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A study of the time management practices of Alabama principals.

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A STUDY OF THE
TIME MANAGEMENT PRACTICES OF
ALABAMA PRINCIPALS

by

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A DISSERTATION

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ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION
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Title A Study of the Time Management Practices of Alabama Principals

This study examined the degree to which Alabama principals utilize specific time management practices. The study also examined similarities and differences in the use of these time management practices according to the type of school in which the principal is employed, the gender of the principal, the degree held by the principal, the age of the principal, and years of experience as a principal.

An eight-point Likert-type survey, entitled *Time Management Rating Scale*, was sent to a proportional stratified random sampling of 614 Alabama principals based on school level. There was a very proportional return rate of 69%. Participants were asked the degree to which they use each of 62 time management practices. Participants were also asked several questions regarding their use of word processing programs, electronic mail, and voice mail. Survey data was used to test the null hypotheses and research questions.

Descriptive discriminant analysis was used to analyze differences between groups examined in the null hypotheses. The school level accounted for a statistically significant difference in the use of the time management practices by responding principals. The gender of the principals also accounted for a statistically significant difference. Neither the degree held by the principal, age of the principal, nor the number of years experience as a principal tended to significantly impact use of time management practices of respondents.

Mean and standard deviation data were used to construct a profile of most commonly used and least commonly used time management practices. Frequency and percentage data were used to analyze demographic data and questions regarding principals' use of technology.

A number of recommendations were made for principal preparation programs, as well as for practicing principals. The primary recommendation encouraged specific formal time management training.

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CHAPTER 1

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

Introduction

In the book *The Harried Leisure Class*, Linder (1970, p.1) opens with the following poem:

> *Good-by, Sir, excuse me, I haven't time.*
> *I'll come back, I can't wait, I haven't time.*
> *I must end this letter- I haven't time.*
> *I'd love to help you, but I haven't time*
> *I can't accept, having no time*
> *I can't think, I can't read, I'm swamped, I haven't time*
> *I'd like to pray, but I haven't time.*
> — Michel Quoist

Perhaps everyone, at some time or another, feels time constraints similar to those expressed in this poem. Many authors have addressed the subject of time management, usually from the standpoint of the business executive. In the field of education, the principalship is one arena where great demands and limited time pose potential problems.

When a community dreams of an effective school for its young, that community must realize the need for an effective principal at the helm of its school. Daresh (cited in Spradling, 1989) states that the principal is a key ingredient in an effective school. This point is echoed by Roney, DeLong, Bloomer, and Lindsey (1990) and by Ellett and Licata (1987). A people who desire excellence in the educational process owe it to themselves to examine the nature of the principalship, to examine the magnitude of the job, and identify those attributes that combine to produce outstanding principals.

This paper will examine briefly those attributes, and attempt to paint a portrait of what the literature finds is the effective principal, as well as identify the various roles a principal plays. The picture unveiled will be that of a multifaceted job. As the story of the effective principal unfolds, so too unfolds the inherent problem. Though the possible tasks a principal may tackle seems infinite, the dimension of time is surely finite.

Statement of the Problem

The question emerges, "What practices can the principal use to better manage time?" That question deserves an answer, and it is that question that will become the central problem undertaken in this research. A review of ERIC, *Dissertation Abstracts*, books, and periodicals revealed that no such study has recently been completed on Alabama principals.

Though the main function of the principal is instructional leader (Roney et al., 1990), this role is often neglected due to managerial-type duties. In 1987, a study by Pellicer, Anderson, Keefe, Kelley, and McCleary found that 70% of all principals surveyed by the NASSP identify the amount of time spent on administrative details and an overall lack of time as major obstacles to being effective in their positions (cited in Tanner & Atkins, 1990). In a survey of 403 Georgia principals, the greatest problem facing them is completing the large amount of paperwork without neglecting attention given to students, teachers, and parents (Katz, 1988).

Clearly, the principal's time is at a premium. Because time is limited, the principal is well advised to make the best use of his or her time. The principal, however, may be unaware of the various time management practices available to him or her, or may be unaware of the impact certain time management practices can make on his or her overall effectiveness.

Purpose of the Study

This study will examine the degree to which Alabama principals utilize specific time management practices. The study will also examine similarities and differences in the use of these time management practices according to the type of school (elementary, middle, high, or multilevel school) in which the principal is employed, the gender of the principal, the degree held by the principal, the age of the principal, and the years of experience as a principal.

The subject of time management has received serious treatment. Books, articles, and seminars on the subject are common. The vast majority of the treatments this subject receives, however, is directed towards the business community (Furman & Zibrada, 1990). Many of the time management practices discussed through those avenues are applicable to the school executive as well.

Examination of the literature reveals some treatment of the subject of time management as it applies particularly to the school principal. Given the special nature of the school setting, information of this type is especially relevant and interesting, especially for current and aspiring principals.

The literature, whether written for the school executive or the business executive, offers many suggested time management practices. The reader may well ask the question, "To what extent do principals actually make use of the specific time management practices addressed in the literature?" Examination of the literature, however, reveals a lack of information aimed at answering this question. For this reason, the researcher has undertaken the study outlined in this paper.

Null Hypotheses

Analysis of the problem leads to the formation of the following null hypotheses:

1. There will be no significant differences in the responses of elementary principals, middle level principals, high school principals, and multilevel principals regarding their use of specific time management practices.

2. There will be no significant differences in the responses of male principals and female principals regarding their use of specific time management practices.

3. There will be no significant differences in the responses of principals who hold a master's degree and principals who hold a degree beyond a master's degree regarding their use of specific time management practices.

4. There will be no significant differences in the responses of principals 40 years of age and below, principals 41 to 50 years of age, and principals 51 years of age and above regarding their use of specific time management practices.

5. There will be no significant differences in the responses of principals with 0 to 3 years' experience in the principalship, principals with 4 to 9 years' experience in the principalship, and principals with 10 or more years' experience in the principalship regarding their use of specific time management practices.

Research Questions

While collecting and analyzing the data necessary to reject or fail to reject the null hypotheses, the researcher was interested in finding answers to these research questions:

1. Will a profile of time management practices for elementary, middle level, high school, and multilevel principals reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

2. Will a profile of time management practices for male and female principals reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

3. Will a profile of time management practices for principals who hold a master's degree and principals who hold a degree beyond a master's reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

4. Will a profile of time management practices for principals from the age of 40 and below, principals from the ages of 41 to 50, and principals from the age of 51 and above reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

5. Will a profile of time management practices for principals with 0 to 3 years' experience in the principalship, principals with 4 to 9 years' experience in the principalship, and principals with 10 or more years' experience in the principalship reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

6. What time management practices will respondents identify they use with greatest frequency?

7. What time management practices will respondents identify they use with least frequency?

8. What are the psychometric characteristics of the instrument with this particular population?

Limitations of the Study

This study focused on a specific group of principals. That group constituted those persons currently employed as principals in Alabama public schools. The results of this study should not automatically be generalized to other populations. The results, however, may be useful to other populations as well.

Validity of any study is limited by the nonrespondents. One can only assume that those who did not respond would have responded in the same general manner as those who did. Due to the nature of this study, that assumption is perhaps far less likely. Those who received surveys but failed to respond may have done so for reasons linked to their time management skills. Full participation by principals selected for the study would have been valuable.

The final limitation of the study is the assumption that a principal can accurately evaluate the degree to which he or she uses a particular time management practice. The use of the survey method of data collection was viewed as the most efficient.

Assumptions of the Study

The following points were assumed to be true:

1. Subjects will respond honestly to the items on the survey.

2. Subjects will be able to rate accurately the degree to which they utilize the specific time management practices included on the survey.

3. The mailout and follow up system will yield a sufficient return of surveys.

4. Nonrespondents would have responded in the same proportionate manner as those who did respond.

Operational Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions apply:

1. Principal—the person employed by a school district whose functions are to administer, supervise, and manage the activities common to a school unit.

2. Elementary school principal—the person employed by a school district whose functions are to administer, supervise, and manage the activities common to a school unit

housing grades below the seventh grade. To be included in this category, the school must house students as young as the seventh grade.

3. Middle level principal—the person employed by a school district whose functions are to administer, supervise, and manage the activities common to a school unit housing any combination of grades 4 to 9, provided that if the school contains grades lower than grade 6, that it also contain grades as high as grade 7. The term "middle level" will be used only to indicate the grade levels housed in the unit, rather than to refer to a particular philosophy of education.

4. High school principal—the person employed by a school district whose functions are to administer, supervise, and manage the activities common to a school unit housing grades 10, 11, or 12, and housing no grade lower than grade 7.

5. Multilevel principal—the person employed by a school district whose functions are to administer, supervise, and manage the activities common to a school unit housing grades exceeding the limits of the previous three categories.

6. Master's degree—a graduate degree just past the bachelor's degree in the field of school administration, or certification in school administration held in conjunction with a graduate degree in an academic discipline.

7. Beyond a master's degree—a "AA" certificate in school administration, an Educational Specialist degree in school administration, or a doctorate in school administration.

8. Time management practices—any of a number of behaviors or tendencies mentioned in the "Review of Literature" or on the *Time Management Rating Scale* used in this study that relate to saving time or using time in a more efficient or effective manner.

Organization of the Study

This study is composed of five chapters. Chapter 1 presents an introduction to the study, outlines the problem, discusses the purpose of the study, presents both null hypotheses and research questions, sets forth the limitations as well as the assumptions of the study, and defines the terms central to the study. Chapter 2 reviews briefly literature related to the role of the principal, and reviews extensively specific time management practices.

Chapter 3 describes the instrument used for the survey, the procedures used in conducting the study, and methods by which the data will be analyzed. Chapter 4 presents an analysis of the data collected in the study. The final chapter, Chapter 5, summarizes the findings of the study, presents the study's conclusions, details implications, and provides both recommendations for further study as well as recommendations for principal preparation and development programs.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The Effective Principal

What makes a school effective? The educational community has wrestled with this questions for over 2 decades. Research shows an effective principal is a key element in the effectiveness of the entire school (Ellett & Licata 1987; Taylor, 1993; Roney et al., 1990). When the research describes the effective principal, it generally does so with terms used to describe "leaders" rather than "managers" (Ellett & Licata).

Describing the effective principal is a complex process. Many authors have addressed the subject, each providing a slightly different look at the job, the demands, and the person who fills it.

High visibility is one of the characteristics used to describe the effective principal. These principals spend a great deal of time outside of their offices (Frase & Melton, 1992). The authors point to research suggesting "management by wandering around" has a positive influence on both teachers and students. Blaze (cited in Frase & Melton, 1992) points to a relationship between the principal's visibility in the school and improved discipline, improved acceptance of criticism and advice by students, and is linked to feelings in teachers of greater control, patience, and confidence.

