290, $P \leq .05$). This implies that heads who show more characteristics of hopper behaviour when working are unable to use paperwork practices.

Further, the correlation results from Table 20 revealed that at the alpha level of .05, two work behaviours correlated significantly with practices for priorities. These were hopper and fence sitter behaviours.

There was statistically significant and positive relationship between hopper behaviour and priorities. The relationship was found to be weak with a correlation coefficient of (.219). The P- value of .007 was less than the alpha .05 which showed a significant relationship (.219, $P \leq .05$). This implies that heads displaying the characteristics of hopper behaviour are unable to establish priorities. That is, heads who leave tasks unfinished are more likely not to prioritise tasks. Additionally, priorities and fence sitter correlated with a low positive coefficient of (.222). The P- value of .006 was less than the alpha level .05, which indicated that the relationship was significant (.222, $P \leq$

.05). The inference that can be drawn is that the heads who feel reluctant to make decisions are likely to be unable to prioritise work. It can be deduced from the above discussions that work behaviours are related to how heads managed time in the schools to achieve the set goals.

Research Question 4: Is there any relationship between heads use of time management practices and their years of experience as heads?

An attempt was made to show the relationship between time management practices and number of years of experience as head or assistant. Table 21 presents the findings.

Table 21

Pearson correlation analysis of time management practices and years of experience

	Time Management Practices	Years of Experience
Time Management Practices		
Correlation	1	.290**
Sig (2-tailed)	-	.000
N	150	150
Years of Experience		
Correlation	.290**	1
Sig (2-tailed)	.000	-
N	150	150

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006.

*Correlation is significant at 0.05 (two- tailed testing)

Table 21 indicated that there was a positive relationship between time management practices and years of experience. The computed correlation

coefficient was low at .290. The P-value of .000 was less than .05 alpha level, which indicated that the relationship was significant (.290, $P \leq .05$). This means that heads with more years of work experience are likely to use the time management practices such as delegating tasks to staff, ending meetings at stipulated time, prioritizing activities, setting aside a day to receive drop-in visitors and setting aside a time daily for writing and responding to letters more effectively. It can be deduced that years of experience is related to time management. This is in line with Carnahan et al (1987) that people who have worked a number years have broader knowledge which enhances their use of time.

Research Question 5: What relationship exists between heads use of time management practices and their training in time management?

A correlation analysis was conducted between time management practices and amount of training received by heads and assistants. The analysis was to find out whether a relationship exists between these two variables. Table 22 presents the results.

Table 22

Pearson correlation analysis of time management practices and training

	Time Management Practices	Amount of Training
Time Management Practices		
Correlation	1	.166*
Significance (2-tailed)	-	.042
N	150	150
Amount of Training		
Correlation	.166*	1
Significance (2-tailed)	.042	-
N	150	150

Source: Computed From Field Data, 2006

*Correlation is significant at 0.05 level (two-tailed testing)

The total time management score was also correlated with the mean score of training in time management through the use of the Pearson moment correlation. The computed correlation coefficient was .166. The relationship was found to be positive and significant with a P- value of .000, which was lower than .05 alpha level. This indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship (although not strong) between total time management score and the amount of training heads received in time management. This implies that heads who have received training in the area of time management, are more likely to use time management practices effectively. Thus, the amount of training heads receive in time management is significantly related to their use of official time in schools. Robertson (1998) agrees with this

finding that people who have had training in time management tend to use their time more effectively.

Predictors of Time Management Practices

Multiple regression analysis on independent variables predicting overall time management practices

The study sought to find out how well the independent variables predict overall time management practices of the heads in the Ashanti Region. A multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to reveal the extent of the relationship. Table 23 presents the results.

In Table 23 the unstandardized coefficient B shows the effect size of the independent variables. The standard error means that each value of the different variables has been converted to the same scale, so that they can be compared. The standardized coefficient Beta explains the contribution of each variable to the prediction of the dependent variable, the t evaluates the significance of the difference of B and the Beta while the alpha level Sig explains whether each variable is making a statistically significant unique contribution to the equation.

