CHAPTER 11
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

2.2 TIME - THE HUB OF HUMAN ACTIVITY

2.3 CONCEPT OF TIME MANAGEMENT

2.4 TIME MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

2.4.1 Phase one : Self Assessment

2.4.1.1 Time Wasters Identified Before Film Viewing

2.4.1.2 Time Wasters Identified After Film Viewing

2.4.1.3 External Time Wasters

2.4.1.4 Internal Time Wasters

2.4.2 Phase Two : Planning

2.4.3 Phase Three : Operationalising

2.4.4 Planning

2.4.5 Organizing

2.4.6 Scheduling

2.4.7 Handling Visitors
2.4.8 Handling of Telephone Efficiently and Effectively

2.4.9 Decision making

2.4.9.1 Devices for Creating Ideas

2.4.10 Delegating

2.4.11 Controlling

2.5 WOMAN - THE SUPERWIFE - NEED FOR TIME MANAGEMENT

2.6 TIME MANAGEMENT - THE EFFECTIVE WEAPON FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS, PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS

2.7 PRINCIPALS AS INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS

2.8 INSTRUCTIONAL PLANNING BY TEACHERS

2.8.1 Teachers Planning Practices

2.8.1.1 Teacher Reports of Planning

2.9 PERSONALITY AND HEALTH - EFFECT ON TIME MANAGEMENT

2.9.1 Type of Personality

2.9.2 Behavioural Traits

2.9.3 Behaviour Traits Type A and Type B
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Review of research studies, pertaining to the problem under investigation is of fundamental importance to provide insight into the problem, broaden the general concepts and principles, and sharpen understanding.

In this chapter the reviewed literature is presented in the following sequence. Firstly, studies regarding, concept of time, management and time management are reviewed. Secondly, literature pertaining to Time Management Techniques like Planning, Organizing, Delegating, Controlling, Communicating and Decision Making is reviewed. Thirdly - Studies, pertaining to the management of time by School Principals, as instructors and teachers are reviewed. Fourthly - Studies relating the role of Personality and health in Time Management are reviewed.

Research on teacher time management is a fairly recent development in India. Thus far, the number of completed studies are too small.

Literature regarding the concept of Time.
2.2 TIME - THE HUB OF HUMAN ACTIVITY

"For what is time? who is able to easily and briefly explain it? Who is able so much as in thought to comprehend it so as to express himself concerning it? And yet what in our usual discourse do we more familiarly and knowingly make more mention than of Time? And surely we understand it well enough when we speak of it; we understand it also when in speaking with another we hear it named. What then is Time? If nobody asks me I know; but if I were desirous to explain it to someone that should ask me, plainly I know not", so writes St. Augustine.

So often, it is difficult to explain that which individuals are accustomed to take for granted and/or use everyday. As St. Augustine indicated, one is hard pressed to find words that explain the concept of time. However, since the beginning of time, man has tried. Time has been expressed as (a) a unique person -- "Father Time", (b) a powerful force that is as enduring as a law of nature -- "time heals all"; (c) a dimension associated with events --"whose time has come"; and (d) an object that travels --"when time marches on"; (Mackenzie, 1975). Certainly, time is perceived in different ways.

Time is sometimes referred to as "perishable commodity" (Partin, 1982). Either you make use of it or you let it go by and lose it forever. Jones (1968) and Mackenzie (1975) described "time as a scarce resource. It cannot be placed in reserve to be parcelled out for later use. Once it is gone,
it cannot be retrieved". Charlesworth and Nathan (1982) stated that time was a "major asset" and should be given just as much care as other essential resources. "Although everyone has the prerogative to determine the way it is spent, the choices are effective use of time, or its mismanagement" (Mackenzie, 1972).

Time is what life is made of and that which fills each moment must be considered important. When people spend a great deal of time on something, they are considering it to be important (Levinson, 1970). In order to use time wisely one must plan carefully. Mattauch (1987) stated "Time is viewed as something assigned, not just depleted...". Lakein (1973) emphasized, "Time is life. It is irreversible and irreplaceable. To waste your time is to waste your life, but to master your time is to master your life and make the most of it". Lehman (1987) explained that time calculation normally depended on instruments, although cognitive processes were involved in learning to read and operate the measuring equipment. For practical purposes one may regard time calculation as in the field of physical time, whereas the other three models, which Lehman described as internal, are clear aspects of psychological time.

Estimation of duration of time intervals has occupied a major place in the history of research into psychological time. Lehman (1987) mentioned tests on time estimation production and time estimation reproduction. Orme (1969) also mentioned tests on verbal estimation of intervals and comparison of time intervals. An interesting experimental result reported by Orme was that
the estimate of experienced time appeared to be inversely related to the rate of believed progress towards a goal. Other studies reported by Orme found associations between time estimation and academic achievement, thought about the future, and various standard laboratory tests.

This topic of concept of time and attitude to time reveals the importance of time and that it is the commodity around which everything else revolves like a pivot. This leads one next to examine the literature on how time could be managed. Therefore the following section deals with the studies in various fields regarding 'Time Management'.

2.3 CONCEPT OF TIME MANAGEMENT

The first efforts to promote good time management were of a general nature and aimed at managers and executives of all types. Dr. Alec Mackenzie and Alan Lakein have become two of the best known experts on the subject. Dr. Mackenzie published The Time Trap in 1972 and Mr. Lakein published "How To Get Control Of Your Time And Life" in 1973. Both books provide valuable information that could help teachers develop better time management skills.

More specifically, "The Time Trap" is written in a text-book approach, and it carefully introduces many key aspects of time management. Among them are time audits, identifying time wasters, and interruptions. Mackenzie also pointed out the importance of planning and goal setting, and
he set forth a format for handling decisions. Another important concept that he introduced was the "pareto principle". It points out that 80 percent of the results come from 20 percent of the time and effort. This one concept alone is good cause for teachers to examine how their time is expended.

In addition, there are two more chapters in Mackenzie's book that will be very helpful to teachers. They deal with delegating and managing the time of subordinates.

Mr. Lakein (1973) hits upon many of the main points made by Mackenzie, but he especially emphasizes the "importance of goal setting, planning, and establishing priorities. He offers a method of attaching high priority items. It is called the Swiss Cheese - method". In it Lakein tells the reader to divide big tasks into smaller tasks so that they can be attacked one at a time or in smaller time chunks. Certainly, teachers could apply this to many of their high priority tasks.

Another work was done by Dr. Peter F. Drucker in (1976). His book "The Effective Executive". In it Drucker pointed out that effective executives do not start with their tasks. Instead, they start with their time. He also emphasized such items as time audits, elimination of time wasters, and the importance of setting goals and establishing priorities. Many teachers are task oriented, and they could make improvements in effectiveness by adopting some of Drucker's suggestions.
Dr. Mark L. Stein (1976) writes about time psychology in his book "The T Factor". This mental approach to time is quite different from the works of Mackenzie and Lakein. The T Factor gets the reader into a deep assessment of feelings and is very analytical. It looks at the different biological stages of human development and how to set up time frames.

Stein (1976) brought out several important points that could be of value to teachers. One involved research that related to rest and quality of work. The research demonstrated that constant work without rest produced the poorest quality work. The other point is that humans have rigid fixations due to past experience. These fixations can act as barriers to problem solving. Therefore if teachers can remove or cut through such fixations, they can help students become better problem solvers.

"Getting Things Done-The ABC's Of Time Management" by Edwin C. Bliss (1976) emphasizes many of the important concepts covered by Mackenzie and Lakein. He also highlights some topics not previously covered, and they could be important to teachers.

Bliss (1976) discusses behaviour modification. According to him misuse of time is part of a habit pattern, and the habit has to be dealt with inorder to make a change. The adverse way in which "bottlenecks" can waste the time of an entire group or organisation. He then discusses the topic of meetings. He points out that there is no greater time waster than poorly planned meetings. He emphasized the need for agenda preparation for giving
advanced detailed notice in writing. Bliss offered a method of dealing with procrastination. He called it the "salami technique." Close examination shows that it is basically same as Lekein's "Swiss Cheese Method".

Magazines and periodicals have exposed large numbers to the topic of time management. Patrick J. Montana (1979), in his article on U.S. NEWS AND WORLD REPORT, discussed ways to stop wasting time. He indicated that research shows almost everyone wastes two or more hours per day. Montana also cited the importance of the "Pareto Principle". Most of Montana's presentation was simply a review of the good time management practices that had been outlined by previous authors such as Mackenzie and Lakein.