Leadership, especially in the instructional program, is a second characteristic of effective principals. Weber (cited in Ubben & Hughes, 1987) states that principals in effective schools exert strong leadership. They have high expectations for their students. These principals are able to maintain an orderly atmosphere. They place an emphasis on reading skills. Finally, they stress frequent evaluations. Edmonds (cited in Ubben & Hughes) echoes to a great extent these characteristics. Edmonds says principals in effective schools stress strong leadership, high expectations for students, an orderly but not rigid atmosphere, an emphasis on basic skills, and an emphasis on student progress. Brookover and Lezotte (cited in Ubben & Hughes) identified the characteristics of assertive instructional leadership, strong discipline, an emphasis on achievement, and evaluation of objectives as characteristics of principals in effective schools.

Bossert, Dwyer, Rowen, and Lee (cited in Stronge, 1990) identified the areas of human relations, organization, decision making, and goal setting as being central areas of the principal's leadership role. Most all studies on school effectiveness find school leaders create a safe and orderly environment that has a sense of purpose (Roney et al., 1990).

Lunenburg (1990) investigated the relationship between a set of 16 personality factors and the performance of principals. In the study, Lunenburg used 48 elementary school principals and 33 secondary school principals from a large school district. The study found the more successful principals to be, on the whole, more educated, more self-sufficient, more imaginative, more assertive, and more warm-hearted.

Dull (cited in Poston, 1992) lists four roles of effective principals:

1. Visionary role—Comprehensive mental model of effective schooling, goal setting and sharing, communicating the school's academic mission, becoming an instructional agent.

2. Facilitator role—Listening and affirming, coordinating and aligning curriculum, teaching, assessing, grouping pupils for instructional purposes, depending upon others.

3. Evaluator role—Monitoring instructional program, gathering intelligence, assessing teacher performance in classrooms, scrutinizing student progress.

4. Improver role—Coping with weakness, developing staff, solving problems, training and modeling provider, and "letting go."

Gottfredson and Hybl (cited in Roney et al., 1990) identified 14 job factors to be the most important among surveyed principals: (a) directing staff, (b) providing observation and feedback, (c) planning and acting for school improvement, (d) managing personnel, (e) developing policy, (f) keeping up-to-date, (g) managing instruction, (h) interacting with students and providing social control, (i) managing parent and community relations, (j) interacting with the school system, (k) coping with disorder, (l) managing the budget, (m) managing cocurricular activities, and (n) directing union negotiations.

Valentine and Bowman (1991) set out to identify characteristics of effective principals, and the relationship between the effectiveness of the school and the effectiveness of its principal. The researchers sent a packet of information to each of the 271 schools which were recognized in the year 1987 by the U.S. Department of Education "School Recognition Program." The researchers also sent the same packet of information to 250 secondary schools randomly selected from around the country. These schools would serve as the control group.

All of the schools used in the experiment were sent the same instrument, the "Audit of Principal Effectiveness." The instrument's 80 items measured nine areas of principal effectiveness. Ten teachers from each staff completed the instrument, answering questions on a Likert-type scale. The instrument was designed to measure the areas of organizational direction, organizational linkage, organizational procedures, teacher relations, student relations, interactive processes, affective processes, instructional improvement, and curriculum improvement.

Valentine and Bowman found that in all categories, principals of the recognized schools were rated higher than principals of nonrecognized schools. Teachers in the "recognized schools" rated their principals especially high in organizational direction (providing a direction or vision for the school), interactive processes (the day-to-day running of the school), and organizational linkage (developing a positive relationship between the school and other bodies, such as the community, and other educators).

The findings describe the effective principal as one who can identify and accomplish specific goals with the help of his or her staff, the parents, and the community. Such principals give their faculty and parents the feeling the school is running in a smooth manner. These principals have the confidence of their teachers, and are perceived as effective in job areas identified with curriculum and instruction. Their findings confirm the common belief that effective schools have at their helms effective principals.

Levine and Ornstein (cited in Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1991) have reviewed numerous research studies done between 1980 and 1990 regarding characteristics of effective principals. In general, these principals provide strong leadership in the areas of curriculum and instruction, and have implemented in their schools the following ideals: (a) high expectation for student achievement; (b) well-articulated curricula; (c) well-articulated instructional programs; (d) clearly defined goals, objectives, or standards; (e) maximized learning time; (f) an emphasis on reading and math skills; (g) staff-development programs (and other avenues for professional growth); (h) a sense of order in the classrooms and school; (i) a method of monitoring student progress; (j) incentives or rewards for students and teachers; (k) parent-community involvement; and (l) positive school climate.

Walker (1990) performed a case study involving 3 principals of award-winning schools. In the study, Walker shadowed these principals for a period of 4 weeks. One principal was selected from each level—elementary, middle school, and high school. Each principal's actions were summarized as they related to 10 areas. These areas are those identified by the NASSP's Assessment Center project as being key skills in principal effectiveness:

1. Problem analysis. The principal is called on to make many decisions during the day. He or she must break the problem down, analyze its parts, and reach a decision.

2. Judgment. Exemplary principals seek all of the facts before making decisions. The students were generally given the benefit of the doubt in disciplinary matters, but were issued stiff warnings about further problems. Exemplary principals gave students second chances.

3. Organizational ability. Exemplary principals hold meetings which have purpose, and where input is solicited. Materials, rooms, or whatever is needed are ready. Exemplary principals also take work home.

4. Oral and written communication. Poor communication is usually the root of a problem. This area is perhaps the most important area for a principal. Exemplary principals communicate well with the school secretary. They are highly involved with students and student groups. They can back up points with numerous examples.

5. Decisiveness. Exemplary principals must make firm decisions. Certain policies handed down from the central office must be enforced. The principal must act quickly and firmly when such action is needed.

6. Leadership. Exemplary principals are visible. They visit classrooms. Teacher input is sought, and their good ideas implemented.

7. Sensitivity. Exemplary principals put themselves in the other person's shoes. They remember birthdays and express appreciation for a job well done. In general, they show they care about people.

8. Stress tolerance. The principalship brings with it a great deal of stress. The ability to think quickly, see the big picture, and develop a plan of action were identified as ways to help with stress. A sense of humor is an advantage. In addition, a program of physical exercise is a way of relieving stress.

9. Motivation. Accomplishing goals and looking at problems as opportunities motivates exemplary principals. Helping a child to learn appropriate behavior is a second motivator. The increasingly comprehensive role schools play in the lives of many children was seen as a motivator.

10. Range of interests and educational values. The exemplary principals examined enjoy sports. They enjoy working with young people. Their areas of expertise is great. The exemplary principals want to see people succeed. They are conscious of time on task.

Daresh (cited in Spradling, 1989) provides two conclusions of effective schools research. The first is the principal is a key ingredient in an effective school. The second is the principal's daily management of school affairs inhibits him or her from effecting change in the school.

The profile of an effective middle school principal is a person between the ages of 45 and 54. The representative principal has spent from 10 to 14 years as a principal, of which 9 to 11 of those years are in the current school. Valentine, Clark, Nickerson, and Keefe (cited in Clark, 1991) found effective middle school principals tend to be older and more experienced than the general population of middle school principals.

The Roles of the Principalship

The principalship is a multifaceted job. Miklos (cited in Sergiovanni, 1987) summarizes the tasks and functions of the principal in six areas: (a) the school program, (b) pupil personnel, (c) staff personnel, (d) community relations, (e) physical facilities, and (f) management. Sergiovanni states this summary encompasses common themes from many available lists. The literature addresses and expands upon each of these functions.

The Principal as Instructional Leader

The notion of the principal being the instructional leader of a school is as old as the term "principal" itself. Rossow (1990) states the term originated as an adjective designating which one of the teachers was the one "in charge." The original term used was "principal teacher." The term later became shortened to "principal" during the rise of scientific management techniques and a shift in the position to a more managerial role.

The most important element of the principalship is that of instructional leadership (Psencik, 1989; Bauer, 1993). Psencik examined effective leadership skills in order to help principals assess their own skills. In addition, her study sought to determine differences between perceptions teachers and administrators have as to the important roles of the principal. Elementary teachers, secondary teachers, and administrators all ranked instructional leadership as the most important function of the principal.

Bauer (1993) analyzed the perception of Alabama teachers and principals regarding the role of the principal as the instructional leader. Of the surveyed teachers, 87.5% perceived the principal's most important role was that of instructional leader.

The National Association of Secondary Principals (cited in Ubben & Hughes, 1987) lists four traits of an effective instructional leader:

> 1. They hold high expectations for teachers and staff.
> 2. They spend the majority of their day working with teachers and improving the instructional program.
> 3. They work in identifying and diagnosing instructional problems.
> 4. They are deeply involved in the school's "culture" climate to influence it in a positive way. (p. 17)

Stoll (cited in Morris, Crowson, Porter-Gehrie, & Hurwitz, 1984) found that effective schools are more likely to have administrators who communicate the importance of reading, work towards a coordinated reading program, and provide adequate instructional materials for teachers and students. Sybouts and Wendel (1994) add that effective instructional leaders are knowledgeable about instructional resources, provide their teachers with needed resources, and obtain needed resources which support identified school goals. In addition, these principals assist teachers with developing the best instructional practices, and engage in evaluation which promotes improved instruction throughout the school.

Keefe (1991) states that strong instructional leaders exhibit strengths in at least three specific areas. These areas are content competence, methodological competence, and supervisory competence. Content competence refers to knowledge of subject matter, practices, and trends. Methodological competence deals with knowledge of pedagogical techniques and the ability of the principal to help teachers better use these techniques.

Supervisory competence relates to the principal's ability to manage a program of supervision. This program could include peer supervision, supervision by the principal, and other aspects of clinical supervision.

Sybouts and Wendel (1994) say effective principals are "transformational" leaders as opposed to being "transactional" leaders. Transformational leaders help staff members establish and maintain a professional culture, foster teacher development, and solve problems together. When transformational leadership is practiced, the organization feels a sense of ownership.

Miklos (cited in Sergiovanni, 1987) sets forth a number of specific examples of how the principal functions as the instructional leader of the school. The principal is in charge of devising the master schedule for the school as well as individual student programs. He or she makes decisions and seeks input into course content, as well as seeing that local and state courses of study are followed. The principal must also assess outcomes and adequacy of all programs in the school.

Unfortunately, what principals do on a daily basis differs from what they know they should be doing. The most important task of the principal is to supervise classroom instruction, while evaluating and improving teacher performance (Morris et al., 1984). In practice, however, Peterson (cited in Morris et al., 1984) found elementary principals spend less than 5% of their time observing teachers and no more than 6% of their day planning and coordinating the instructional program. High school principals spent 17.4% of their day on instructional leadership.

In another study, Webster (1994) conducted interviews with principals in all regions of the United States. His findings include that few schools actually could be identified as being involved in major restructuring programs. More often, programs were aimed at solving immediate short-term problems. From Webster's research, most real instruc-tional improvement came from department heads within the schools.

Being the instructional leader of a school is a big responsibility, and no one person can hope to accomplish the job alone. Involving other people is a key component in this area of the principalship (Ubben & Hughes, 1987). Involvement in the planning phase increases commitment of teachers. The actual involvement of teachers in the implementation plan builds the sense of ownership vital to the success of a project.

The Principal as Pupil Personnel Coordinator

Students are certainly the most important element in any school. The principal is entrusted with looking out for their well-being. In fact, this element must be a main priority for the principal (Sybouts and Wendel, 1994). The many programs in this area of the principalship are subject to constantly changing local, state, and federal guidelines, as well as changes imposed by society or community beliefs and values.