Table 23

**Results of regression analysis on independent variables predicting overall
time management practices**

Model	Unstandardized		Standardized		t	Sig.
	Coefficient		Coefficient			
	B	Std Error	Beta			
Included variables						
(Constant)	17.934	3.186			5.629	.000
Hopper (x ₁)	-.111	.363	-.030		-.307	.759
Allergic to						
detail(x ₂)	-.444	.311	-.111		-1.428	.156
Fence sitter (x ₃)	-.370	.567	-.087		-.652	.516
Cliff hanger (x ₄)	-.570	.372	-.119		-1.534	.127
Perfectionist (x ₅)	-.247	.269	-.073		-.916	.361
Years of						
Experience (x ₆)	.471	.224	.193		2.101	.037
Training (x ₇)	-.906	.324	-.422		-2.794	.006

Source: Computed from field Data, 2006.

The predictors were determined by using the multiple regression analysis with significance levels of .037 and .006. It is shown in Table 23 that only the coefficients of years of experience (.193) and training (-.422) were significant. This means that when all the seven predictors were considered only two variables were found to contribute significantly to the regression equation even though significant correlations were obtained.

The regression equation is given as:

$$Y = C + B_1 X_1 + B_2 X_2 + B_3 X_3 + B_4 X_4 + B_5 X_5 + B_6 X_6 + B_7 X_7 + E$$

Y=Time management practices

predictor of time management practices exhibited by heads of Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region. It is being described as the overall best predictor due to its effects on the use of time management practices. The independent variables such as hopper (-030), fence sitter (-087), allergic to details (-111), cliff hanger (-119) and perfectionist (-073) behaviours are described as bad predictors since their values were negative did not make any significant contribution to the prediction.

As to how much of the variance in the overall time management practices (Y) is explained by the scores on each of the independent variables, the multiple regression equation was performed. Both dependent and independent variables were put into the equation. The results are presented in Table 24.

Table 24

Model summary

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.456	.208	.169	1.67391

Source: Computed from field Data, 2006

- a) Predictors: (constant), Years of experience, Training, Hopper, Allergic to detail, Cliff hanger, Fence sitter and Perfectionist.
- b) Dependent variable: Overall time management practices in the Ashanti Region.

Table 24 contains (R), R² tells how much of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variables, and Adjusted R corrects the overestimation of the true value in the population to provide a better estimate and the standard error of the estimate.

From Table 24 in the model summary, R^2 of .208 indicates that 20.8% of the variance in the overall time management practices is explained by the independent variables. A unit change in the independent variables will improve the use of time by the average of 20.8%.

Simple Regression Analysis on Gender Predicting Overall Time

Management Practices

A simple linear regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how well gender predicted overall time management practices. Findings are provided in Table 25.

Table 25

Results of regression analysis on gender predicting overall time management practices

Model	Unstandardized		Standardized		t	Sig.
	Coefficient		Coefficient			
	B	Std Error	Beta			
Included variables (Constant)	12.513	.164			76.324	.000
Gender	.256	.410	.051		.624	.534

Source: Computed from field Data, 2006
Dependent variable: Total time management practices

Simple regression analysis was used to determine whether gender predicts overall time management practices with significance level of .534. From Table 25, it is clear that the coefficient of gender is not significant. This means that gender did not contribute significantly to the regression.

The regression equation is given as $Y = C + BX + E$

Y= Time management practices

C= Constant

X= Gender

B= Beta contribution

The SPSS output is given as $Y = 12.513 + (.256x.051)$. The equation means that gender could not predict time management practices. The 't' at .534 is not significant because the 't' obtained from the data .624 is below the critical 't'. Thus, coefficient of gender has no effect on the regression equation. Gender is described as bad predictor since it did not contribute significantly to the prediction.

In finding out how much variance in the overall time management practices (Y) is explained by gender, the simple regression was conducted. The result is shown in Table 26.