In his article on managing time Jeffrey Rothfeder (1983) discusses using the computer as a daily note pad. He also outlines the history of time management software and its uses.

No one knows how much time is misused or wasted either in schools or in the business world. In 1983, a leading employment expert, Robert Half (1983), made a study of time wasting and abuse. Half indicated that his survey was not a scientific one and that his findings were obviously subjective. The results of the study are nevertheless interesting. They were summarised in an article which appeared in The Detroit Free Press 1983. Half estimated that misuse of time would cost the American employers 137 billion dollars per hour. Eighty four percent of the executives interviewed
believed that government workers steal more time than employees in the private sector.

Is it possible to manage time? Taylor (1981) stated that "managing time was impossible because time never changes, no matter how it is measured or described. Also time cannot be influenced by any manager." The fact that time passes at a predetermined rate which is beyond anyone's control makes it impossible for anyone to manage time (Mackenzie, 1972) Therefore, managing oneself with respect to the time standard was the most common definition of time management. A Principal's personal characteristics, self discipline, and personal habits were involved in the level of self management.

In addition to self management, Patterson (1985) expanded the definition of time management to incorporate the management of things and the management of people. Managing things consisted of those activities that did not involve direct personal contact with others such as paperwork and using the telephone. All the people whom the principals come in contact with in the course of performing their jobs were included in the level of managing people. Of the three levels, Patterson stated that self management may be the most difficult, followed by people, and then things.

According to Charlesworth and Nathan (1982), time wasters are things that keep people from reaching their goals most effectively and rob them of their time. An evaluation of the various ways time is wasted is necessary to establish a solid foundation for effective time management. The
authors described time wasters as major or minor. Major time wasters included problems related to "attitudes, goals, objectives, priorities, plans and abilities to make decisions" and minor time wasters included "interruptions, unimportant meetings, unnecessary reports, long telephone conversations, unexpected visitors, and other distractions that interfere with the accomplishment of tasks."

Weldy (1974) reported that a group of suburban high school administrators considered (a) too many meetings, (b) responding to requests for information, (c) uncontrollable interruptions and (d) conflict resolution as major time wasters. Weldy expanded this list to include 19 other time wasters that were identified by administrators.

1. Checking on tasks that have been delegated.
2. Losing time when people needed are unavailable.
3. Sorting junk mail, screening advertisements, and unsolicited materials.
4. Signing, assigning, authorizing, ordering, approving, routing, endorsing, responding, "memo-ing".
5. Misplacing priorities, spending time on unimportant matters, neglecting the important.
6. Changing and confusing procedures.
7. Working without clear purposes and goals.
8. Confusing, unclear job descriptions.
10. Using clerical service poorly.
11. Postponing decisions.
12. Failing to delegate wisely.
13. Using inefficient office routines and filing systems.
14. Reading unselectively and unnecessarily.
15. Intervening unnecessarily in crisis or conflict.
16. Bypassing the chain of command.
17. Communicating poorly.
18. Deciding or acting on incomplete or inadequate information.
19. Over - Committing to outside activities.

Schuler and Sethi (1984) identified four major stumbling blocks to time management;

1. Jobs that are unimportant or not a part of the job description but which individuals feel responsible to perform.
2. The failure or the inability to prioritize tasks.
3. Spending the largest percentage of time on tasks that reap the smallest percentage of results.
4. Allowing events or situations to repeatedly use time that could be spent better.

Halverson (1983) found in his studies four basic principles about time and its relationship to management;
1. A person cannot do everything that is expected of him or her. As the person reaches full effectiveness, the expectation invariably increases.

2. There is little correlation between an effective person and the amount of time he or she spends on the job.

3. There is high correlation between an effective person and the amount of time that a person spends on high priority objectives and "quality" of time. (Quality time - Sufficient time in large blocks and during the most creative periods.).

4. The effective person plans and controls his or her own time; the ineffective person is controlled by events and constituents.

These principles suggest that controlling the decisions relating to time allocation for each activity are the most important features of time management.

Huffstutter (1981) believed that the main challenge facing managers in becoming effective with the use of time was their recognition of "unproductive values and attitudes" both within themselves and their organisations and their commitment to replace these values and attitude with productive ones. Understanding self, recognizing the primary purpose of the
organisation and having a willingness to change, increases one's potential for effective time management.

Mackenzie (1971) stated that "many supervisors know what they can do to get better results from their time usage, but they don't always do what they know. Their actual use of time is more important than the amount of time they have. The manner in which they plan, organize, direct, and control their own activities and those of others for whom they are responsible is the most important aspect of good time management".

Charlesworth and Nathan (1982) stated that time management is a skill that must be developed. It cannot be acquired from just reading about the various methods. Solutions to time problems often appear easy, but their application can be difficult. In support of this conclusion McConalogue (1987) stated "giving managers the popular remedies for managing time is as appropriate as telling someone who is fat to diet - it falls far short of developing a skill". The author recommended the step by step approach to learning time management skills with the following statement:

"Few managers are intuitively good at managing their time. Most have to work at it; it is a learned skill. Nor is there a panacea of procedure for good time management. Moving towards better time management would imply an incremental development of knowledge and skill rather than a slapping-on of some popular bandaid that at best, stops the bleeding but at worse, inhibits the possibility for permanent healing. Treating only the symptoms of time
management is at best a stop-gap measure. The real solution lies in identifying the true nature of the problem and learning ways of dealing with it that are acceptable remedies for the manager, his department, and ultimately his organization.

Other early literature on time management can be traced back to (1959) in James T. McCay's *The Management of Time*, a book addressed to managers and concerned with how they use their own time.

**Drucker (1967)** offers a set of five practices or habits of the mind that he believes are characteristic of effective executives:

1. They know where their time goes.

2. They focus on contribution, and gear their efforts to results to be obtained rather than work to be done. They start from the question, "What results are expected of me?".

3. They build on strengths, their own and others, as well as on strengths in the situation.

4. They force themselves to set priorities, and then stay with them. They concentrate on a few major areas where superior performance will produce outstanding results.
5. They make effective decisions, emphasizing strategic direction rather than razzle-dazzle tactics.

**Mackenzie (1970, 1972)** introduced the notion of "managing oneself" as a key to the effective management of time. The distinguishing characteristic of *Mackenzie's The Time Trap* is his pervasive clarity about the content of organizational realities as they interact with a manager's behaviour. Drawing on his extensive clinical experience, **Mackenzie** offers practical suggestions in the areas of delegation, planning, using staff and resources, working with one's secretary, blocking interruptions - all firmly placed in the content of organizational dynamics.

**Alan Lakein (1973)**, stepping away from the emerging tradition of time management for executives, took as his audience for "*How to Get Control of Your Time and Your Life*" not only executives, professionals and entrepreneurs, but also students, homemakers and others. **Lakein**'s is almost certainly the most popular work on time management. **Lakein**'s suggested techniques for managing time are similar to those of Mackenzie, but he adds a new dimension not found in previous authors. **Lakein** takes time management beyond the confines of the work organization and the work day. The content of time management is, for Lakein, the totality of life, and the driving force behind it is the need for personal growth having the time to do what is important to you, both on the job and off.
This part of the literature gives the importance of Time Management and reveals studies of Time Management in various fields like Industry, Business, etc... It emphasizes the necessity of time management in every organised profession, as time is scarce and it needs to be harnessed effectively. This leads one to review the literature pertaining to the techniques of time management and the systematic procedure of managing time. A number of studies have been done in the area of time management techniques for Businessmen, Professionals, Chief Executives etc... There is little literature pertaining to time management techniques for school teachers.

In the next section the studies regarding time management techniques are reviewed.

2.4 TIME MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

The time management literature is mainly composed of diagnostic questions, tactics and strategies, and printed forms aimed principally at assisting the business manager to use the resource of time on the job. The goals of time management could be subdivided as follows.

1. to identify and analyze current time use patterns.
2. to articulate goals, objectives, and priorities.
3. to integrate time-saving practices into one's daily routines, and assess progress.
In other words, the three phases of the time management cycle are: self-assessment (data gathering and analyzing), planning, and operationalizing.

2.4.1 Phase One: Self-Assessment

The basic question being answered in the first stage of a time management cycle is that of "where am I now?" It is a self-assessment stage in which the major activities are data gathering and analysis. Depending on the theorists, either these activities will occur in tandem or the analysis phase will follow the data gathering phase.