The principal assesses the needs of the students, filling those needs within his or her locus and control, and communicating to the superintendent those needs which are outside of his or her locus of control. These student needs addressed include those of space, programs, services, and the grouping of students (Miklos, cited in Sergiovanni, 1987).

The literature links the principal with the establishment and maintenance of a good school climate. Theunissen (1994) found the principal to be the person who determines the organizational climate of a school. Hall (1989) found that effective principals felt their greatest strength to be in the area of school climate improvement. Rist (cited in Morris et al., 1984) found the principal to be the creator of the school's atmosphere of ideas, values, and acceptable standards of behavior.

Rutter (cited in Morris et al., 1984) helps define the elements which combine to create a school climate. Several elements bear directly on school effectiveness:

> 1. Academic emphasis (including homework policies, display of student work, and ratio of teaching to non-teaching time).
> 2. Student reward and punishment programs.
> 3. Clean and tidy facility.
> 4. Policies regarding student responsibilities and participation.
> 5. Staff cooperation on planning courses. (p. 75)

Webster (1994) reports that the principals he interviewed tend to acquire a great deal of satisfaction from student accomplishment. They tend to manage students primarily through being visible and keeping abreast of what is happening in their buildings. Webster cites "management by wandering around," attending student activities, tutoring, sponsoring student forums, and substitute teaching as ways to get to know students.

Lipham, Rankin, and Hoeh (1985) describe the need for including students in the decision-making process to foster this atmosphere. The development of cocurricular activities and student government functions encourage student interest and involvement. The principal can also use the avenues of guidance and advisory programs to develop and maintain a productive school climate. Studies such as this one show that in the area of pupil personnel coordination, as with instructional leadership, the principal cannot accomplish the job alone.

<u>The Principal as Staff Personnel Coordinator</u>

Of all of the gifts a principal can give his or her student body, perhaps the greatest is the gift of the best teachers which can be found. The principal is entrusted with recruiting and selecting staff members according to present and perceived future needs. He or she assigns staff members to specific functions and assesses both formally and informally the effectiveness of each individual. In addition, the principal supplies the motivation and facilitates the communication which promotes effectiveness (Miklos, cited in Sergiovanni, 1987).

Lipham, et al. (1985) identify five major staff development functions:

> 1. Identification of new staff—including the recruiting and selection of staff.
> 2. Assignment of staff—to new positions, subsequent positions, and positions of differentiating roles.
> 3. Orientation of staff—to the curriculum, staff, students, and community.
> 4. Evaluation of staff—including when, why, what, and how to evaluate.
> 5. Improvement of staff—through classroom observation, individual conferences, school visitation, professional associations, professional libraries, student-teaching programs, and in-service programs. (pp. 160-161)

Early research on the principalship suggests the effective principal establishes a democratic relationship with staff members (Morris et al., 1984). Indicators of this democratic ideal include the principal fully involving teachers in directing the school, valuing the opinions of faculty and staff members, and seeking the opinions of members of the faculty and staff.

Stogdill (cited in Morris et al, 1984) examined the aspects of "consideration" and "structure" in rating principals. Stogdill's findings included principals who ranked high on both scales were most likely to be accepted by teachers and gain the highest degree of teacher satisfaction.

Schabb (1992) states that communication with staff constitutes the major staff development vehicle principals use. The major thrust of communication takes the form of encouragement.

Wolcott (cited in Morris et al., 1984) speaks of the role of the principal as a socializer of teachers into norms, values, and standard operating procedures of the schools. Wolcott cited such examples as acceptable teacher dress, use of school telephones, and how long one should remain at the end of the school day as specific examples of how principals direct social norms of teachers.

Blase and Kirby (1992) found that effective principals do the following things to motivate and improve their teachers: (a) praise teachers' efforts, (b) convey high expectations for teacher and student performances, (c) actively involve teachers in decision making, (d) provide teachers the autonomy to try creative approaches, (e) support teachers by providing materials, training opportunities, and backing in student discipline matters, (f) nudge teachers to consider alternative solutions to instruction and discipline problems, (g) judiciously evoke the power of authority, and (h) consistently model effective practice.

Sybouts and Wendel (1994) illustrate the difficult role the principal plays in the area of staff personnel coordinator. These authors compare the principal to the priest who listens to confessions, but also serves as the policeman, judge, and jury. Indeed, the principal is the one who decides which staff members are to be terminated. Such a role inhibits an open and honest relationship between teachers in a school and the principal of that school.

Webster (1994) sees a growing rise in shared decision making in schools. At the same time, Webster's research shows principals feel they are held responsible for decisions made, and therefore tend to reserve final authority for themselves. Webster also states many of principals have no plan and give little thought to motivation of teachers within the school.

The Principal as Community Relations Facilitator

Sybouts and Wendel (1994) say the effective principal will have good relationships with the community the school serves. They emphasize two-way communication between the school and community. In general, the aim of the school is to establish a positive image in the minds of the community. The "community" consists of a number of groups. These groups include parents, special interest groups, the media, and businesses. The effective principal will make every attempt to establish and maintain good relations with each of these groups.

The principal plans and implements a program of contact between the school and its community. He or she is responsible for influencing the attitudes of the community toward its school. The principal facilitates exchange of information between the school and community on a regular basis via a well-planned schedule of contacts. The principal is also responsible for determining the effectiveness of the plan and making changes as needed (Miklos, cited in Sergiovanni, 1987).

The principal should answer two questions for himself or herself before beginning the process of building a community relations program. First the principal must determine what issues are of concern to the community. Secondly, the principal must learn who the people are in the community who are responsible for shaping opinion of that community (Rossow, 1990).

One of the best methods for gaining support is to involve the community in the school (Rossow, 1990). Through their involvement with the school, community members begin to acquire a feeling of ownership, and are more inclined to lend support.

Kindred, Bagin, and Gallagher (cited in Thomason, 1993) emphasize effective community relations are built upon open and honest relationships. These relationships are created by two-way communication with specific audiences. Business leaders, senior citizens, and community leaders serve as examples of such audiences. Within each group, the principal seeks "key communicators" who have been in the community for some time, and whose views are generally representative of the group.

Parents play an important role in any community relations program (National School Public Relations Association, 1986). Parents should be informed of programs and policies and be given the opportunity to voice concerns as well as contribute ideas.

Good relations with the media is good community relations. By establishing credibility with the media, principals can influence what will be reported and how it will be reported by the media (Ordovensky, 1986).

Rossow (1990) points out the need for the principal to be a good communicator through various avenues. A school newsletter is an effective way to communicate the school's message. The principal's ability to present to the media happenings which are "newsworthy" is another skill which will ultimately build relations between the school and the community.

Whittle (1988) conducted a study to assess Georgia elementary principals' programs in the area of school and community relations. The study found those schools who were named a "Georgia School of Excellence" were more likely than other schools to use school newsletters, the media, and other types of written communication to tell the school's story to the community.

Webster (1994) says principals must come to know the various groups within the community and the key people within each group. They must also understand how these groups function together. The principals Webster interviewed tended to work well with churches and social agencies in the community. In areas where minority enrollment in the school is high or growing, the principals tended to talk of involving parents more in the school.

Webster saw from his research that the business community is becoming more heavily involved in improving schools. The greatest involvement was seen in providing financial support for specific programs.

The Principal as Manager of the School Facility

The principal may or may not have input into designing the facility, but usually always makes decisions on how the existing space is used. He or she matches program, staff, and student needs with available space. Needs which cannot be handled at the building level are communicated to the superintendent (Miklos, cited in Sergiovanni, 1987).

Thomason (1993) gives several examples of how an effective principal views the physical plant. The effective principal can take a traditional "egg crate" building and show how it can be modified to facilitate learning. He or she can design a school building when given a profile of the teachers and students it will serve. Third, the effective principal can take a model of an existing school and generate at least five ideas for modifying the school environment.

Sybouts and Wendel (1994) define the role of the principal in this area in several ways. The principal should insure the building is aesthetically pleasing. The facility should run in a cost effective manner. The building should be functional, easy to maintain, and safe. Sometimes these roles conflict. The principal may have to rearrange the way space is used in order to facilitate the delivery of the curriculum. At the same time, low cost due to the use of space must be maintained.

Maintaining the facility is complicated by the extended use of facilities for after-school activities, weekend activities, and summer activities by both student groups and community groups (Lipham et al., 1985). These uses place more burden on custodians, as well as the principal who is entrusted with supervising the maintenance aspect of the facility.

Ubben and Hughes (1987) state that the two of the most important aspects of managing the facility are to keep the building clean and work effectively with the custodians. The principal, custodians, and entire staff should pay constant attention to internal flaws such as leaks in the roof or walls, lighting fixtures which are broken or inadequate, or windows that are broken. Many times, simple repairs are left unattended because they are simply not reported.

The employment and retention of high-quality custodians is an important aspect of maintaining a safe and clean environment (Ubben & Hughes, 1987). The principal must take care in these areas, as well as provide ongoing training. Part of the principal's responsibility is also to devise a schedule of routine cleaning and maintenance for the custodial staff to follow. Such a schedule insures routine duties are not overlooked.

The Principal as Fiscal Manager

The principal allocates the resources available to the school through a well-planned program which matches perceived needs with available funds. According to Miklos, the principal is also responsible for devising a plan that will match needs and funds (cited in Sergiovanni, 1987).

With the advent of site-based management, the role of the principal as fiscal manager has never been more important. Thomason (1993) cites the importance of the principal being able to relate expenditures to program objectives. The following question proposed by Frohenrich (cited in Rossow, 1990) guide the principal in evaluating how well expenditures match program goals:

1. What goals and objectives was the school attempting to achieve with the budget?
2. What standards and measures shall be used to determine if the goals and objectives were achieved?
3. Who will determine what constitutes an acceptable goal achievement standard?
4. What costs (personal and material resources) were necessary to achieve each goal and objective?
5. Were the goals adequate in light of acceptable educational standards and community needs?
6. Should educational programs be added, eliminated, reduced, increased, or otherwise altered?
7. Were the resources adequate for achieving the goals and objectives?
8. What additional resources are needed and how might they be obtained?
9. What effect will securing additional resources have on those who must share the burden of providing the resources?
10. How should existing or additional resources be distributed among programs in the next budget so that goals and objectives are achieved efficiently and economically? (p. 266)

In addition, Thomason (1993) states that the principal must be able to include more people in the process of developing a budget, and be able to explain the budget to parents and the community. The effective principal also is able to identify potential sources of additional income.

Lipham et al. (1985) identify five steps the principal should use in preparing a budget:

1. Assess the community, school, and student needs, problems, and issues.
2. Identify and review existing goals and priorities.
3. Translate general goals into measurable performance objectives.
4. Developing a program structure and format to achieve objectives.
5. Analyze alternative approaches and options to achieve objectives.
6. Recommend and select the most cost-effective alternatives for attaining objectives. (pp. 239-240)

The Development of Time Management Practices

Covey, Merrill, and Merrill (1994) identify three "generations" of time management theory. The first generation is based on using a system to remind one of tasks or projects which need attention. Checklists serve as a characteristic of this generation. Tasks are tracked and checked off when completed. Tasks not completed find themselves "rolled over" to the next day. The weaknesses of this approach include the tendency to move from crisis to crisis while accomplishing very little. Relationships often suffer as people take a back seat to "tasks." The most important things are those which are immediately in front of the person.