Table 26

Model summary

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.051	.003	-.004	1.84031

Source: Computed from field Data, 2006

a) Predictor : (constant), Gender

b) Dependent variable : Overall time management practices

From Table 26 in the model summary, R has a value of .051 and because there is only one predictor, this value represents the simple correlation between gender and time management practices. The value of R² is .003, which tells that gender can account for 0.3% of the variance in time management practices. There might be many factors that can explain this

variation but the model which includes only gender can explain 0.3% of the variance. This means that 99.7% of the variation in time management practices cannot be explained by gender. Therefore, there must be other variables that have influence also. The significance level (.534) is more than .05 therefore the result does not reflect a genuine effect.

Observation Results

This section provides the results of data gathered from the observation of 10 out of 50 Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region involved in the study.

An observation guide was designed to enable the researcher observe specific activities including:

1. the number of drop-in visitors;
2. the time meetings start and end;
3. the number of times heads visit the school compound;
4. the use of computers by heads;
5. distribution of meeting agenda a day before the meeting;
6. involvement of teachers in every meetings;
7. working overtime;
8. delegation of routine activities.

Drop-in Visitors

Visitor interruption was common in all the schools visited. The doors of the heads were opened to anybody who wanted to see them. It was observed that the visitors just come and leave at anytime, from the beginning of school

Time Meetings Start and End

Regarding the start and ending of meeting, the researcher observed that there was not a single school in the 10 schools visited that the meetings did not go beyond the stipulated time. The excess time was between 15 minutes and 30 minutes. In one school, the meeting started immediately after second break, which was 12.30pm and ended at 4pm after the school has closed. It was observed that the actual time to start meetings was sometimes stated and followed but meetings were closed after all points have been exhausted.

Involvement of Staff in Meetings

It was observed in five out of the 10 schools visited that all teachers were involved in every meeting held in the school whether the meetings concerned a particular group of teachers or not. In one school, a meeting was held and it concerned only the entertainment committee but all teachers were made to attend the meeting. The same thing happened in another school where a meeting, which should have involved only the disciplinary committee members, involved all the teachers. This practice could, therefore, lead to misuse of official time in the school.

Distribution of Meeting Agenda

One other area of concern was the distribution of meeting agenda a day prior to the meeting. The researcher observed that the heads do not distribute any meeting agenda to staff before the meeting. Some only write on the staff notice board to inform members of an incoming meeting. It was only two schools where the researcher saw the agenda also written on the board. As a

general practice observed it was at the meeting where the agenda was read to the staff. This practice is not likely help the staff to prepare and contribute effectively enough to the discussions during the meetings. The staff may not be able to give good contributions as they were not given the time to think of the agenda ahead of time.

The Number of Times Heads Visit the School Compound

The researcher further observed that generally the heads do not visit the school compound to interact with students and teachers. Obviously the heads do not have first hand knowledge of what is actually taking place in the classrooms. The picture was, however, not the same in one school that was visited where the head visited the school compound and talked to some of the students and teachers once every week. He visited the dining hall during breakfast although the dining hall masters were present. If heads do not visit the school compound some important information may not reach them to enable them to react at the appropriate time.

Use of Computers by Heads

On the use of computers, it was found out that generally the heads do not use computers themselves. It was in two out of the 10 schools visited where the heads were using computers. In almost all the schools, secretaries were using computers with the exception of three schools where the researcher noted that the secretaries were still using the old typewriter machines. The secretaries do all the work for the heads, and sometimes due to the large volume of work the secretaries could not finish on time. The heads also take a

lot of time to edit the work and this wastes time because time, which could have been used for other activities, would be spent on only one activity.

Working Overtime

During the visits to the schools, the researcher often arrived at each school as early as 6.30 in the morning and left at 5.0'clock in the evening. Surprisingly, heads were seen working early in the morning when the researcher got to the schools, before the official time of 7.30 in the morning. It was observed that the heads do not leave school after closing at 2.30pm. Heads stayed behind and worked till 5.0'clock in the evening. Thus, overtime in Senior Secondary Schools in Ashanti is real and is vigorously practised by heads'.