Data is most often collected in the form of self-observation. This involves keeping in diary format a log of the way one spends one's time on a daily basis, recorded in 10 to 15 minute increments or half hour to hour increments. Time logs are used to increase awareness of one's current time use patterns.

The time log also identifies time wasters. A time waster is any activity that prevents one from achieving results more effectively. These can be divided into groups of internal and external activities. Internal time wasters are those activities that can be controlled from within, such as procrastination, socializing, and the inability to say no. Most managers overlook these and tend to blame other people or the environment as the causes of their time management problems. They tend to give reasons outside themselves or
external causes for their time frustrations Douglass and Douglass, (1980); Mackenzie, (1972).

Mackenzie notes the usefulness of the Drucker film, Managing Time, in assisting managers to look at themselves as a contributing source of time management problems. This film portrays company president "committing virtually all of the time management sins" Mackenzie, (1972). The following two lists, generated by 40 Chief executives of electrical companies before and after seeing the film, illustrate this tendency to focus blame on others rather than look to oneself as contributing to time management problems.

2.4.1.1 Time Wasters Identified. before film viewing

1. Presented for solutions to problems, employees with problem. lack of delegation, Telephone. routine tasks. lunch. interruptions. meetings. lack of priority. management by crisis. personal attention to people, outside activities, poor communication and mistakes.

2.4.1.2 Time Wasters Identified After Film Viewing.

1. Attempting too much at once. unrealistic time estimates. procrastinating. lack of organization. failure to listen. doing it oneself. unable to say no. refusal to let others do the job. delegating responsibility without authority, involving everyone, by passing the chain of command. snap decisions, blaming others, personal and outside activities. R.Alec Mackenzie, (1972).
Baker, (1980) identifies the following major time wasters:

2.4.1.3 External Time Wasters

Telephone interruptions, meetings, visitors, socializing, lack of information, excessive paperwork, communication breakdown, lack of policies and procedures, lack of competent personnel and Red tape.

2.4.1.4 Internal Time Wasters

Procrastination, failure to delegate, unclear objectives, failure to set priorities, crisis management, failure to plan, poor scheduling, lack of self discipline, attempting to do much at once and lack of relevant skills.

Austin (1980) has fully developed a two stage diary process for identifying time wasters. The manager identifies bad habits (stage one) and uses isolated issue diaries (stage two) to focus on specific problem areas of the 200 time managers with whom the author worked. the following five categories were the most frequently identified as problem areas : priorities, contacts, interruptions, workplace, and content of the job itself.

Priority problems are revealed by the results of a diary with few accomplishments. The contacts diary reveals the number planned or spontaneous encounters a manager has during the week and the value of each toward meeting his/her priorities. The workplace diary focuses on revealing the
amount of time a manager spends at his/her desk and the organization and environmental influences that the work setting provides. Finally, the content diary focuses on the type of activities which require the manager’s time, e.g., reports, routine paperwork reading or communication.

Lakein’s (1973) book was the first to present a variety of self-assessment suggestions that include work needs and personal needs. Lakein suggests that one defines one’s lifetime goals, which include personal, family, social, career, financial, community, and spiritual aspects. He suggests that one should be able to answer the following questions:

1. What are my lifetime goals?
2. How would I like to spend the next three years?
3. If I knew I would be struck by lightning six months from today, how would I live until then?

The final suggestion for self-assessment is to understand the money value of one’s time Austin, (1980), Jones, (1968), Douglass and Douglass, (1980). This means calculating the return on investment of an executive’s time commitment as well as understanding the hourly rate he/she is worth Austin, (1979). Austin provides a scale in English pounds consisting of five salary grades with the corresponding worth in incremental units of minutes and dollars. Another formula suggests that one includes fringe benefits, overhead, and secretarial support as well as other expenses to arrive at the hourly cost figures Douglass and Douglass, (1980). Understanding one’s worth in
terms of minutes and hours is believed to influence decisions about one's own use of time and about wasting the time of others, especially time spent in meetings.

2.4.2 Phase Two: Planning

The second phase of time management, planning, crystallizes the work phase one into clear, definable outcome statements and answers the question, "How do I want to spend my time?" Mackenzie (1972) defines planning as the rational predetermination of where you want to go and how you intend to get there. Lakein (1973) believes that control starts with planning, and defines planning as "bringing the future into the present so that you can do something about it now."

Planning assists in anticipating problems rather than giving in to the "tyranny of the urgent" - the putting out of fires or crisis management. Unless the executive takes deliberate action to establish criteria for results and contributions, the flow of events will determine his action; this flow will not reflect the critical areas deserving his time and focus Drucker, (1967); Mackenzie, (1972). Lakein (1973) suggests that planning be thought of as decision-making on paper.

The planning phase, as these author suggest, begins on paper with defining objectives and goals. Objectives are long-range targets, while goals refer to short-range aims Mackenzie, (1972). This is not enough, however
to ensure exact channelling of one's energies. Setting priorities for these goals and objectives remains the next critical step of refinement.

The pareto principle, first discussed by Mackenzie (1970), and found throughout the literature, guides the planner. The principle named after a nineteenth-century Italian economist and sociologist, states that the significant items in a given group are usually a relatively small proportion of the total items in the group. In time management terms, this means that although one will have many tasks to do, there are only a critical few that really make a difference in terms of desired results.

To be a target in one's analysis of vital organizational objectives and goals, it is useful to engage one's own manager in one's work planning process to mutually decide on priorities Davidson, (1980), Austin (1980) suggest that, one plans work goals by determining the section or division's goals for the next year and then articulates one's practical involvement in these. To ensure that one has a balance of activities that one "must do", as well as those one "wants to do".

Finally it is necessary to list all the substeps or activities necessary for reaching one's target Austin, (1980); and to include a time table which will add time accountability to the plans Douglass and Goodwin, (1980).
2.4.3 Phase Three: Operationalizing

The last phase of time management, operationalizing is where behaviour change and new practices occur, and answers the question of, "How can I use my time more effectively?" A myriad of cook-book suggestions for increased time effectiveness may be found in the majority of books on time management.

Since goals, objectives and priorities become clear in phase two, this stage represents the daily action planning and scheduling that translates goals into action. This begins with daily "to do" lists (Davidson, 1980; Douglass and Douglass, 1980; Lakein, 1973; Lee, 1980). These daily lists require one to list all the tasks awaiting action on particular day. Priorities are made for the activities on the list (Davidson, 1980; Douglass and Douglass, 1980; Douglass and Goodwin, 1980; Lakein, 1973; Lee, 1980; Love 1980). From this a schedule is developed which includes attempts to consolidate time (Austin, 1980; Drucker, 1967; Love, 1980; Reynolds and Tramel, 1979). Scheduling a personal or organizational quiet hour, where phone calls are not taken by managers or visitors received is also suggested (Lakein, 1973; Reynolds and Tramel, 1980). Others suggest scheduling an appointment with oneself (Love, 1980) to produce a break in one's schedule or scheduling exercise breaks for refreshment of energy and attention (Reynolds and Tramel, 1980).
A multitude of tactics are given for delegating effectively, improving meetings, handling interruptions, and overcoming procrastination. In recent times, the medium has changed in that audio-tape cassettes are now available summarizing time management material (Mackenzie, 1979; Douglass and Baker, 1983).

High school principals are required to maintain and co-ordinate the functions of their schools. They are responsible for making effective use of all available resources and for balancing in every decision and action the requirements of the present and the long term future. As managers they can administer these responsibilities more effectively when they eliminate time wasters and practice effective time management techniques. These techniques support the management functions of planning, organizing, directing, controlling, communication and decision making.

2.4.4 Planning

Drucker (1954) gave this endorsement on the wisdom of planning for effective time use: Managers who know how to use time will achieve results by planning. They are willing to think before they act. They spend a great deal of time on thinking through the areas in which objectives should be set, a great deal more on thinking through systematically what to do with recurring problems.
According to Mackenzie (1972), planning is the beginning of all management activities. He stated, "It is the rational pre-determination of where you want to go and how you want to get there". He recommended that managers use a time log to learn about themselves and to find out how effectively time is used in order to change time wasting habits that are generated internally. Partin (1982) suggested keeping a time journal for one week, recording time usage at 15 minute intervals. Weldy (1974) suggested a more rigorous time analysis by keeping an accurate minute record of activities covering a period of several days.

Effective time management includes setting deadlines. Weldy (1974) noted that administrators who set deadlines for tasks are motivated to make the best use of their time. Going public with the deadline provides the incentive for its completion. Procrastination is not as likely to occur when others know about the deadline. Lakein (1973) pointed out that the pressure of meeting a deadline is reduced when a project is started sooner than is necessary "when you delay a project until close to the deadline there is always the risk you'll run short of time and have to submit inadequate work or miss the deadline".