The second generation of time management could be termed "planning and preparation" (Covey et al., 1994, p. 22). Calendars and appointments serve as the symbols of this generation. This type of time management emphasizes goals setting, planning, and personal responsibility. This approach leads to greater real accomplishment than the previous generation due to goals and planning. The weaknesses here lie in the tendency to put schedules ahead of people. People are seen as either means or barriers to achieving goals. The most important things in this generation are those items which are on the schedule.

The third generation of time management adds prioritizing and controlling to the element of planning. Long-term goals, as well as short-term and medium-term goals are set. One identifies personal values and links these values to the process of goal-setting. Managing not only time, but oneself as well, are important. Personal productivity and efficiency are enhanced. The weaknesses of this generation include the illusion that one is in control, rather than natural laws and principles being in control. Problems arise when one's values do not coincide with those of coworkers or bosses, and an imbalance between roles can occur. Finally, the aspect of daily planning rarely gets beyond prioritizing the urgent. The most important things in this particular generation are those which are set by urgency and values.

Winwood (1990) points to Benjamin Franklin's life as providing an example of employing time management practices to better achieve certain desired goals. Franklin listed the values (which he referred to as "virtues") in his life he wanted to perfect, and described each one. Franklin identified the virtues of temperance, silence, order, resolution, frugality, industry, sincerity, justice, moderation, cleanliness, tranquility, chastity, and humility. He felt daily examination necessary in order to firmly establish these virtues in his life. For this reason, Franklin constructed a little book in which he divided the pages into rows and columns. Franklin labeled the columns with the first letter of each of the days of the week. He then labeled the rows with the first letters of each of the 13 virtues that he has identified for himself as important to his personal development.

Each day, Franklin kept an account of his progress in each area. He marked each distraction from his progress with a black dot in the appropriate square. His goal was to complete a day, then a week with no black dots. Franklin refined this method throughout his life. Expanding upon the virtue of "order," Franklin began the practice of formulating and listing daily tasks as well as a daily resolution. The book was used as a way to for him to remember commitments and to track his progress in improving on the virtues he had previously defined. Benjamin Franklin is noted for the statement, "Doest thou love life? Then do not squander time, for that is the stuff life is made of" (Winwood, 1990, p. 13; Alexander, 1992, p. 59).

A very simple time management practice, when employed regularly, can bring about significant results for an individual or a company. Probably one of the earliest and most well-known stories concerns Charles Schwab, then president of Bethlehem Steel. In a discussion with a management consultant one day, Schwab challenged the consultant, "Show me a way to get more things done with my time and I will pay you any fee within reason" (Winwood, 1990, p. 16).

Ivy Lee, the consultant, handed Schwab a piece of blank paper. He instructed Schwab to write down the most important tasks needing to be done the following day and number them in order of importance. He further instructed Schwab, upon arrival at work, to begin at once on item number 1 and stay on it until its completion. Once the first task had been completed, Schwab was to recheck his priorities and begin number 2. Lee emphasized sticking with a project all day long if necessary, provided the task is the most important one.

Lee cautioned that Schwab should not be concerned if all tasks had not been completed by day's end. They would not have been completed with any other method, and the system insured work would be concentrated on the most important items. Lee left Schwab with the instructions to make the system a daily habit. He asked when the system worked for Schwab and his company, Lee be given a check for what Schwab felt the idea was worth.

Some weeks later, after the idea had been tried and found worthy, Schwab sent Ivy Lee a check for $25,000—an enormous sum for the thirties—along with a note saying the idea was the most profitable one he had ever learned. Schwab formulated a plan for all Bethlehem Steel management, using Lee's idea. The planning idea was given credit for turning Bethlehem Steel into the biggest independent steel producer in the world at the time. Upon reflection, Schwab stated the $25,000 was probably the most valuable investment Bethlehem Steel had made that year (Winwood, 1990).

Kobert (1980) states that after World War II, managers began to look seriously at how they used their own time. During the 1950s, a "boom" occurred in the field of time management. This boom centered around why highly motivated and conscientious people are unable to complete their required tasks within a reasonable time frame.

Rees (1986) states that during the 1980s, time management again saw renewed interest. The emphasis of time management turned then to improving the quality of life.

The Time Crunch

A Common Problem

The perceived lack of time seems to be a common phenomenon, both inside and outside of the field of education. Mackenzie (1972, p. 1) states, "Of the thousands of managers I have polled, from board chairmen and chief executives to first-line supervisors, only one in a hundred has enough time." Ferner (1995) reminds the reader each day has 24 hours, no more, and no less. Each week is composed of 168 hours. People cannot buy, beg, borrow, or steal more time, they can only better manage the 168 hours each week they are given.

Thus, one can see the paradox of time. Few people seem to have enough, while everyone has all that exists. The real problem becomes not how much time a person has, but rather how he or she manages that time (Mackenzie, 1972).

The problem worsens for the executive, whether in business or in education. The executive's time tends to belong to everybody else. Furthermore, the higher up in the organization a person is, the more demands on his or her time the organization will make (Drucker, 1966). Drucker goes on to say everything requires time, making it the one truly universal condition. "All work takes place in time and uses up time. Yet most people take for granted this unique, irreplaceable, and necessary resource. Nothing else, perhaps, distinguishes effective executives as much as their tender loving care of time" (p. 26).

Schools are different, in many respects, from businesses. Schools are "people" institutions. Stripling (1986) points out all of those who work outside of the classroom (administrators, counselors, librarians, etc.) feel their role is one of service to teachers and students. Instant availability and unselfishness are seen as hallmarks of this feeling. Often, these educators see time management as being incongruent with this aim, and accounts for the reluctance of some to use time management practices.

Rees (1986) also points out the uniqueness of "people" organizations as opposed to production-type organizations. She states those in "people" organizations suffer from multiple and conflicting goals. The result is the claim from educators that they do not have enough time to accomplish all of the tasks they feel compete for their time, along with a feeling of stress. Ashkenas and Schaffer (cited in Rees, 1986) assert the problem is not lack of time, but rather lack of time management skills. In that area, school executives resemble executives everywhere. Mackenzie (1985a) conducted a study of various time management practices in 40 countries. He found personal disorganization is one of the top concerns of managers worldwide.

Special Challenges for the Principal

Much of principal's time is spent on four areas. These areas are office traffic, the telephone, organization, and discipline (Kergaard, 1991). Odden (1987) stated brief encounters with staff, faculty, students, and parents account for around 80% of the average principal's time. Another 12% is spent on desk work. The remaining 8% is spent on the telephone.

In 1987, a study by Pellicer, Anderson, Keefe, Kelley, and McCleary found 70% of all principals surveyed by the NASSP identified the amount of time spent on administrative details and an overall lack of time as major obstacles to being effective in their positions (cited in Tanner & Atkins, 1990). In a survey of 403 Georgia principals, the greatest problem facing them was completing the large amount of paperwork without neglecting attention given to students, teachers, and parents (Katz, 1988).

Lyons (1993) examined beginning principals and their perceived competencies in major job responsibilities, as well as what they saw to be their greatest challenges. Their major challenges included delegating responsibilities to others. Their major frustrations included the heavy responsibility of the job and ability to manage time. Solomon (1992) articulated her own experiences with a hectic work schedule and the high blood pressure which accompanied it. Her own superintendent shadowed her for a day, and as a result of his observations of her work schedule, recommended she delegate more responsibility to others, leave at least half of her workday unscheduled, and work for more balance in her life.

Campbell and Williamson (1991) examined the time principals spend on daily tasks in relation to the time they feel they should spend on these tasks. The researchers mailed copies of the "Perceptions Scale of Principal's Tasks" (developed by Carolyn Masterson of Southern Illinois University) to 500 secondary school principals selected at random. In all, 258 of the principals returned the survey completed.

The survey asked questions in eight major areas of principal's responsibilities. These areas were school climate, school improvement, instructional management, personnel management, facilities management, student management, professional growth, and community relations. The survey asked four questions from each of the eight areas, for a total of 32 questions.

The results of the study showed a significant difference in all areas between the amount of time principals feel they should spend in each area, and the amount of time they actually spend. The researchers conclude the average principal does not have sufficient time to do all that is expected of him or her. Time management practices, therefore, become extremely important. The researchers highlighted delegation of authority as a major way in which principals can create more time for the matters they deem most important.

Calabrese (1976) conducted a study of time management practices used by high school principals in Indiana. He concluded that principals are, in general, poor managers of time. Secondly, he concluded that the size of the school had more to do with the principal's use of time management practices than the experience level of the principal. Principals of larger schools made better use of time management practices. Finally, Calabrese concluded under-utilization of the secretary and lack of knowledge regarding time management practices hindered time management skills.

In 1980, the Lake Washington School District, located in Kirkland, Washington conducted a study of its principals to determine how they use their time (cited in Smith, 1989). Each principal was asked to keep a log of how their time was spent, and was asked to identify what percentage of his or her time should be devoted to each major job area. Table 1 shows the results of the study.

The high school principalship is a multifaceted job. The principal may be well-suited to handle each area of the job. The problem lies in having, or finding, adequate time to perform the various functions of the principalship. Since the principal cannot increase the number of hours in the day, he or she must look for ways to better utilize time. The perception that one has too little time to perform the given tasks may well lead to stress. Tanner and Atkins (1990) focus on the relationship between time management practices principals use and their reported levels of stress.

Table 1

Percentage of Time Devoted to Major Job Dimensions: Ideal vs. Actual Time

	Elementary Principals		Secondary Principals	
Job dimension	Ideal	Actual	Ideal	Actual
Improvement of instruction	35%	24%	27%	17%
Community relations	14%	16%	15%	14%
Student services	12%	21%	24%	40%
Operations	9%	13%	10%	14%
Evaluation	30%	26%	24%	15%

For their study, Tanner and Atkins randomly selected principals from the membership of NASSP, with the requirement their schools have at least grades 10 through 12. Each selected principal received a packet containing the instrument to be used, an adaptation of the *Administrative Stress Index* (developed by Gmelch and Swent in 1977) and the *Time Management Rating Scale*, containing selected questions from a time management practices questionnaire devised by Calabrese in 1976. A total of 976 packets were sent to principals. Of that number, 580 were returned and were usable. The researchers found the reliability of the *Stress Rating Scale* to be .81, and the reliability of the TMRS to be .89.

The surveyed principals reported job stress accounted for a large majority of the stress in their lives. They were asked questions regarding the specific job stressors they encounter and the severity of each. The survey questions also gathered information on the type of time management techniques most used and least used.

This study concluded principals who manage their time well experience less job stress than principals who do not. Principals in larger schools (500 or more pupils) demonstrated significantly better time management practices than did those in smaller schools. A third conclusion of this study is a minimum of 2 days time management training is needed in order to see a reduction in levels of stress. Administrative experience also had an impact on both time management and stress. More experienced administrators managed their time more effectively and experienced less stress.