Delegation of Routine Duties

It was observed during the visits that staff members were assigned duties to perform in the school. Some were form masters who were in charge of the classes; others were disciplinary committee members who dealt with issues that cropped up in their areas. They had been empowered to solve all problems except those which were beyond their control, and such problems were referred to the heads to handle. In one school two students went to town during classes without exeat and they were caught on their way back by the housemaster. The housemaster sent the students to school and punished them by giving a portion of the school field to them to weed. In another school, three students went and smoked Indian hemp and were caught by a senior prefect. The students were made to appear before the disciplinary committee.

The committee invited the head and the final decision reached was the dismissal of the students involved.

Staff members who have been delegated to perform certain duties have their names and the type of duties to perform pasted in the staff common room for the information of all staff members. It could be deduced from the observation that delegation of routine duties was effective and this practice could lead to good time management practices.

Summary of Observation Results

The observation conducted in the 10 selected schools revealed some salient points about time management practices in Senior Secondary Schools in Ashanti. They include the following:

1. Visitor interruption was common in all the schools. Visitors visit the heads from beginning of the work till closing. There was no mechanism in place to control the flow of visitors. It was found out that between 10 minutes and 15 minutes and sometimes even more were spent on each drop-in visitor.
2. It was observed that meetings sometimes started on time but did not end on time. The heads did not state the duration of the meetings and decided to end the meeting when all points are exhausted.
3. It was also observed that all teachers were invited to attend every meeting irrespective of whether the issues to be discussed involved a particular group or not. It was again found out that an agenda of a meeting was not distributed a prior to the meeting. On heads visits to

school compound, it was observed that heads did not visit the school compound to interact with students and teachers.

4. It was observed that heads generally did not use computers themselves for their work for the reason that they were not computer literate and those who were computer literate did not have typing speed. It was the secretaries who used the computers and some schools were still using the typewriting machines, which slow down activities of the heads.
5. It was revealed during the observation that heads usually came to school before the official time to work and stayed beyond closing time to do overtime work to try to finish activities which were left undone during the day. Delegation of routine duties was found to be very effectively practised. Staff members were aware of those assigned delegated duties

Summary of Results

In summary, this chapter has provided answers to five research questions. The findings revealed that heads frequently use hopper behaviour as they work in the schools. Majority of the participants accepted the fact that time management practices are less effectively used. The study established that statistically significant and positive relationships existed between time management practices and work behaviours, years of experience and the amount of training received in time management. The observation revealed that heads are interrupted and this makes them work over time. Majority of heads do not use the computers themselves for office work and meetings are prolonged.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this final chapter, the findings of the study are summarised, conclusions drawn and recommendations made. The primary objective of the study was to investigate how official time was used by heads in Senior Secondary Schools in Ashanti.

Overview of the Study

The study investigated time management practices among heads of Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The purpose of the study was to find out how heads in the Senior Secondary Schools in Ashanti use official time. The focus of the study was on management of official time by heads in such areas as organisation of staff meetings, making contacts, delegation of duties, visitor and telephone interruptions, management of paperwork and prioritisation of tasks.

The descriptive correlational survey was used in the study with the aim of finding out whether relationships exist between time management practices and work behaviours, training and years of experience. The target population was heads of Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region. A sample of 150 participants comprising 50 heads and 100 assistants were used in the study. Altogether eight districts were randomly selected in rural and urban categories. The purposive sampling method was used to select all the 50 schools and the heads. The main instruments used for the collection of data were one set of questionnaire and observation checklist.

The questionnaire was pre-tested in the Atwima District of Ashanti Region using five heads and 10 assistants.

From the pre-test, reliability co-efficient of .79 was obtained using the Cronbach Alpha for the Likert scale items. Five research questions were formulated to guide and direct the study. Frequencies, percentages and means were used to present the data obtained in tabular form. Correlation was used to test for the significance of the relationship that existed between time management practices and independent variables such as work behaviours, amount of training and years of experience. Regression was used to test for the significance of the regression coefficient that determined the effects of the work behaviours, amount of training and years of experiences on time management practices.