Bliss (1978) stated that "perfection sets in when one thinks in terms of the task instead of in terms of the time available for it. The task never comes to a close; because, you can always find ways to improve it".
Mackenzie (1972) has placed procrastination at the top of the list of time wasters for most managers. "It is a close relative of incompetence and a hand maiden of inefficiency". Weldy (1974) stated that the attitude of the administrator toward a task determines how time is used. Even the distasteful or the difficult task is less likely to be put off and neglected if it is approached with enthusiasm.

Principals without clear personal and professional goal setting orientations, evaluation criteria, and commitment, in the opinion of Lyman (1988), cannot be effective managers of time. Marvin (1980) stated that the most productive time any leader may spend is that dedicated to dealing with one's priorities. Schmitt's (1990) contention was that the goal setting exercise entails a carefully thought out statement of values expressed in terms of attainable, behavioural objectives and cast in a prioritized holistic mode.

Smith and Andrews (1989) recognized that goal setting and evaluation is an ongoing process. A principal's professional and personal goals permeate all aspects of the job and serve as a symbol of his spirit and energy (Snyder, 1988).

2.4.5 Organizing

Dunn (1986) establishes six domains for developing specific time management techniques.

1. The organisational domain
2. The delegation domain
3. The communication domain
4. The paper work routine domain
5. The co-operative domain
6. The evaluative domain

Atkins (1990) stated that most of the principals do not use a formal, structured time management strategy. As a means of starting to control one's time, it is necessary for principals to realize how they are currently spending time on the job. This may be best accomplished by asking colleagues to shadow principals for several days and record how time is utilized. From these notes it is possible for principals to begin reorganizing the daily work pattern.

Personal efficiency is important for an overall structure to the scheme of time management. Stanfield (1985) delineated this in the organization of a principal's office both physically and functionally. His premise was that orderly executives do not encumber their time with wasted notion in association with their offices. This includes location of materials, scheduling of appointments and events, written communications, meetings, handling of visitors, managing the telephone and delegating duties.

Effective managers have the basic understanding, knowledge and skills for organizing their work environments and for creating a manageable daily agenda. Organizing a day's work is regularly confronted, but it is perhaps
the most difficult job to do (Mackenzie, 1972). Lakein (1973) stated that the use of time management techniques in organizing helps to maintain freedom and individuality.

Mackenzie (1972) found that the arrangement of the workspace can help or impede the manager's use of time. The desk is the first place to look for obstructions to effective time management. According to Bliss (1978) and Partin (1982), a cluttered desk interferes with concentration. Mackenzie (1972) has found that 95% of all managers are afflicted with the "stacked-desk syndrome". Stephen (1982) recommended that the desk are not to be used to stack letters, reports and other reading material. They are to be looked at only once before they are stored in a permanent location.

Mackenzie (1972) suggested the following six steps for eliminating a cluttered desk and maintaining it:

1. **Keep the desk cleared of all projects, except for the one that has top priority.**
2. **Keep all other items in a file or drawer until you are ready to work on them.**
3. **Resist the temptation of working on other tasks until you have completed the one you are working on.**
4. **Once the task is completed, then begin with your next priority.**
5. Have your secretary clear your desk before you arrive in the morning and place the next priority on your desk.

6. Make your secretary responsible for keeping your desk clear.

According to B`rald (1983), paperwork can be reduced by quickly sorting the bulk mail from first class mail and giving the first class type written, and personally signed mail first priority. Partin (1982) recommended that upon receiving a letter or memo a response should be made immediately. Lakein (1973) suggested that incoming mail be screened and sorted by subordinates. The secretary can determine what mail needs the manager's immediate attention and what should be routed to others or filed directly. Filing is another time waster of managers. Mackenzie (1972) states that managers should leave filing duties to trained and qualified secretaries.

Holloway (1974) designed a systems approach to help school administrators plan for effective use of time in performing management tasks. A matrix was used to identify periodic and non-periodic tasks that can be classified as (a) simple, (b) moderately complex and (c) complex. The categorization of tasks assists that administrators in allocating appropriate accounts of time and effort. Once the task analysis was completed a time file, individual activity cards, and a procedural calender were used.

Because the memory is too unreliable in retaining everything that is brought to one's attention during the course of the day, managers can
improve their organizational skills by writing information down on paper and keeping it in a convenient location for easy referral Steppe, (1982).

2.4.6 Scheduling

Meetings are a major responsibility for principals. They are called upon to serve as chairpersons in many gatherings of the professional staff. Meetings convey a sense of a principal's vision. These meetings may be ceremonial, strategic, informational, or negotiation sessions Mintzberg, (1973).

De Cicco (1985) in outlining the parameters for a successful, productive meeting, cited the agenda as the first indication that the principal has a goal, objective, and direction for the session. This agenda should be annotated, specific, detailed, and note the starting and ending times. Issues should be discussed ahead of time, arranged on the agenda in priority order and allocated sufficient time to address during the session. Januz, (1981) and Weldy's, (1974) research found that most responding faculty felt meetings should not exceed ninety minutes in duration. An annotated agenda should be distributed 48 hours before hand. Discussion should be focused so as not to exceed time limits with extraneous matters, and the presenter should be thoroughly prepared.

Every meeting should conclude with a summary that checks that the objectives for the session have been reached Lyman, (1988). Stevens
(1984) stressed the need for follow up minutes and found that the most valuable meetings for the staff are brainstorming sessions, problem solving exercises, curriculum theory discussions, demonstrations, and collective goal setting efforts. Additionally they found that meetings with no purpose, no agenda, no group input, or meetings for complaining, being lectured, and rehearsing old issues were disliked by the faculty. From their research, they recommend that meetings "be regularly scheduled, only held when necessary, conducted in the morning, started promptly, adhere to a time limit, include only the necessary personnel, be preceded by an agenda, allow time for questions, and be followed by written minutes. Self analysis of the actions of the moderator in the meeting can be quite beneficial". Bliss (1976) stressed the need for a post-mortem on each session for self improvement. Business lunch meetings should be avoided for they are least likely to be truly productive, although they may be quite enjoyable.

2.4.7 Handling Visitors

Visitors are common to the principal's office. It is the exception when a visit is scheduled. Partin (1988) suggested that, principals position their secretary as a shield to screen visitors. The immediacy of the visitors commands priority over all other activities such as planning, reflecting, creating and problem solving. By closing the office door, or leaving it slightly ajar, administrators demonstrated that they are in and busy. Weldy (1974) suggested that principals should budget their open door time. Partin (1988) stated that principals must avoid social conversation in these unscheduled
meetings or face the possibility of entertaining a bored staff member. By being assertive, principals can hint the visitor that the meeting must end. These hints may be silence, tense responses or business-like, yet friendly.

2.4.8 Handling of Telephone Efficiently and Effectively

The intruder on the desk, the telephone is a devise that Mackenzie (1972) acknowledged must be controlled. Tanner (1991) posed some strategies for efficient utilization of the telephone. Initially all calls should be screened by the secretarial staff. Only the most vital and important calls should be passed through to the principal. All other telephone calls should be returned at a time more convenient to the principal. Mackenzie (1972) noted that it is the caller’s option as to when the conversation terminates, thus returning a call puts the executive in control of an interaction. Return calls can be delegated to subordinates who should be empowered to act in response to the problems raised thus liberating a principal (Slozak, 1984).

2.4.9 Decision Making

Decision making is the most important and essential task that an executive performs. The act of deciding permeates nearly everything an executive does. Hundreds of minor, spontaneous decisions are effectively made by executives everyday, and such decisions are based on knowledge and experience. At the other end of the decision making scale are the conceptual decisions that grow out of vision. These are the decisions that
establish long-range goals, define projects, establish new organizational direction and bring about change.

In between these two extremes are the perplexing managerial problems executives are expected to solve magically. But as every executive knows, there is no magic to wise decision making.

Decision making is actually a part of problem solving. There would be no decision to make if there were no problems to solve. Problem solving consists of three operations: problem analysis, decision making, and action. Thus, decision making is that part of problem solving that follows study of the problem and is followed by action to carry out the decision.

Every manager is faced with making thousands of big and small decisions every year. According to Lakein (1973) decisions are affected by individual habits and the demands of others. No matter what other constraints that may have some bearing on decisions, it is essential that they be conscious ones.