The researchers found also principals who have a personal secretary perceive higher degrees of time management than those who do not. Principals who have an assistant principal also exhibited better use of time.

Two other studies linked stress in the principalship or burnout with time management skills. Cooper (1988) surveyed 212 secondary principals to identify occupational stressors. His findings include a need for principals to improve time management skills in order to reduce job-related stress. Sarros (1988) examined the working situations of principals in a western Canadian school district. Findings from his qualitative study included that improved time management skills constitute one way to lessen burnout. In addition, improvement in time management skills raised self-esteem in school administrators.

Time-Wasters

Common Sources

Productivity experts estimate most office employees waste at least 45% of the day (Merrill & Douglass, 1980). Drucker (1966) cites the constant pressures executives feel towards unproductive and wasteful use of time. Any executive, whether he is a manager or not, spends a great deal of time on tasks which do not contribute to important goals.

What are the sources of so much wasted time? Interestingly enough, executives worldwide in all walks of life tend to identify the same time-wasters.

Fortune magazine conducted a poll of 50 corporate chairmen, presidents, and vice-presidents. These executives ranked the top five time-wasters. They found these time-wasters to be the telephone, mail, meetings, public relations, and paperwork (Kobert 1980).

Mackenzie (cited in Posner, 1982) identifies the most common time-wasters revealed by his research. Those time-wasters are (a) telephone interruptions; (b) drop-in visitors; (c) ineffective delegation; (d) meetings; (e) lack of objectives, priorities, planning; (f) crisis management; (g) attempting too much at once; (h) cluttered desk or personal dis-organization; (i) indecision or procrastination; and (j) inability to say "no."

People from different walks of life tend to identify, for the most part, the same time-wasters. Mackenzie (1972) had 40 colonels and commanders at the Canadian Forces School of Management in Montreal construct a list of time-wasters. The list was virtually identical to a list composed by 30 college presidents in the Midwestern United States.

Similarly, a group of 300 members of a state association of public school superintendents composed a list of time-wasters almost identical to one assembled by a group of 25 chief executives of the Young Presidents Organization of Mexico in Mexico City. Finally, salesmen from a large North American insurance company listed a group of time-wasters nearly identical to that of black religious leaders. Mackenzie provides the following lists to illustrate this point.

Time-wasters of German managers were (a) unclear objectives, (b) poor information, (c) postponed decisions, (d) procrastination, (e) lack of information, (f) lack of feedback, (g) routine work, (h) too much reading, (i) interruptions, (j) telephone, (k) no time planning, (l) meetings, (m) beautiful secretaries, (n) lack of competent personnel, (o) lack of delegation, (p) lack of self-discipline, (q) visitors, (r) training new staff, (s) lack of priorities, and (t) management by crisis.

Time-wasters of college presidents were (a) scheduled meetings, (b) unscheduled meetings, (c) lack of priorities, (d) failure to delegate, (e) interruptions, (f) unavailability of people, (g) junk mail, (h) lack of planning, (i) outside (civic) demands, (j) poor filing system, (k) fatigue, (l) procrastination, (m) telephone, (n) questionnaires, and (o) lack of procedure for routine matters.

Time-wasters of Canadian military leaders were (a) trash mail, (b) socializing, (c) unnecessary meetings, (d) lack of concentration, (e) lack of managerial tools, (f) peer demands on time, (g) incompetent subordinates, (h) coffee breaks, (i) crisis management, (j) unintelligible communications, (k) procrastination, (l) lack of clerical staff, (m) poor physical fitness, (n) red tape, (o) pet projects, and (p)lack of priorities. Time-wasters of religious leaders were (a) attempting too much at once, (b) lack of delegation, (c) talking too much, (d) inconsistent actions, (e) no priorities, (f) span of control, (g) usurped authority, (h) can't say no, (i) lack of planning, (j) snap decisions, (k) procrastination, (l) low morale, (m) mistakes, (n) disorganized secretaries, (o) poor communication, (p) overoptimism, and (q) responsibility without authority.

Stegman and Mackenzie (1985) list the 10 major time management concerns of school administrators:

1. Ineffective delegation.
2. Telephone interruptions.
3. Crisis management/shifting priorities.
4. Meetings.
5. Drop-in visitors.
6. Inadequate planning and lacking objectives.
7. Attempting to do too much.
8. Inability to say "no."
9. Personal disorganization.
10. Procrastination and indecision. (p. 10)

Mackenzie (1972) identifies 35 time-wasters broken down by area which seem to be universal. Time-wasters in the area of planning include (a) no objectives, priorities, or daily plans; (b) shifting priorities; (c) leaving tasks unfinished; (d) fire-fighting or crisis management; (e) no deadlines or daydreaming; and (f) attempting too much at once or unrealistic time estimates. Time-wasters in the area of organizing include (a) personal disorganization or stacked desk, (b) duplication of effort, (c) confused responsibility and authority, and (d) multiple bosses.

Time-wasters in the area of staffing include (a) untrained or inadequate staff, (b) understaffed or overstaffed, and (c) personnel with problems. Time-wasters in the area of directing include (a) doing it oneself, (b) involvement in routine detail, (c) ineffective delegation, (d) lack of motivation, (e) no coordination or no teamwork, (f) not managing conflict, and (g) not coping with change. Time-wasters in the area of controlling include (a) telephone and visitors, (b) incomplete information, (c) no standards or progress reports, (d) over control, (e) mistakes and ineffective performance, (f) overlooking poor performance, and (g) inability to say "no."

Time-wasters in the area of communicating include (a) meetings; (b) undercommunication, overcommunication, unclear communication; (c) failure to listen; and (d) socializing. Time-wasters in the area of decision making include (a) snap decisions, (b) indecision and procrastinating, (c) wanting all the facts, and (d) decision by committee.

Winwood (1990) points out that some time-wasters are imposed on people by their environment, while others are self-inflicted. The 19 most common time-wasters imposed by ones environment are (a) interruptions, (b) waiting for answers, (c) unclear job definition, (d) unnecessary meetings, (e) too much work, (f) poor communications, (g) shifting priorities, (h) equipment failure, (i) disorganized boss, (j) red tape and procedures, (k) under-staffed, (l) conflicting priorities, (m) low company morale, (n) undertrained staff, (o) peer and staff demands, (p) allowing upward delegation, (q) inefficient office layout, (r) interoffice travel, and (s) mistakes of others. On the other hand, the 19 most common time-wasters self-imposed are (a) failure to delegate, (b) poor attitude, (c) personal disorganization, (d) absentmindedness, (e) failure to listen, (f) indecision, (g) socializing, (h) fatigue, (i) lack of self-discipline, (j) leaving tasks unfinished, (k) paper shuffling, (l) procrastination, (m) outside activities, (n) cluttered workspace, (o) unclear personal goals, (p) perfectionism, (q) poor planning, (r) attempting too much, and (s) preoccupation.

Eliminating Time-Wasters

Clearly, the literature shows time-wasters stand between any executive and the accomplishment of worthy goals. Many authors have addressed possible ways to eliminate these time-wasters.

Drucker (1966) states that the first step in eliminating time-wasters is to identify those which follow from lack of system or foresight. He stresses one should look for the recurrent "crisis," the crisis which comes back year after year. A crisis which recurs a second time should be examined to determine if a better system could keep the crisis from happening yet a third time.

Drucker (1966) also cites malorganization as another common time-waster. Its symptom is an excess of meetings. If executives in an organization spend more than a fairly small part of their time in meetings, malorganization can be seen as the culprit. Drucker states every meeting generates a host of little follow-up meetings. Some are formal, some are informal, but both can stretch out for hours. Meetings, he says, need to be purposefully directed.

Merrill and Douglass (1980) outline a five-step plan for eliminating time-wasters:

1. Obtain good data. A time log will provide such data.
2. Identify probable causes.
3. Develop possible solutions.
4. Select the most feasible solution.
5. Implement the solution.

Elimination of time-wasters saves a few minutes here and there throughout the day. Of what benefit are those minutes in comparison with the total time available to a person?

Mackenzie (1972) points out most executives have only about 1 1/2 or 2 hours of discretionary time. Eliminating time-wasters serves to increase this discretionary time.

Time Management Practices as a Group

Time management involves not only eliminating bad habits, but also replacing them with good habits. Many authors suggest time management practices they see as productive. Most are presented in list form. The similarity of suggestions they present is striking. The time management practices listed are discussed in greater depth later in this chapter.

Winston (1983) offers the following "Organizing Audit." Each "yes" answer indicates an area in which time is saved.

1. Can you retrieve any paper from your desk-top within one minute?
2. Can your secretary retrieve papers from the office files within five minutes of your request?
3. When you walk into the your office in the morning, do you know what your two or three primary tasks are?
4. Do you usually accomplish those tasks by the end of the day?
5. Do you meet daily with your secretary? Weekly with your staff?
6. Does your staff typically receive clear-cut assignments which outline the range of their authority, the overall purpose, and the date due?
7. Do you always monitor staff to ensure that tasks are completed on time?
8. Are there some papers on your desk, other than reference materials, which you haven't looked through for a week or more?
9. During the last three months have you failed to reply to an important letter because it got lost on your desk?
10. Do you regularly receive letters or calls which begin: "You haven't gotten back to me yet, so..."?
11. Within the last 3 months have you forgotten any scheduled appointment or meeting, or any special date that you wanted to acknowledge?
12. Do you carry home a loaded briefcase more than once a week?
13. Are you harassed by frequent interruptions—whether phone calls or visitors—which affect your ability to concentrate?
14. Do you frequently procrastinate on an assignment until it becomes an emergency or panic situation?
15. Do you receive long reports from which you have to extract a few key points?
16. Do your own reports tend to be wordy or excessively detailed?
17. Do magazines and newspapers pile up unread?
18. Do you often wind up doing a little bit of your staff's jobs in addition to your own?

19. Are you so busy with details that you are ignoring opportunities for new business or promotional activities? (pp. 23-25)

Alexander (1992) offers a similar quiz he calls, "Diagnostic Test: You and Time." Similarly, "yes" answers indicate good use of time management practices:

1. Do you handle each piece of paperwork only once?
2. Do you begin and end projects on time?
3. Do people know the best time to reach you?
4. Do you do something every day that moves you closer to your long-range goals?
5. When you are interrupted, can you return to your work without losing momentum?
6. Do you deal effectively with long-winded callers?
7. Do you focus on preventing problems before they arise rather than solving them after they happen?
8. Do you meet deadlines with time to spare?
9. Are you on time to work, to meetings, and to events?
10. Do you delegate well?
11. Do you write daily to-do lists?
12. Do you finish all the items on your to-do list?
13. Do you update in writing your professional and personal goals?
14. Is your desk clean and organized?
15. Can you easily find items in your files? (p. 3)

Drucker (1966) identifies five habits in the area of time management which executives must develop in order to be "effective":

1. Effective executives know where their time goes. They work systematically at managing the small amount of their time that can be brought under control.
2. Effective executives focus on outward contributions. They gear their effort to results rather than to work. They start out with the question, "What results are expected of me?" rather than with the work to be done, let alone with its techniques and tools.
3. Effective executives build on their strengths.
4. Effective executives concentrate on a few major areas where superior performance will produce outstanding results.
5. Effective executives make effective decisions. (pp. 23-24)

Ferner (1995) presents the following suggestions for saving time:

1. Learn to set priorities on things such as goals, tasks, meeting agenda items, interruptions.
2. Start with "A"-priority tasks—is it the best use of your time?
3. Fight procrastination—do it now if it's important.