Summary of Findings

From the study a number of findings emerged. They include the following:

On the common work behaviours, it was found that heads mostly exhibited the hopper behaviour of managing work. That is, heads are constantly interrupted as they work and as a result they cannot finish work and have to work overtime to complete work for the day.

The heads exhibit aspects of other work behaviours as well. They exhibited allergic to details behaviour, in that they were found to be in a rush and do not take time to review detailed analysis. For the fence sitter behaviour, they were found to spend a lot of time pondering over views or decisions of others.

The cliff hanger behaviour exhibited by the heads involved their working overtime to meet deadlines. They also involved people in their rush to finish a task. The perfectionist behaviour revealed by the heads involved their desire always to do things perfectly because of that they spent much time on one task and left the others undone.

On the time management practices, the researcher found that heads mostly use the practice of linking their daily activities to priorities set for the school and also making their staff aware of those assigned delegated responsibilities.

Other aspects of time management practices, which were found to be less effectively managed, include prioritising tasks daily by the heads. Poor contact practices were also found in which, for instance, visitors who come to see the heads did not make any appointment through the secretary. It was again revealed that Senior Secondary School heads did not reserve some hours to receive drop-in visitors. It was indicated that heads did not frequently visit the school compound to interact with students and teachers. The study also revealed that supervision of delegated duties by heads was not effective. Meetings were often prolonged. Heads did not invite only staff members who were affected by a decision in a meeting. An agenda of a meeting was not distributed before the meeting. It was found that the heads less effectively managed paperwork. Majority of the heads did not use the computer themselves for their work. Setting aside a block of time daily for administrative paperwork was not practised by heads. It was found out that writing down activities to be carried out and following them strictly was hardly done by heads.

interruptions. Heads appeared to be too flexible and just accepted any event that happens during work hours. These work behaviours affected the use of time management practices and led to mismanagement of official time.

It could thus be concluded that heads in the Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region do not apply the basic practices of time management and due to that a lot of man-hours are lost which will eventually affect the achievement of the overall goal of the school which is the academic performance of the students. The number of years served also influenced heads use of time.

Amount of training received, which was reported to be inadequate, was found to be a predictor of the ineffective time management practices of the heads. It could be concluded from this finding that the frequency in organising training in time management for heads has adverse repercussions in the performance of heads and this can affect the realization of the overall goal of the school. Gender could not influence heads use of time management practices

Recommendations for Practice

The main aim of the study was to investigate the time management practices of heads in Senior Secondary Schools in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The study was specifically to find out the relationship between work behaviours, amount of training received, years of experience and time management practices. From the findings and conclusions drawn, the following suggestions are recommended.

1) On prioritisation, the results of this study indicated that heads do not write down activities to be carried out ahead of time. Instead, they prioritise their work everyday, a practice which wastes time. It is, therefore, recommended that heads need to prioritise tasks according to predetermined goals. Heads need to write down and number each task according to the order in which they will tackle them. They also need to set "due-dates" and work towards them. Also, they need to alter priorities continually in line with changes or new information gathered. Finally, it is recommended that heads make a list of activities to be carried out every week.

2) It was found out from the study that visitor interruption was common in all the schools involved in the study and there was no mechanism put in place to control the flow of visitors. To minimize the numerous interruptions, heads need to set aside times to answer visitors quick questions at the office in the mornings and afternoons. The school secretaries need to screen drop-in visitors before they are allowed to see the heads.

3) It was found out that heads did not frequently visit the school compound to interact with student and teachers. It is again recommended that heads make a daily tour of the school building to interact with students and teachers so that some minor issues could be answered there.

4) The study revealed that paperwork was not effectively managed and that heads did not set aside daily block of time for administrative paper work. It is recommended that heads set aside daily time during regular work hours to do paper work. Also, they need to allow their secretaries to handle routine tasks.

5) It was found out that majority of heads had the computers but did not know how to use them. Their secretaries did all the computer works for them. It is

again recommended that G.E.S organises computer applications literacy programme for heads to enable them use the computer themselves to facilitate work.