Drucker (1974) stated that within organizations the systematic and standardized principles used by the Japanese are essential to effective decision making. Unlike their Western counterparts who place emphasis on the answer, to the questions, they are more concerned with defining the question. To them it is more important to "decide whether there is a need for a decision and what the decision is about".
Jones (1968) made the following suggestions to decision making that are advantageous to effective time management.

1. Evaluate the decision making process, identify the decision areas which take the most time, and delegate more routine decisions to others.

2. Establish some time parameters for various activities during decision-making process.

3. Reduce future time demands for recurring decisions concerning similar activities by investing adequate time now.

4. Experiment with time allocations for making decisions by devoting less time to some decision areas.

"Fear of failure may so immobilize a manager that he is prevented not only from making decisions himself but also from delegating them, afraid that mistakes made by subordinates will reflect on him" Mackenzie (1972).
2.4.9.1 Devices for Creating Ideas

**Brain Storming:** Brain storming is a method for getting a great many ideas from a group of people for later evaluation. Every idea no matter how far out, is recorded without criticism. A participant may also add to an idea already presented by someone else. After a set period for generating ideas has elapsed, the group evaluates the ideas presented.

2.4.10 Delegating

*Mackenzie (1972)* has defined managing as "getting things done through people" and delegation as "giving people things to do". To be an effective manager, delegation is indispensable. However, many managers continue performing tasks in ways they were accustomed to before they became managers. Subordinates who have been promoted to managerial positions because of their high performance at a lower level, only fail because they are accustomed to doing, not delegating. As the managers advance onto higher levels of management they must spend more time on managing functions and less time on operating functions. *Halverson (1983)* stated that the tendency "to do" rather than to manage is counterproductive to effective time management. "Delegating responsibilities to employees so that they can capitalize on their strengths is a must".

*Weldy (1974)* suggested that delegating tasks to others should be deliberately planned -- not dependent upon administrators' busy schedules or
their moods. Many administrators fail to delegate because of the time it takes to train a subordinate to perform a task.

According to Bliss (1978), delegating effectively requires managers to entrust responsibilities to others. Responsibilities should be assigned without giving detailed advice about how they are to be performed. According to Halverson (1983), assigning a person a job that spells out explicit the what, when, and how of the job leaves little flexibility for the worker to use his or her own talents in finding a better alternative in performing the job.

A decision that is made at a higher level does not necessarily mean a better decision. Mackenzie (1972) recommended that "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". Halverson (1983) defended the "Quality circle" concept that allows subordinates to identify, analyze, and solve related problems.

According to Mackenzie (1972) the practice of delegation provides the following benefits:

1. Immediately circulates printed material to interested subordinates.

2. Informs team members of new developments.
3. Gives managers the benefits of their thinking about important items and applications.

4. Makes the manager aware of what is important to subordinates.

5. Takes part of the reading burden off the manager's back while at the same time insures that essential reading will be done.

According to Lakein (1973), the expectation of some managers for subordinates to perform perfectly in all situations does not support good time management. Also, perfectionism causes some people to get carried away with activities that extend beyond any reasonable justification. Partin (1982) stated that "perfectionism in all efforts is a neurotic dream, and an impossibility setting up the dreamer for certain failure".

In no other aspect of time management can the principal's influence upon the school's culture be more visible than in the area of delegation Peterson, (1988). In delegation principals gain the opportunity to educate subordinates, select capable people, and grant authority. "It is important to delegate and not dump" Bliss, (1976). Pellicer (1990) urged that instructional leaders take the opportunity to share power and responsibility of the school through delegation. He felt that delegation is reflective of an overall philosophy towards the construction of an administrative team. The core of the administrative team, the recipients of most delegated tasks, usually consist of the Principal, Assistant Principals,
Geering (1980) stated that it is essential for an individual to control his or her environment -- if not, others will. Lakein (1973) stated that external controls increase when individuals try to comply with every expectation made by others. Each person must set priorities when requests are made and decide which ones should be honoured. "What should I be doing right now?" and "Am I dealing with what is truly important?" are two control questions that are recommended when deciding what is the best use of time.

Control is necessary, according to Kozoll (1982), to keep down stress and the escalation of tension that occur when trying to do more than is practical.

Time Management, so far, has been discussed in two aspects. Firstly, it discusses the literature in terms of

i. Self Assessment
ii. Planning and
iii. Operationalizing

Secondly, the studies in terms of management techniques viz.,

i. Planning
ii. Organizing
iii. Delegating
iv. Controlling
v. Communicating
vi. Decision Making
Geering (1980) stated that it is essential for management to control his or her environment — if not, others will. Lack of Time and external controls increase when individuals' expectations made by others. Each person must made and decide which ones should be handled right now? and "Am I dealing with what questions that are recommended for time management?"

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These studies reveal the extent to which time management techniques have been studied in several dimensions, but studies on the actual time management skills of teachers in the dimension of Review of Time and Action, Planning, Organizing, Utilizing, Controlling, Scheduling and Evaluation have not been undertaken hitherto. Also studies on how teachers kill their time and waste their time are not available. Hence, the present study is an attempt to find out the time management practices of teachers.

2.5 WOMAN - THE SUPERWIFE - NEED FOR TIME MANAGEMENT

Schwartz and Mackenzie (1977) noted that "Women who work full time typically do more than 80% of the house chores". Managing an office requires the same skills as managing one's home, but the crunch comes when one has to manage both - as most working women do. "To combine two equally consuming careers", Schwartz and Mackenzie (1977) observe "a woman has to become an expert manager of her time".

"About Time! A Woman's guide to Time Management" was produced by Mackenzie in 1981 in collaborating with a new co-author, Kay Waldo. In this book they add practical suggestions for saving time on shopping and cooking routines, grooming practices, Wardrobe maintainance, and family organization. And while they do mention time and stress, the major new dimension of this book is the inclusion of examining fun and pleasure in one's life. They concluded that women face challenging hurdles in
their time management routines because of past socialization in which women were encouraged to be, reactive rather than proactive, encouraged to be outwardly focused in their desire to please others, and not encouraged to develop rational thinking skills. They add that "time management is a thinking process". According to them "time management for the superwomen - the woman who wants it all - to have a successful career, and also to be a loving wife, nurturing mother, meticulous housekeeper, gracious hostess, and gourmet cook - will necessitate a recognition of unrealistic expectations of herself and the development of a more rational set of values related to activities and life style".

The clear boundaries and limitations between the executive, family and organization have been eroded. Men can no longer be expected to accept time - demanding promotions or relocate at the corporation's call Beckhard, (1972). Wives and families are no longer willing to accept back seat roles. They want more time and attention, and are demanding "equal time for the family" Grief and Munter, (1980). The old separate and apparent roles are becoming interdependent.

The role of women has changed greatly in the past few decades as more and more women have sought careers. Old barriers are being broken down, and many women now face two jobs - maintaining a household and working outside the home. This dual role can easily lead to increased stress. Several people have recognized this and have designed plans to help women manage their time and lives so that stress can be reduced or tolerated.
One of the first books written for women was "Women Time" by Diana Silcox and Mary Ellen Moore (1980). The authors strive to convince women that they can take control of their lives. The "Superwoman" myth is discussed along with guilt feelings. Women are reminded that they may not want to do everything they used to do. Suggestions are made to get others to hire others to do some tasks. House cleaning and laundry are two examples cited. Women are encouraged to put a price on their time and make decisions on that basis.

Silcox and Moore also apply many of the traditional time management practices in their book. These include such things as time audits, "to do" lists, and delegating. Time savers in meal preparation are also discussed. Setting up goals is also an important part of the programme.

In (1981), Alec Mackenzie and Kay Cronkite Waldo published "About Time", a time management guide for women. It discussed the long standing role of the woman as a nurturer and as one who was responsive to the needs of others. It also discussed the "superwoman syndrome". The authors stated that research indicates most working women are still carrying the major load of managing the home.

In November 1981, a time management article for women appeared in "Parents". It was written by Wendy Schuman was entitled "How to control your time (And get more out of your life)". The main thrust of this article was to encourage organisation and goal setting. This included dividing tasks into
manageable parts and setting up "to do" lists. The article concludes with a chart of how the author saves one hour and thirty minutes per day on routine household tasks.

The January 1984 issue of The Elementary School Journal featured an article by Dee Ann Spencer entitled "The home and school lives of women teachers: Implications for staff Development". The first portion of this article deals with keeping healthy, and it elaborates on the high levels of stress shown among teachers. Areas of particular concern were related to weight, poor nutrition, lack of exercise, and frequent illness. Concrete suggestions are made to initiate improvements in each of these areas.