4. Subdivide large, tough tasks into smaller, easily accomplished tasks.
5. Establish a quiet hour, even though it requires willpower and may not always work.
6. Find a hideaway—the library or office of a coworker who's traveling.
7. Learn to say "no" when you've something important to do.
8. Learn to delegate.
9. Accumulate similar tasks, and do them all at once.
10. Minimize routine tasks—spend only the time they deserve.
11. Shorten low-value interruptions.
12. Throw away junk mail and other low-value paperwork.
13. Delegate, shorten, or defer indefinitely the "C"-priority tasks.
14. Avoid perfectionism. Remember the 80/20 maldistribution rule.
15. Avoid overcommitment. Be realistic about what you can do in the time available.
16. Don't over schedule. Allow some flexible time for crises and interruptions. (p. 219)

Taylor (1993) illustr tes time management practices extend to home-life as well as in the workplace:

1. Shop by telephone or mail.

2. Keep a stack of birthday cards and thank you notes on hand.

3. Keep a minimum inventory of household items on hand to eliminate frequent trips to the store.

4. Plan meals ahead of time and include necessary items on the shopping list.

5. Consolidate activities, such as preparing several meals at once, returning several calls at once, or running several errands in a single trip.

6. Assemble in the evening everything needed for the following morning. Set up an office at home to facilitate writing, paying bills, and filling important papers.

7. Maintain a family message center and shopping list.

8. Make checklists for recurring events (vacations, trips, etc.) so items are not overlooked.

9. Call ahead to order take-out food.

10. Make a form to record items loaned as well as items borrowed from someone else to facilitate their return.

11. Make a shopping list to save time avoid impulse buying.

12. Telephone ahead to the doctor's office to see if he or she is on schedule.

The following list suggested by Bliss (1982) is a general list for people of all walks of life to help them manage time:

1. Plan. Starting the day with a general schedule will help one concentrate on opportunities instead of reacting to problems.

2. Concentrate. The amount of uninterrupted time is essential when working on an important project.

3. Take breaks. Switching tasks provides relief and allows one to work more effectively after the break.

4. Avoid clutter. Papers should be cleared from the desk, or at least organized daily.

5. Avoid being a perfectionist. Much time is wasted on small matters which really do not matter.

6. Do not be afraid to say "no."

7. Do not procrastinate.

8. Delegate.

9. Do not be a workaholic.

Lagemann (1982) offers these practices to aid in getting important projects done:

1. Get started. Simply beginning a project provides the stimulus to also complete it.

2. Choose a pacesetter. Keeping an eye on a high achiever can inspire one to achieve also.

3. Set a deadline. Deadlines give people a goal.

4. Leave a project and come back to it.

5. Filter out the irrelevant. Concentrate on the project at hand without allowing oneself to be distracted.

6. Find one's own work rhythm.

7. Finish the job. Know when a job is completed and stop.

Finally, Griessman (1994) advises the executive to be a "contrarian." By this term, he means doing things at a time when other people are not doing them. Examples include shopping when others are not shopping, eating when others are not eating, and driving at nonpeak times. All of these are designed to reduce or eliminate waiting time. Griessman also suggests starting one's day early. The early hours provide uninterrupted time, a time for planning, and allow one to use office equipment with no waiting.

Individual Time Management Practices

Time Log

Logging All Activities

Drucker (1966) states the following:

> Effective executives do not start with their tasks. They start with their time. They start by finding out where their time actually goes. They then attempt to manage their time and to cut back the unproductive demands of their time. Finally, they consolidate their "discretionary" time into the largest possible continuing units. This three-step process is the foundation of executive effectiveness. (p. 25)

Merrill and Douglass (1980) recommend the day be divided into 15-minute segments. Whatever activity happens during each slot is to be recorded. These authors suggest if several activities occur during this segment of time, the one taking the most time is the one to be recorded. They suggest the log also include a column labeled "Importance," along with the numbers 1 through 5. In this column, one circles the relative importance of the activity engaged in during that 15-minute time segment. Winston (1983) also advocates the use of 15-minute time slots.

Gleeson (1994), Mackenzie (1985a), and Alexander (1992) identify the use of a time log as a vital tool for the person who desires to know how his or her time is spent. Drucker (1966) often asks executives who pride themselves on their memory to put down their guesses as to how they spend their own time. Drucker then locks these guesses away for a few weeks or months. In the meantime, the executives run an actual time record on themselves. Drucker states the executives see no resemblance between the way they thought they used their time and how they actually used their time as revealed through their time logs.

The time log is an excellent tool to use throughout the organization. The best place to start in helping a subordinate manage time, says Mackenzie, (1972) is to have him or her keep a time log.

How long should one keep a time log? Merrill and Douglass (1980) recommend keeping the time log for a long enough period that it covers a representative time span. For some people, this time span may be 2 or 3 days. For others, it may be several weeks or months. The time log exercise should be repeated at least once each year. Winston (1983) recommends the time log be kept for at least 1 week.

Drucker (1966) recommends keeping a time log for 3 to 4 weeks at a time, and repeating the process twice each year. After each sample, executives rethink and rework their schedule. After 6 months, he argues, they invariably find they have "drifted" into wasting their time on trivia.

Winwood (1990) offers the following important points for using a time log:

> 1. Don't try to make yourself look effective by cheating on times, activities, or priorities. The closer your time inventory represents reality, the more useful the log results will be to you.
> 2. Don't wait for a typical week to run your log. There is no such animal.
> 3. Don't impose the time log on your subordinates. If you do so, they will likely fill out their logs on Friday just before they are to be submitted. You will find you have the most effective team in the world (at least on paper).
> 4. Do recommend the time log to selected subordinates as a self-analysis tool. Only review the results if you are invited to do so.
> 5. Do run your time log again in three to six months. If you have implemented your plan well, you should see significant changes in your personal productivity. After that, keep a log handy and track yourself occasionally. You'll find it a worthwhile way to provide urgency to time effectiveness.
> 6. Don't get discouraged. Do your log for five full working days before doing your analysis. You may want to consider starting on Thursday and finishing up on Wednesday. In spite of your feelings to the contrary, the log will only take ten to fifteen minutes a day to fill out—time well invested. (pp. 101-102)

Analyzing the Time Log

Mackenzie (1985a) says time logs kept by thousands of managers all over the world reveal nine common problems:

1. Many interruptions. Managers are interrupted every 8 minutes on average.
2. Little time spent on top priority items.
3. Performing tasks which are better delegated to others.
4. Jumping from task to task without bringing closure to any of them.
5. Failure to act on paperwork the first time it is handled.
6. Lack of thinking or planning time built into the schedule.
7. Time spent getting organized, but not staying organized.

8. Tasks taking much longer than planned. Managers seriously underestimate the time needed for various items.

9. Too much time spent on items which seem "urgent," only to find out they were not urgent after all.

Winwood (1990) suggests after keeping a time log for a period of time, one ask the following questions:

1. Do log results show that you are working toward important company objectives?
2. What appears to be your most significant time management problem?
3. What tasks on your log could, and perhaps should, have been delegated to your subordinates?
4. Were you more productive in the morning hours or in the afternoon hours?
5. Should you start work earlier? Stay later?
6. Could certain tasks have been batched and scheduled to a more appropriate time slot?
7. What was the longest period of time without an interruption? (p. 99)

Mackenzie (1972) offers his own list of questions for analyzing the time log:

1. Did setting daily goals and times for completion improve effectiveness? If so, why? If not, why not?
2. What was the longest period of time without interruption?
3. In order of importance, which items were most costly?
4. What can be done to eliminate or control them?
5. How much time was spent in meetings?
6. Were "activities" recorded or were "results" recorded?
7. To what extent did the daily goals contribute directly to the accomplishment of long-range objectives?
8. Did a "self-correcting" tendency appear as actions were recorded?
9. What two or three steps could be taken to improve effectiveness? (p. 27)

Winston (1983) advocates analysis of the time log in terms of the amount of time spent on the following items: (a) telephone calls; (b) scheduled appointments; (c) drop-in or ad hoc appointments; (d) meetings; (e) paperwork, projects, writing, planning; (f) calculation of priority to payoff ratios; and (g) consolidation versus fragmentation.

Mackenzie (1985a) asserts logging time improves productivity. The act of keeping a time log seems to have a "self-correcting" element built in.

Finally, Rees (1986) reminds the reader of the importance of planning. This author recommends the final 15 minutes of each day should be devoted to planning for the next day.

Selective Logging of Activities

While many authors have commented on the value of recording all activities in a time log, another point of view exists. Kobert (1980) states the conventional time log has two problems. The first problem is keeping the log is a time consuming activity in itself. For this reason, busy people tend to quickly abandon the idea. Secondly, he states the process lacks objectivity. Several activities can occupy a fairly narrow measure of time. A person will tend to be subjective in judging which activity is to be written down.

Kobert suggests a person can construct a time log with little effort by recording the activity in which one is involved at 10 random times of the day. The author suggests opening a telephone book to a random page and working with the last four digits of each of 10 columns. The digits of each of the telephone numbers are translated into a time on the 60-minute clock. At those points in the day, the activity at hand is recorded. By doing this exercise over a period of time, the executive can gain a good estimate of the percentage of the work day spent on each type of activity.

Lakein (1973) agrees with Kobert's feelings. He sees the process of recording how each moment is spent as being not only a frustrating experience but a waste of time. He advocates selecting certain activities and recording the time spent on them.

Quiet Hour

Importance of the Quiet Hour

Interruptions are a part of the job for the school principal, or any executive. The "quiet hour," as it is commonly termed, is a device to give a person uninterrupted time in order to concentrate on high-priority items. Alexander (1992, p. 30) calls the quiet hour "one of the most productive management techniques ever devised." He goes on to state a person can get twice as much done in an uninterrupted hour.

Drucker (1966, p. 29) states, "To be effective, every knowledge worker, and especially every executive, therefore needs to be able to dispose of time in fairly large chunks. To have small dribs and drabs of time at his disposal will not be sufficient even if the total is an impressive number of hours." Drucker (cited in Glesson, 1994) sees the optimum amount of time for the "quiet hour" as being 90 minutes. Drucker also estimates one accomplishes as much during an uninterrupted block of time as during twice the amount of time filled with interruptions. Bliss (1976) echoes the amount of uninterrupted time as being the key to making progress on any project.