6) It was revealed from the study that visitors who come to see the heads do not schedule any appointment through the school secretary and heads do not set aside a daily time for receiving visitors. It is, therefore, recommended that appointment be made through the school secretary. Also, heads should not be too flexible to the detriment of their work and that they should not interrupt themselves with unnecessary conversations. It is recommended that specific time should be set for receiving visitors.

7) On managing meetings, the study showed that meetings were prolonged and heads did not ensure that the agenda of a meeting was given out to staff before the meeting. Based on these findings the researcher recommends that heads should ensure that well-prepared agenda is distributed at least one week prior to the meeting and that time limits be set for all meetings.

8) On delegation of duties, the study revealed that supervision of delegated duties was not effective. It is recommended that heads set deadlines for delegated duties and monitors the delegated duties by using files with names and schedules.

9) The study revealed that the amount of training heads received in time management was inadequate and that this adversely affected their use of time. It is, therefore, recommended that the Ghana Education Service (G.E.S.) should organise regular short courses in time management for heads to acquire the needed skills in order to use the good time management practices they are

supposed to exhibit. Heads need to set aside specific time that would be convenient to them to receive visitors.

Suggestions for Further Research

The result of the present study indicated that other variables apart from work behaviours, training and years of experience influence the use of time in Senior Secondary Schools. It is necessary for further study to be conducted in Senior Secondary Schools to determine those other variables that influence time management practices in schools. It is further recommended that the study be replicated in other regions in Ghana to confirm or refute the findings of this study.

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APPENDIX A
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING
AND ADMINISTRATION
TIME MANAGEMENT PRACTICES QUESTIONNAIRE FOR
SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

School Location: Urban..... Rural

District Date

Effective and efficient management of official time has been identified as an important resource to increase productivity in all activities. This questionnaire is designed purposely to draw out information that will enable the researcher to carry out a study on Time management practices among administrators of Senior Secondary Schools in Ashanti Region.

Please, kindly respond to the following questions. You are assured that any information provided will be kept strictly confidential.

SECTION A

Biographical Data

Please, tick [] or fill in as appropriate.

1 Sex: Male [] Female []

2 Academic/Professional Qualification:

Post Graduate [] First degree []

Diploma [] Other, specify.....

- 3 Present Status:
- Assistant Director []
- Principal Superintendent []
- 4 Length of Service in G.E.S:
- Below 5 years [] 6 – 10 years []
- Over 10 years []
- 5 Position held in the school:
- Headmaster []
- Assistant Headmaster []
- 6 How many years of experience have you had as a Headmaster or Assistant Headmaster?
-
- 7 How many hours of training have you received in time management?
-

SECTION B

Work Behaviours

The items below are descriptions of how school administrators manage their official time. How frequently would each statement describe your work behaviour?

- CIRCLE THE RATING
- 4 Very Often
- 3 Often
- 2 Sometimes
- 1 Never

Work Behaviours					
9	I handle several tasks at the same time	4	3	2	1
10	I move from one task to another often not completing tasks because of constant interruptions	4	3	2	1
11	I generally schedule my day to handle tasks and have few interruptions	4	3	2	1
12	I work overtime trying to attend to details and live up to my own high standards	4	3	2	1
13	I frequently work overtime trying to meet deadlines	4	3	2	1
14	I often work a lot of overtime trying to complete tasks that cannot be done during the day	4	3	2	1
15	I Try to do things perfectly which keep me from completing tasks	4	3	2	1
16	I scan tasks quickly and prefer that my staff handle the routine details	4	3	2	1
17	I wait until the last minute and generally need outside pressure (deadlines, visitors, or boss) to complete tasks	4	3	2	1
18	I involve others in my rush to finish a task	4	3	2	1
19	I can remain flexible and open to events of	4	3	2	1

	the day				
20	I seldom work overtime	4	3	2	1
21	I often seek information from others when decisions are to be made	4	3	2	1
22	I spend time to ponder the decision of orders	4	3	2	1
23	I followed tried methods of others	4	3	2	1

SECTION C

Time Management Practices

A number of items are listed below which deal with time – management practices. Please read each item and decide how often it describes you.