An important part of staff development was that of managing time. Spencer concluded that women teachers had the capability to manage both school and home tasks, but they lacked the organizational skills. She made several suggestions for staff development in time management.

Spencer pointed out that school meetings could be more appropriately scheduled. The normal pattern is to place them at the end of the school day. Many meetings are scheduled with little advance notice and often there are problems in getting baby sitters to stay beyond the normal time. Release time was one of the solutions offered to combat this problem.

Spencer also encouraged networking providing opportunities for teachers to share their problems with others. She points out that scheduling
The study determined that the "On-task" percent for students in 20 classrooms varied from a low of 56 percent to a high of 95 percent. The study also looked at teacher behaviours in the same classrooms. Teacher time was divided into four categories with percentages calculated for each. The four categories were:

1. Interactive time
2. Non - interactive time
3. Off - task time
4. Organizational time

During May of 1983, Don E. Halverson published "An Effective Time and Management Strategy in Quality Circles", through the San Mateo County office of Education, California. It featured a pre and post - test on time management and quality circles. It also stated some basic concepts about time management out of which four basic principles stand out. A first Group received no time management training. A second group received basic time management training while a third group received training plus two additional time management experiences. The study concluded that the time management training did improve the effectiveness of those who had received training over those who did not.

In a (1982) report for the Nebraska state Department of Education, Roy D.Dillon discusses the influence of time management concepts on the productivity of vocational teachers. Dillon discovered that vocational teachers
spent varying amounts of time on job related work. Home economics teachers spent the most time and industrial educational teachers, the least. The difference in total time between two groups was equal to 28 percent. Dillon also discovered that the work hours are stacked at the beginning of the week with a 20.54 percent on Monday and tapering down to 14.64 percent on Friday. The weekend accounted for 9.31 percent of the work hours. Dillon also noted a change in time use for teachers who participated in two workshops.

The purpose of the project was to train interns to lead effective use of time workshops for secondary teachers of reading and mathematics. The teacher interns were trained at a central location and then sent out to train others to use the Stallings effective use of time method.

The study found that students made more gains in classrooms when the teachers spent more time instructing, discussing homework, providing considerable supportive feedback, and having students read aloud in a small group. In this environment, the teacher stayed involved with the students all of the class period. They were well organized and “made the most of time available”.

Students made less gains in classes where forty to fifty percent of the time was allocated to written as segments, another thirty to forty percent as allocated to silent reading, and where teachers graded papers and made lesson plans during class time. It was also noted that students made less gains
in classrooms where there were more interactions of a social or disruptive nature.

In (April of 1981) Beverly J. Bimes presented a paper to the National School Board Association. The title was "Dealing with Teacher stress and burnout". They were to provide opportunities for renewal, time management and creative in service. Bimes pointed out that the teaching day is already a challenge and most teachers are mentally exhausted by the end. She suggested that release time be considered when in-service programmes were planned.

Training teachers in time management skills is a program of Stanford University's Learning Assistance Centre. In (April, 1981) Carolyn Walker, the center director, reported on the programme. Stanford's programme consists of a one hour class per week for four weeks. In addition, each participant meets with the instructor for three half-hour sessions. Classes are limited to twenty students. The course is designed to help teachers identify ways they are wasting time and to provide them with concrete suggestions for improvement. The class is geared toward problems both on and off the job. Goal setting is also an important part of the programme. The course follows much of the work of Alec Mackenzie and Alan Lakein, and their books are the main resources used.

An interesting aspect of teachers and time management comes from the December 1982 report for the centre of educational policy and
Management at the University of Oregon. It was edited by Kenneth Duckworth and Wynn DeBevoise, and entitled "The effects of collective bargaining on school administrative leadership".

Using a national sample, the researchers found that teachers who are covered by collective bargaining agreements are more educated and more experienced. The researchers looked at teacher time allocation in five areas:

1. Instruction
2. Preparation
3. Administrative and clerical tasks
4. Meetings with Parents, and
5. Other activities, especially after school

Women, from the past have been viewed as homemakers but in the changing scenario of modern times, when she too is taking up a career, she is pressed for time both at home and at her workplace. The above studies reveal the necessity and importance of time management for women. Some studies also highlight the necessity of Time Management Techniques for school Teachers.

The next section reveals the studies conducted in the area of Time Management for School Administrators, Principals and Teachers.
2.6 TIME MANAGEMENT - THE EFFECTIVE WEAPON FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS, PRINCIPLES AND TEACHERS

Professional organisations have led the way in providing administrators with numerous articles on time management. In (1974), The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), published a booklet entitled "Time: A valuable resource for the school administrator". The author Gilbert R. Weldy, offered many good tips for saving time; and he concluded by reminding administrators why they were saving time.

The (December 1980) issue of the NASSP Bulletin carried two articles that related to time management. David W. Cochran authored the article "School Leaders Need to Keep People Focus". Cochran discussed the ever increasing paperwork load and how it is easy to get lost in it. He stressed the idea of establishing a "to do" list and followed with other time management suggestions. Cochran's main thrust was that time must be made available to work with teachers, parents, students, and other administrators. He Stated:

"We must not lose sight of the reason we exist. The students ought to be foremost in our thoughts and words as we plan, implement, and evaluate programs. If we lose sight of the students, their needs, and aspirations, then we've missed it all".
The second article by Henry W. Terrell discussed the "Better use of Staff Time to Improve Students Behaviour". Terrell pointed out that principals were overloaded with responsibilities and that large amount of time were often spent on student behaviour. He offered a plan which delineated roles to be played by the teacher, counsellor and the principal. The goal was to handle all but the most serious problems at a level other than the principal.

Two articles have appeared in the NASSP Bulletin that have direct importance for teachers. An article by Lloyd P. Campbell and John A. Williamson in October 1983, described a study of time required to supervise student teachers. The authors concluded that supervising teachers spent their time differently than anticipated prior to the experience. They indicated that this pointed out a need for better orientation prior to the supervising experience.

Christopher Lempesis (1984) in the second article indicated that classroom observation was critical activity leading to the improvement of instruction. He noted that teachers can learn better methods by simply observing each other. The problem was that teachers were reluctant to give up conference and planning time in order to observe. This problem was solved by using some of the time set aside for in-service training.

Lempesis (1984) also provided a guest speaker who discussed observation with the staff. Videotapes were also used as training tools. In the end eighty six of the ninety four teachers elected to observe their peers.
In March of 1982, an article by John Wedman appeared in "Clearing House". It looked at time management as it relates to instructional supervision. Wedman noted that the research shows that the more time that one is able to devote to a task, the more one is able to accomplish or perform that task. He noted, "The same thing is true of building principals and their role as instructional leaders".

Wedman pointed out that superintendents and principals view principals as instructional leaders, but teachers, Vice principals as School Managers. The data collected supported the view of the teachers. It was found that principals spend less than five percent of their time in classrooms, and that planning and co-ordinating the curriculum and instruction consumed less than six percent of their time.

The cause of the principal not being able to fulfill the role of instructional leader, as concluded by Wedman, was time. He cited research that principals average 13 activities or interactions per hour. Most of the activities are one or two minutes in length, and eighty-five percent are completed in less than nine minutes. One key factor, however, is that many of the activities are initiated by others.

Many other articles have been available to school administrators. In (1979), the Michigan School Board Journal ran a series of four articles by Gene E. Megivern. They explored the topics of time audits, time savers, and self management. The American School Board Journal featured "Ten Tips for

Several short articles have appeared in various journals. The (March 1981) edition of "Young Children" carried "Time Wasters: Solutions for Teachers and Directors" by Keren Zimmerman and Judith Herr. This article discusses such items as telephone interruptions, meetings, visitors, and delegation. It also looks at personal disorganization, cluttered work areas, and unclear communications.

A recent study by Walter Doyle and Kathy Carter appeared in the summer (1984) issue of "Curriculum Inquiry". This study was "Academic Tasks in the Classroom". It looks at student time on task, but more importantly, it looks at how the teacher uses time. It points out that many teachers are concerned with maintaining order and with finishing tasks. Such teachers often concentrate on giving directions for completing and handling in work rather than explaining the substance of the assignments.

Peterson (1982) found the reactive nature of school managers was due to the fact that the locus of initiation of problems fall outside of a principal's control. As a result, they surrender over forty percent of their time to situations that have little or no continuity, surface at inconvenient times, and are addressed in a fragmented manner. According to Peterson (1982) school
managers must target the use of time and materials toward the agreed upon goals of their schools.