Partin (1988) advises principals to develop a "modified" open-door policy. Such a policy means the principal is accessible, but not necessarily at the immediate time the visitor may wish. Equally important, the visitor is not necessarily welcome to stay as long as he or she wishes. The problem for many principals is the appearance of a person at the door so often takes precedence over planning, important projects, and other items which hold big payoffs for the future of the school. In addition to the interruption of vital projects, Partin points out another problem with an unmodified "open-door" policy. People begin to wonder what a person really does when they seem constantly accessible to anyone who walks in. One would not expect to walk into a doctor's office without an appointment and be seen immediately. The school executive should be no different than any of the other professionals mentioned.

Alexander (1992) illustrates just how critical the problem posed by interruptions can be. According to this author, the average executive is interrupted every 8 minutes.

Establishing the Quiet Hour

Mackenzie (1972) suggests coming to work early as a way to establish a "quiet hour." Generally, the only people who are at work early are others who also have important matters at hand. Staying late, on the other hand, can be ineffective. People who have time on their hands may feel like dropping by to carry on small talk. Griessman (1994) and Winston (1995) also suggest coming to work early as an effective tool for establishing the "quiet hour."

Douglass and Baker (1983) offer suggestions for establishing the "quiet hour" across an organization. A quiet hour across an entire school may not be entirely practical; however, the principal may use the following ideas to help establish a quiet hour for himself or herself, the assistant principal(s), bookkeeper, or any other person who is subject to constant interruption. He or she may also begin to view the planning time of teachers as their own "quiet hours." The following suggestions should guide in establishing a quiet hour throughout an organization:

1. Secure a commitment from the top management of the unit concerned.
2. Explain the concept to others involved.
3. Discuss the concept at meetings and gain commitment.
4. Determine the most appropriate time period.
5. Devise operating guidelines.
6. Try a pilot project first.
7. Monitor the results and solve problems as they arise.
8. Evaluate the results of the pilot project and modify the plan as needed.

9. Implement the program.
10. Keep exceptions to a minimum. (p. 26)

Planning and Scheduling

The Covey Influence

Covey et al. (1994) focus on the relationship between the "urgent" and the "important" through the use of four-quadrant matrix. Quadrant I comprises those elements which are both urgent and important. These items include crises, pressing deadlines, and deadline-driven projects, meetings, and preparations. Quadrant II comprises those activities which are important but not urgent. These items include preparation, prevention, values clarification, planning, relationship building, true re-creation, and empowerment. Quadrant III comprises those activities which are urgent, but yet not important. They include interruptions, some telephone calls, some mail, some reports, some meetings, many proximate pressing matters, and many popular activities. Finally, Quadrant IV comprises those activities which are neither urgent nor important. These items include trivia, busywork, junk mail, some telephone calls, time-wasters, and "escape" activities.

Covey (1989) discusses the characteristics of people who live their lives in each quadrant:

1. Quadrant I—These people experience stress, burnout, are always involved in crisis management, and find themselves constantly "putting out fires."

2. Quadrant III—These people have a short-term focus. They also are involved with crisis management. They develop the reputation of having a chameleon-type character. They tend to see goals and plans as worthless. They feel victimized and out of control. Many of their relationships tend to be shallow and broken.

3. Quadrant IV—These people exhibit total irresponsibility. They are likely to be fired from their jobs. They are constantly dependent on others for the basics.

4. Quadrant II—Those who operate from this quadrant exhibit vision and perspective. They have a balance in their lives. Discipline and control also typify their lives. They also find few crises.

Covey et al. (1994) recommend the use of a weekly planning sheet. Six steps go into the completion of that sheet.

1. One begins the planning sheet by connecting one's vision and personal mission.
2. The second step is to identify the major roles in one's life.
3. Step three entails establishing Quadrant II goals in each of these areas.
4. The next step is to place specific appointments on the planner related to the Quadrant II goals.
5. The fifth step involves what Covey calls "exercise integrity in the moment." This process involves keeping the Quadrant II tasks first and foremost when confronted by the unexpected events of the day.
6. The final step is the evaluation stage. In this phase, one examines the various goals achieved during the week, the challenges encountered, the decisions made, and whether or not "first things" were kept first throughout the week.

Establishing Priorities

Throughout the literature on time management, the establishment of priorities is paramount in the planning and scheduling process. Covey is not alone in examining the concept of the "urgent" versus the "important." Merrill and Douglass (1980) relate that General Dwight Eisenhower used to tell his officers there was an inverse relationship between things which are important and things which are urgent. The more important an item, the less likely it is to be urgent. The more urgent an item, the less likely it is to be important. Important things tend to have long-term consequences, or make a difference for a long time. Urgent things tend to have short-term consequences and may not relate to overall goals.

Ferner (1995, p. 126) states, "If there is one message I would like to convey to my readers, it is the crucial nature of priorities in becoming effective managers of time." Ferner goes on to talk about the tendency to put off top-priority goals in favor of daily maintenance tasks because of their greater urgency.

One's priorities are often determined by forces other than the real importance of the task to accomplishing goals. Merrill and Douglass (1980) state priorities can be determined by six criteria:

1. Demands of others. Superiors may assign tasks to be done immediately.

2. Closeness of deadlines. Low-priority items suddenly become high-priority when a deadline is approaching.

3. Amount of time available. People tend to tackle jobs that can be done in a short amount of time first. The jobs which require a longer amount of time, even though they are the more important, are postponed.

4. Degree of enjoyment. People tend to tackle the tasks they like before tackling the unpleasant tasks.

5. Order of arrival. Handling items in the order they arrive, rather than their relative importance, places low priority items ahead of those which yield much greater results.

6. Degree of familiarity. People are more likely to work on tasks that they are familiar with, rather than perform tasks where their degree of expertise is less.

LeBoeuf (1979) illustrates the importance of setting priorities with the "80/20 rule," or "Pareto Principle." The Pareto Principle was named after Vilfredo Pareto, a 19th-century Italian economist, and explains why setting priorities is so important in securing effectiveness. The Pareto Principle states that 80% of the value of a group of items is generally concentrated in only 20% of the items. Pareto found 80% of the wealth in Italy was held by 20% of the population. Likewise, the remaining 80% of the population held only 20% of the wealth.

Other examples of the Pareto Principle, according to LeBoeuf, include 80% of the dollar value of an inventory is often found in 20% of the items. Likewise, one may find 80% of all telephone calls come from 20% of the callers. Eighty percent of the meals ordered in a restaurant come from 20% of the items on the menu. Eighty percent of all television viewing might well be spent watching 20% of all available programs.

The use of the Pareto Principle, or "80/20 rule," can apply to goals. LeBoeuf (1979) asserts one can be 80% effective by achieving 20% of one's goals. On a daily to-do list of 10 items, one can generally expect to be 80% effective by completing only the 2 most important items on the list.

Lakein (1973), during his many seminars, leads participants in the formation of lifetime goals. He uses three questions which, when used together, help clarify lifetime goals for the individual:

> 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 dead by lighting six months from today, how would I live until then? (pp. 31-33)

Lakein says a list of activities for the 6-month question similar to the activities in which a person now engages indicates that person has activities which are synchronized with the accomplishment of long-term goals. Conflicts between the 6-month question and the activities in which a person now engages indicates a mismatch between daily activities and goals.

Daily Planning

Taylor (1993) offers the school administrator the following tips for constructing a daily plan:

1. Block out times in the personal organizer for high priority items.

2. Schedule more time for a task than it seems it will take. Avoid over scheduling. Blank spaces should be left for emergencies or opportunities.

3. Group similar activities together.

4. Use the same planner for both work and home.

5. Record all fixed commitments into the planner (including meetings, holidays, etc.) instead of leaving them up to the memory.

6. Use "prime time" (the time most alert and energetic) for high priority items or difficult tasks.

7. Use the planner for making a to-do list. Avoid using scraps of paper. Create checklists for recurring events to prevent details from being overlooked.

8. Schedule priority tasks for early in the week, so that if emergencies occur, the priority tasks will still receive attention before the end of the week. When recording appointments in the planner, record the telephone numbers of the individuals involved in case they need to be contacted before the meeting.

Realizing interruptions are a natural part of the day for any executive, one must be careful to leave a portion of the day unscheduled in order to handle those unplanned responsibilities. Mackenzie (1972) recommends scheduling at most 80% of the day, leaving the remaining 20% free for interruptions or urgent matters which cannot be fore-seen. Merrill and Douglass (1980) are more conservative. They recommend anywhere from 25 to 50% of the day be left unscheduled to allow for interruptions or for planned activities which take longer than expected.

According to Mackenzie (1972), executives grossly underestimate the time which is required for their projects. They tend to overlook time built in for interruptions and other unforeseen elements.When asked to list the tasks they expect to accomplish the following day, most executives will list not 1, but 3 or 4 days' work.

LeBoeuf (1979, p. 92) stresses the executive set aside a period of each day for "thinking, reflecting, and planning." This time allows a person time to organize thoughts about where one wants to go, and how he or she plans to get there. Alexander (1992) recommends that executives spend 1 hour each day in the act of planning. This author states the hour of planning will save 3 hours in implementation. Taking time to plan saves time.

The organization and management of large projects is one of the common functions of executives. Winston (1983) cites the following steps as being necessary for handling any large project:

1. Set a goal.
2. Set a final deadline.
3. Break the project down into subtasks.
4. Organize subtasks into appropriate order of performance.
5. Set target date and benchmarks for each subtask.

6. Assign subtasks to self and others.
7. Monitor progress until completion. (pp. 186-187)

Winston (1983) mentions that "PERT" (Program Evaluation and Review Technique) is based on the principle discussed above. The "PERT" system was originated and first used by the United States Navy in order to accomplish its work on the Polaris Project.

As soon as a project is completed, one should construct two lists. One list will consist of the elements of the project done correctly. The other list will consist of the items done wrong. These lists will be major elements in planning for the same project for the following year. The military calls this type of planning an "after-action report" (Bliss, 1976).

Use of a Planner/Calendar

Many executives rely on daily planners or calendars to help them keep track of commitments, plans, and goals. According to Posner (1982), a survey done by *Business Week* indicates executives look for the following things in a daily planner: (a) aesthetic appeal; (b) time management section; (c) personal data page; (d) a binding that lies flat; (e) double-ribbon bookmark; (f) "800" number directory; (g) space for most frequently used numbers; (h) page layout that has quarter-hour subdivisions, extra space for details, simple layout, proportionally less space for weekends and nights; and (i) a planning feature for entries far into the future.

Gleeson (1994) recommends using some type of book to consolidate multiple reminders and projects. The book provides a place to write down a task needing to be done. Verbal requests should always be logged. Each task should be dated, and crossed off when completed. The book provides a reminder system and follow-up system all in one by prompting the person of what needs to be done and verifying tasks which have been completed. Gleeson recommends a calendar system which allows planning an entire week at a time.

To-Do List

Winston (1983) states the heart of an organizational system is a "master list." The master list is a single, continuous list, maintained in a notebook. The master list contains everything the person needs to do. The master list is not a daily to-do list, nor is it arranged in priority order. Instead, it serves as a catch-all.

At regular intervals, Winston says, the list is to be scanned for items which can be deleted, as well as items to be broken down into smaller units. Each day, the user transfers items to the "daily list," a list of tasks one wants to accomplish that particular day.