CIRCLE THE RATING

4	Very Often
3	Often
2	Sometimes
1	Never

Practices for Contacts					
24	Appointment for me are made through my Secretary	4	3	2	1
25	My secretary protects me from walk-ins and knows when to make an exception	4	3	2	1
26	A daily time is set for my return	4	3	2	1

	calls				
27	I set time limits for all contacts (e.g. telephone, classroom visits, students control)	4	3	2	1
Practices for Delegation					
28	My Secretary knows to whom I delegate certain responsibilities and uses that information to distribute letters	4	3	2	1
29	My staff members know to whom certain responsibilities are delegated	4	3	2	1
30	Deadlines are used when I delegate	4	3	2	1
31	I use file with listed schedules to monitor delegation	4	3	2	1
Practices for Managing Meetings					
32	Only staff members who are affected by the decision are involved in the meeting	4	3	2	1
33	General time limits are set for all meetings	4	3	2	1
34	Meetings start and end on	4	3	2	1

	time				
35	The purpose of each meeting is known prior to the start	4	3	2	1
36	An agenda of each meeting is distributed at least one day prior to the meeting	4	3	2	1
Practices for Managing Interruptions					
37	I am interrupted daily by routine walk-ins (opened door)	4	3	2	1
38	I 'tour' (walk around) my school compound to make contacts with students and teachers	4	3	2	1
39	I reserve certain hours to receive drop-in visitors	4	3	2	1
40	I block time daily whereby no visitors or telephone calls are accepted except for emergencies (closed door)	4	3	2	1
Practices for Managing Paperwork					
41	A daily block of time is set				

	for me to do my administrative paper work during work hours	4	3	2	1
42	A report log is kept to monitor ALL reports turned in by ALL departments and staff members from my schools	4	3	2	1
43	I return most paperwork to my Secretary with instructions and retain only those items requiring further thoughts	4	3	2	1
44	I use the computer to generate my correspondence	4	3	2	1
Practices for Establishing Priorities					
45	I maintain a "To-Do" list	4	3	2	1
46	My daily activities are linked to my priorities set for the school	4	3	2	1
47	I prioritise my tasks	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Termly
48	I discuss high priority tasks with my staff	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Termly

SECTION D

49 In what ways can you improve the use of official time in your school in order to achieve the set goals?

.....
.....

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

I appreciate your time



APPENDIX B

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
FACULTY OF EDUCATION

INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION

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Our Ref.: EP/90/2/108

February 1, 2006

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.....
.....

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

The bearer of this letter, Lydia Osei-Amankwah is a graduate student of the University of Cape Coast. She is collecting data/information in your outfit for the purpose of writing a Thesis as a requirement of the M.Phil Programme.

I should be grateful if you would help her collect the data/information from your outfit. Kindly give the necessary assistance that Ms. Osei-Amankwah requires to collect the data.

Mr. Y.M. Anhwere
Secretary
For Director



GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE

Please of reply the number and
of this letter should be quoted

Ref. No. 24781, 24344, 24345



GOVERNMENT OF GHANA

REGIONAL EDUCATION OFFICE
P. O. Box 1906
Kumasi - Ghana

Ref:

Ref:


Date: 8th February, 2006
Date:

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

The bearer of this note, Lydia Osei-Amankwah, is a graduate student of the University of Cape Coast.

She is collecting data/information for the purpose of writing a Thesis for her M.Philosophy Programme.

Kindly give her the necessary assistance she requires from you.


F. BOADI-SUNDWA
DEPUTY REGIONAL DIRECTOR
for: REGIONAL DIRECTOR/ASH.

APPENDIX C

Sample Selection of Districts

District	Category	No. of Schools
Kumasi	Urban	16
Obuasi	Urban	5
Ejisu-Dwabeng	Urban	4
Sekyere West	Urban	5
Afigyasekyere	Rural	5
Bekwai	Rural	4
Kwabre	Rural	7
Bosomtwi Atwima Kwanwoma	Rural	4
Total	8	50

Source: Regional Education Office, Ashanti, 2006.