In the (August 1981) issue of 'Instructor', Janice Hammond and Dennis Sparks offered 21 tips for better Time Management. They are

1. Make a "to do" list every day.
2. Do the toughest task early in the day.
3. Become aware of your best internal time and schedule your work accordingly.
4. Learn to say "No".
5. Use waiting time effectively.
6. Establish time limits for each task.
7. Never do anything that a student can do just as well.
8. Try to reduce the number of papers you take home to check.
9. Find an alternative to correcting every paper yourself.
10. Increase student responsibility for learning.
11. Handle each piece of paper only once.
13. Skim reading material.
14. Organize your desk and material.
15. Start meetings on time.
16. Avoid perfectionism.
17. Use break periods to restore energy.
18. Plan something you are excited about for each week.
19. Reward yourself for achieving difficult goals.
20. Minimize procrastination.
21. Take time to play.

On a national basis, a magazine in U.S. named, "Instructor", has been one of the best sources of time management information for teachers. In addition, 'Instructor' featured articles on time management in (January, April, and October of 1982).

Another tool available to today's teacher is a book by Mel Miller (1983) entitled "Getting Your Act Together: Time Management for the Classroom Teacher". The book covers all the basic principles of time management and applies them directly to the life and work of the classroom teacher.

Several articles have appeared that contain helpful information for teachers. "Business Education Forum" carried an article by Anita Weston in March of 1981. The title was "Teach Time Awareness in the classroom". Weston points out that older persons have greater difficulty in adjusting to new time management habits, and she advocates teaching time skills to high school students. She suggests one of the best ways to do this is for teachers to set good examples.
Madeline Hunter (1984) offered time saving suggestions in an article entitled "Pare Down Your Paperwork". Hunter gives the teacher several options to the continual on paper test approach. These include such items as giving answers verbally, writing one sentence summaries, and using hand signals and signs.

2.7 PRINCIPALS AS INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS

The focus of researchers during the past decade has considered principals as instructional leaders. The consensus of literature supports the tenets of an instructional leader as a pervasive visionary. Pellicer (1990) distinguished instructional leaders as those who provide direction, resources and support to teachers and students for the improvement of teaching and learning. Unlike school managers and educational administrators, instructional leaders strive for shared decision making, recognize situational leadership needs, plan with purpose, build common beliefs, and most of all, take risks. According to Pellicer (1990), instructional leaders understand their own beliefs, realize the importance of the right start, are able to make decisions with the best interest of students in mind, spend time problem finding, attend to important details, and earn the respect of their teachers as leaders.

Principals as instructional leaders have visions of what school and the educational process should be and act as change agents to bring about the structure necessary to approach that vision Nottingham (1983). An effective instructional leader must be a good follower since he is constantly
developing the talents of the others in pursuit of the group’s goals. **Nottingham (1983)** conveyed the expectation of a principal as an instructional leader in a four dimensional mode -- 1. the judicial decision maker 2. the conflict negotiator 3. the visionary conceptualizer, and 4. the catalyst for change. Additionally, he stated that instructional leaders are concerned with doing and are more interested in personal gratification of a job well done than in completion of the job for the common good. This self serving nature of leadership is, in Nottingham’s view, beneficial to the overall welfare of the school.

The above literature reveals the extent of work done in time management for School Administrators and Principals. It makes it clear that time management techniques find a definite and important place in school administrators.

These techniques could be trickled down to the level of teachers too. Literature on Time Management of teachers is scanty. However studies on Instructional planning by teachers have been reviewed along with studies with specific reference to women.

### 2.8 INSTRUCTIONAL PLANNING BY TEACHERS

Research on instructional planning is a fairly recent development. Thus far, the number of completed studies is small. Prior to (1970), when the first empirical study of instructional planning was undertaken by **Zahorik**, the
literature dealt primarily with untested ideas on instructional planning. A basic assumption underlying much of the early literature was that Tyler's (1950) model of curriculum planning best described teacher planning practices; it was natural then, that early research on planning investigated the role this model played in planning. As evidence began to accumulate, the weakness of the Tyler model became apparent. Interest then shifted to investigation of the decision making processes involved in planning. Recently, interest has focused on questions dealing with the relationship between planning and classroom practices.

2.8.1 Teacher Planning Practices

2.8.1.1 Teacher Reports of Planning Practices

The first general survey of teacher planning practices was conducted by Smith (1977). He distributed a questionnaire to 330 elementary teachers of two different school districts, one was a small suburban district and the other a large urban district. Eighty seven teachers responded.

Results of his survey are summarised as follows:

a. Teachers organized their planning on a weekly basis. In the urban district, 92% of the teachers who responded said they organised on a daily or weekly basis (with only a few indicating daily schedules); in the suburban district, 86% of
the respondents indicated they organized on a daily or weekly basis.

b. Over 80% of the teachers indicated they planned one or two weeks in advance. The mean response for urban teachers was 1.53 weeks and for the suburban teachers, it was 1.27 weeks.

c. The primary influence on teachers in making time allocations was the teachers’ estimation of the importance of the subject, either in general or to the class being taught in particular.

d. Over 93% of the suburban and 91% of the urban teachers used small groups for reading instruction.

e. One quarter of the teachers used self-constructed materials more than half of the time in reading. Over 42% used self-constructed materials over half of the time in Mathematics.

f. Published instructional series influenced planning decisions. The largest amount of time per week was spent in reading.

Clark and Yinger (1979) distributed a planning survey to approximately 300 teachers, 78 of which were returned. Teachers were asked
to describe the various kinds of planning they engage in, detail the considerations and constraints which influenced their planning, give reasons why they made plans which varied in length from a day to a year, and explain how the plans differed for different subject matters. Teachers were also asked to provide examples representing the three most important types of planning they did during the year.

Clark and Yinger summarized the results of their survey as follows:

a. Learning objectives were seldom the starting point for planning. Instead teachers planned around their students and around activities.

b. Teachers tended to limit their search for ideas to resources that were immediately available such as teacher editions of textbooks, magazine articles, films and suggestions from other teachers.

c. Teachers indicated that most of their planning was done for reading and language arts (5 hrs/week) followed by Mathematics (2.25 hrs/week), social studies (1.7 hrs/week) and science (1.4 hours per week).
d. Teacher planning was more explicit, involved a longer lead time in team teaching situations than in self-contained classrooms.

e. The most common form of written plans was an outline or list of topics to be covered, although, many teachers reported that the majority of planning was done mentally and never committed to paper.

Hemalatha Shyam Kolhe (1985) in her study, examines as to how married women employed as teachers manage the available time of twenty four hours and realise the importance of this most restricted resource. Kudesia (1986) identified activities in which teachers were engaged and the proportion of time the teachers devoted to those activities.

The characteristic of teachers to establish schedules early in the school year indicates that they intend to regularly provide time for activities in the different content areas. The existence of these schedules raises several questions. First, are planning time allocations (Schedules) similar or do they differ significantly? Smith (1977) suggested that there are important differences. Second, to what extent are teachers' planning time allocations associated with their actual time allocations? Schmitt, et al., raises a question about the validity of this assumption. Rochler and Schmitt (1979) found that actual time allocation for various subject matters differed considerably from teacher to teacher.
2.9 PERSONALITY AND HEALTH - EFFECT ON TIME MANAGEMENT

A psychological construct that has been useful in accounting for health is personality. In fact, personality types or dimensions have been related to many of the same health variables as has self control. These parallel relationships suggest that the construct of self control and personality may be closely related. Thus, a fundamental issue is whether self-control is synonymous with a particular personality type/dimension or a construct that cuts across a density of personality types.

Personality characteristics that are conducive to good self management appear to be reflected in the MBTI personality measures. For example, college faculty rated students who have an ESI (Extraversion, sensing, judging) type as having foresight in time management and tolerance for frustration. Extraversion (E) was associated with a high level of activity. Judging (J) with responsibility, steady work, industriousness, and willingness to take direction; and sensing (s) with masculine vigor (bodily energy) and willingness to take direction (Mayes, 1962).

2.9.1 Type of Personality

The postulation of personality 'types' belongs to the early of psychology, but some of the types are still in use and the approach has certain merits. The division of people into types like introvert and extrovert, dominant
and submissive has the defect that only a few people at the recognizable extremes and most fall in between cardiologist Meyer Friedman and Ray Rosenman (1969) speak of Type A and Type B personality of which Type A is more prone to stress related illness such as heart disease than Type B personality people.

Friedman and Rosenman say that Type A people are extremely competitive, act impatiently with the rate at which most events take place, move, walk and eat rapidly and are always in a hurry, feel strongly about success and social acceptance, explosively accentuate words in ordinary speech even when there is no need for it, speak rapidly the last words of most sentences, polyphasic (i.e. try to do two or more things at the same time), set several goals at once and rarely content themselves with working on just one project at a time, find it difficult to refrain from discussing subjects that interest them, get upset easily and become hostile towards those they perceive as competition, feel vaguely guilty when they relax, tend to set unrealistic goals for themselves, experience a chronic sense of time urgency.

They have a sense of time urgency and this is the very essence of Type A behaviour pattern. Being time oriented they tend to make schedules and list of activities for themselves, strictly punctual, they do not tolerate lateness to appointments and meetings. They get upset for instance, when they have to wait fifteen minutes to be in a restaurant, since this does not fill their idea of responsive service.
Friedman and Ray Rosenman say that Type B people are generally easy going, are seldom impatient (they contentedly wait for success, for lunch time, for trains or buses), don’t suffer from a sense of time urgency and are less concerned with schedules and deadlines, are able to see things in a longer perspective than Type A leaders. Set long term goals contentedly take longer to achieve goals, are realistic about what they can achieve and their goals reflect this realism. They tend to work on only one or two goals at a time, generally labor under little or no free-floating hostility and feel little need to display or discuss their achievements, tend to play for plays sake, know how to relax seldom compete, relax without guilt, do not worry much and are not relatively anxious about their future.

2.9.2 Behavioural Traits

Behaviour pattern of individuals is found to play a causal role in effective time management practices. Behaviour patterns of individuals may include introverts and extraverts Jung C.G. (1954) Inner vs Outer directness Rotter J.B. (1966) flexibility vs rigidity Marshall (1978). Type ‘A’ vs Type ‘B’ Friedman and Rosenman (1969) etc.

In the late 1950’s Drs. Meyer Friedman and Ray Rosenman led the field of cardiology into a study of what they later called Type ‘A’ behaviour, a coronary prone behaviour pattern. Type ‘A’ is a style of behaviour with which some persons habitually respond to circumstances, that arouse them. Type ‘A’ behaviour pattern involves many features like an
eagerness to compete, a desire for recognition, quickness of physical and mental functioning, a fierce drive towards poorly defined objectives, self imposed deadlines, anguish at repetitive chores, multiple thinking and acting, impatience at rate of progress of events, a sense of guilt at relaxing and rapid overt behaviour (walking, eating, talking, etc.).

Type 'A' individuals tend to work near their maximum rate even when there is no explicit time deadline. They display greater work involvement, strongly endorse the work efficiently and tend to produce more work of higher quality than Type 'B' Colleman and Glass, (1976). They tend to be achievement striving and hostile.

Type 'B' individuals, on the other hand, are free of all such habits of Type 'A' individuals. They seldom feel any sense of time, urgency or impatience. They possess patience and almost always speak, walk and eat at a moderate speed. The Type 'B' behaviour tends to evoke a very pleasant feeling of relaxation and serenity in others. They can withstand severe shocks and still endure and seldom become angry and irritable. They tend to enjoy their recreation, finding it fun and relaxing and they work calmly and smoothly. Their voice constantly seems pleasant and their laughter delightful. They know what to overlook or disregard. In addition most of the Type 'B' people appear capable of giving and receiving praise and affection, which makes them less vulnerable to irritation (Friedman and Ulmer, 1984).
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makes them less vulnerable to irritation (Friedman and Ulmer, 1984).
2.9.3 Behaviour Traits - Type A and Type B

Carver, Coleman and Glass (1976) conclude from their survey, that Type A individuals, tend to work near their maximal rate even when there is no explicit time deadline. They display greater work involvement, strongly enclose the work ethic and tend to produce more work of higher quality than Type 'B'. Such behaviour, in turn results in the experience of greater stress.

Suinn (1977) points out that Type 'A' patterns of behaviour are learned patterns of behaviour. Type 'A' individuals experience many stresses - work overload, need for promotion and recognition, deadlines, etc. Secondary stress may result when achievement is blocked. He observes that a consequence of Type 'A' behaviour is reinforcement, as the individual is likely (a) to achieve his or her goal and (b) to reduce the original stress situation. Type 'A' behaviours which are strengthened through reinforcement, are themselves stress producing, as such individuals tend to put themselves in situations which involve stress because of high level of drive. They then react to this increased stress by displaying those very patterns which have been strongly reinforced. Thus, the individual is caught in a vicious circle from which he finds it difficult to extricate himself.

Rosenman and Chesney (1980) have reported that Type 'A' individuals have been particularly challenged by situations in which their control is threatened. The primary responses of Type 'A' persons to these
situations is to struggle aggressively to exert and to maintain control over their environment. Thus TABP (Type 'A' Behaviour pattern) is a characteristic style of responding to and coping with environmental challenge (stress).

Jennings and Choi (1981)'s studies elicit that Type 'A' subjects tend to show a greater heart-rate and blood pressure responses to a variety of psychomotor and cognitive laboratory stressors.

Mathews' (1986) analysis showed that even though Type 'A' construct grew out of research implicating stress and negative feelings in coronary heart disease, these have often been ignored in studies of Type 'A'. Being Type 'A' does seem to place one at higher risk for injury or death from stroke and from physical trauma but the evidence linking Type 'A' to other stress related disease is weak and mixed.

Friedman and Rosenman (1974) believe that individuals with Type 'A' personalities are pre-disposed to develop premature coronary heart disease. Their research on 3411 mean aged 39-59 years showed that within that age group 85 percent of those who developed coronary heart disease were originally diagnosed as having Type 'A' personalities.

Caplan (1971) holds that under potentially stressful objective conditions, Type 'A' persons are prone to perceive stress in a quite exaggerated fashion. Such a person, is enmeshed in his inexorable torrent of life, creating harsh but unnecessary self imposed deadlines and work
standards; making a mountain of urgency and perfection out of a mole-hill of moderate work demands.

House (1972) concluded that a central psychological trait of the Type 'A' is his 'desire for social achievement' (reflected in ambition, competitiveness, aggressiveness etc), a trait analogous to what others term 'status seeking' or extrinsic motivation for working (i.e. desire for money, status recognition) as opposed to intrinsic motivation (i.e., desire for interesting, self satisfying work). But he also concludes that the role of personality and behaviour in leading men into situations of stress and/or accentuating the effects of such situations will only be classified by further research.

Some personality dimensions have been predictive of physical health measures. Sensing personality types have been shown to have a greater incidence of coronary heart disease than the other type (Thorne, Fyfe, and Carskaden, 1983). In a study of the influence of psychological factors in the progression of cancer in women, results showed cancer spread and mortality to be related to repressive personality style, reduced repression of negative affect, helplessness, hopelessness, and chronic illness Lemen, (1987). Also, personality traits of anger, aggression, and hostility have been found to be predisposing factors for coronary heart disease Eysenck, (1991). Rawler and Schmired (1992) found that Type A personality in women was associated with greater illness frequently than Type B personality, and
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psychological variables most related to good health in women was an internal locus of control.

Variables such as stress, academic performance, burnout, psychiatric hospitalization, and health habits have been related to MBTI personality type, self-management skills, and time management skills. However, at the present time, no research has examined the potential correlations of self-management and time management with personality types.

If self-management and time-management skills are more pronounced with certain personality types than other types, then self-management and time-management strategies may be more applicable with some personality types than others. If, however, self-management and time-management are unrelated to personality type, then self-management and time management programmes could conceivably be used to improvemental health, work efficiency and academic performance across personality types.

Personality of an individual is a major factor which affects his working pattern, his adaptation to the work environment and ability to take in new ideas and adopt them in day today schedules. The personality of an individual greatly affects self-management and self-management paves way for organizational management.

The purpose of this chapter was to review the related literature on time management and Type A and Type B Behaviour Pattern. The review of
literature shows that the bulk of information was not aimed directly at teachers and teaching, however. Nevertheless, the literature contains valuable information that can help teachers make better use of time.

The review of literature would indicate that people are just at the beginning of time management for teachers. The review also points out why teachers need to become better time managers. Research in the area of time management of higher secondary school teachers has not been undertaken hitherto. And hence the present study is a worthwhile attempt to find out the Time Management of teachers in Higher Secondary Schools in the city of Madras.