Mayer (1995) also embraces the concept of the "master list." He advises against the use of scraps of paper or sticky notes. This author argues that the executive will find scanning a list of 25 lines much easier and more efficient than looking through 25 little pieces of paper.

Lakein (1973) says the to-do list should be rewritten at the end of the day, or whenever it becomes difficult to read. Mayer (1995) says when more than 50% of the items have been completed on a to-do list, the list should be rewritten with the remaining items transferred to the new list.

One of the hallmarks of the effective to-do list is a system of establishing priority among the items on the list. The most popular system gained from the literature is one established by Lakein (1973). He proposes an "ABC" priority system. Tasks which are the most important, or yield the greatest results in reaching one's goal, receive an "A." Those with lesser importance are marked "B." Items of little importance are marked "C."

Lakein suggests one may go as far as listing "A" items on one sheet of paper, with a separate sheet underneath for "B" items, and a third sheet on the bottom for "C" items. When one lifts one sheet to work on items on a sheet below, it serves as a signal that the best use of time is not being made. Mancini (1994) recommends the same "ABC" system for prioritizing tasks.

Principals must learn to prioritize activities, and to distinguish between which are "desired" and which are "required." Roitman (1986) suggests a formula which she calls "ABCDF" to help prioritize tasks. Each task is labeled "absolutely," "better do," "can wait," "delegate and deadline," and "forget it."

The to-do list allows the pencil and paper to grasp and hold tasks to be completed, while the executive can concentrate on their completion. Drucker (1966) emphasizes the secret of effectiveness is concentration. "Effective executives do first things first and they do one thing at a time" (p. 100).

Sloma (cited in Kobert, 1980) also emphasizes solving problems one at a time, but favors initiating several actions at the same time instead of sequentially. In this way, the executive is able to handle multiple projects effectively.

<u>Interruptions</u>

In schools, interruptions are a part of the job (Rees, 1986). One cannot hope to eliminate them, but can seek to better control them. According to Winwood (1990), the important question about interruption control becomes whether or not one can quickly spot "high-priority interruption" as opposed to "dysfunctional interruptions." Winwood (1990) states interruptions come in three categories:

1. Unnecessary—The person being interrupted (by telephone or drop-in visitor) does not have the information, responsibility, or concern regarding the matter brought. This type of interruption should be avoided or terminated quickly.

2. Necessary—The person being interrupted (by telephone or drop-in visitor) has the information, responsibility, or concern regarding the matter brought. This type of interruption has value and should be handled.

3. Untimely—The interruption is necessary, but comes at an inappropriate time. This interruption should be rescheduled to an appropriate time.

Winwood (1990) goes on to state a "point question" is useful in determining the priority of an interruption. The point question is a nonthreatening way to get the interrupter to come to the point of the interruption quickly and allow one to assess its importance.The following questions are common point questions:

1. "What can I do for you?"
2. "What brings you around this way?"
3. "How may I help you?"
4. "What is it you need?" (p. 117)

Ferner (1995) provides the following suggestions for controlling interruptions:

1. Keep a log for a couple of days, including who or what the interrupters are, purposes, time spent, and importance of interruption.
2. Accumulate interruptions of a similar type, and handle them all at once, during a low-priority time, with a memo, as delegated tasks, in a group meeting, or by the person to whom they apply.
3. Have your secretary, the receptionist, or a co-worker screen low- or medium-value interruptions during your quiet hour. Instruct this individual about priorities, a call-back time, finding out the purpose of the calls, referring questions to someone else when possible, notifying callers to have background information ready when you call back, using voice mail, using e-mail, and using answering machines as a means of communicating important messages when direct contact or meetings are difficult to arrange. Cut down on telephone tag by leaving more than your name and number.

> 4. During the quiet hour, close the door when something important to do is scheduled. Practice the open door policy, but within reasonable limits. Plan time when you will be available and time when you will limit your availability.
> 5. Learn to say "no" or "later" if you have something important to do.
> 6. Shorten less important interruptions—spend only the time on them they deserve. Some hints to achieve this time yourself with a clock or egg timer, or have some favorite cut-off phrases for phone or drop-in interruptions. (pp. 222-223)

Taylor (1993) suggests the following list to help school administrators control interruptions:

1. Schedule a "quiet hour" several times daily when no calls are taken and no visitors seen.

2. Use an office layout placing the desk out of view of people passing outside.

3. Accumulate questions, assignments, and comments for others. Present them all at once. Encourage others to do the same.

4. Allot time in the schedule to accommodate interruptions.

5. Maintain a tally of interruptions and speak with the worst offenders. Avoid storing material others will frequently need in the office.

6. Use the quiet hour to work on high-priority tasks.

7. Set time limits for visitors.

One solution to the problem of interruptions is called "batching." Batching consists of setting up a series of one-on-one meetings with subordinates on a regular basis. When subordinates know they will have such a meeting, they are less likely to interrupt in the meantime unless the interruption is urgent or high priority (Winwood, 1990).

Finally, the executive must remember that often he or she is the interrupter. Winwood (1990) states one should keep the following points in mind when interrupting others:

1. Always ask if "now" is a convenient time.
2. Plan your interruptions carefully.
3. Never take more time than is necessary. (p. 121)

Drop-In Visitors

As discussed earlier, interruptions are a part of the job of the principal. Drop-in visitors fall into that category. The drop-in visitor may take the form of a teacher, parent, student, salesman, or community member. If left unchecked, time taken by drop-in visitors can substantially decrease the effectiveness of the principal. As LeBoeuf (1979, p. 160) points out, "It is quite common for us to spend one-half or more of our workday dealing with the unexpected interruptions of the visitor."

Alexander (1992) lists three reasons executives tend to get drop-in visitors:

1. Open-door policy. This policy can be modified by closing the door for regular period of concentration.

2. Inability to terminate visits. This problem can be minimized by meeting in the other person's office, meeting in the hall, or remaining standing during meetings. One can also impose time limits by telegraphing the end with a phrase such as, "Is there anything else before I leave?" One can arrange for someone to interrupt with an "urgent" matter. One can also simply say he has other matters that need attention as he walks towards the door.

3. Poor physical location. If possible, one can change where the work area is located. If this is not possible, one can avoid eye contact. A hideaway may also be found to escape for a quiet hour.

LeBoeuf (1979) offers the following suggestions for dealing with the problem of drop-in visitors:

1. Pin down who ones main drop-ins are. Keeping a visitor log for a week or two will reveal which individuals are dropping in on a regular basis. One can then develop a strategy for working with these people.

2. Close the door. An open door invites people roaming up and down the halls to come in and waste your time.

3. Remove excess chairs and other social amenities from the office. If an office has a number of chairs and a coffeepot, others may look upon it as a social gathering place.

4. Hold conferences with another person in his office (or classroom). When business is completed, one can get up and leave.

5. Stand up when a drop-in visitor arrives. By remaining standing, and the visitor remaining standing, the visit will be considerably shorter.

6. Rearrange the desk so that one does not face the doorway. People will be less likely to drop in when a person's back is to them.

7. Confer with visitors in the hall when they knock at the door.

8. Position the secretary's desk where visitors may be screened.

9. Schedule visiting hours and see visitors only then, unless an emergency arises. The secretary may schedule appointments.

10. Be candid with visitors about time constraints.

11. Establish a plan to end conferences which have clearly run too long. One method is to have the secretary enter after a predetermined amount of time and give a reminder about an appointment (real of imagined).

12. Build time into the schedule for unexpected visitors.

13. Use coffee breaks and lunch hours to meet with visitors.

The list supplied by LeBoeuf seems to encompass the practices found throughout the literature. Merrill and Douglass (1980), Winston (1995), and Mackenzie (1972) all propose quite similar lists to assist the executive in handling drop-in visitors.

Griessman (1994) suggests the use of "time cues." Time cues are tools to indicate to other people in a respectful way one must move on to other commitments. The following examples should be helpful:

1. Explain at the beginning of a meeting or telephone call that one has another commitment at a certain time.

2. Begin stacking materials together as though one is preparing to leave. Standing up provides the most obvious cue.

3. Pause for a lengthy time between comments.

4. Preface a statement or question in such a way that it indicates one must end the conversation.

5. Have an assistant interrupt at a predetermined time to remind one of another appointment.

6. Begin to look for something in the desk as an indication that the visitor no longer has one's undivided attention.

7. Set an alarm which will go off at a predetermined time. When the alarm goes off, it serves to remind one of another appointment.

<u>Telephone</u>

Posner (1982) cites four problems executives experience with the telephone:

1. People talk too much.

2. People talk too often.

3. People are unable to regulate the incoming call pattern.

4. People lack the talent for cutting calls short and being nice at the same time.

In the school setting, many people telephone a school and ask to speak with the principal when they really need to speak with a teacher, or some other person in the school. The secretary who is alert to this fact can direct the call to the correct person and away from the principal (Kergaard, 1991).

The literature offers a variety of suggestions for using the telephone to maximum efficiency (Alexander,1992; Taylor, 1993; Gleeson, 1994; Mancini, 1994; Mayer, 1995; LeBoeuf,1979; Posner, 1982; Douglass & Baker, 1983; Mackenzie,1972; Merrill & Douglass,1980; Januz & Jones, 1981; Winston, 1995):

1. Schedule time when calls are not accepted.

2. Set aside the same time segment each day for callbacks.

3. Before making a call, jot down the points to discuss.

4. Prioritize the items so the most important items will be discussed first.

5. Have all needed files and paperwork at hand before placing the call.

6. For difficult calls, compose a script of exactly what will be said.

7. While talking, make notes regarding tasks which must be done as a result of the call.

8. If the person being telephoned is not there, attempt to obtain the needed information from someone else instead of calling back.

9. When leaving a message for someone else to call back, include the best time for them to call.

10. When someone calls for an appointment, try to settle the matter over the telephone and avoid a meeting.

11. Get to the point of the call and avoid small talk.

12. Place calls just prior to lunch or quitting time. The other party will be less likely to engage in small talk.

13. Have the secretary screen calls and suggest to the caller a time to call back.

14. Train people to take detailed messages, including the name of the caller, their affiliation, telephone number, detailed message, and when they can be reached.

15. If a telephone call can wait, save it until several items can be discussed with the person being called.

16. Do not hold indefinitely. Rather than holding, one may want to call back at a later time. If the person is hard to reach, and holding seems to be the best answer, one can have paperwork or reading material handy rather the wasting the time.

17. Place all calls in one group.

18. Train the secretary to try to provide the needed information to the caller when intercepting calls.

19. When the caller is not getting to the point, ask if they can be called back. They will generally come to the point rather than being called back.

20. When returning a person's call, tell this to the person answering to avoid being screened out.

21. If calling for information, call early to get on the person's to-do list for the day.

22. When leaving a message on someone's machine or voice mail, say the telephone number twice so the person will not have to rewind and listen to the message again.

23. Take control of the conversation. If a caller begins to ramble, asking, "What can I do for you?" should bring them back to the point.

24. Keep a 3-minute hour glass by the telephone to help limit calls.

25. Summarize the caller's remarks when the objective seems to have been reached, and say "Goodbye." This practice keeps calls from dragging out.

26. Terminate calls with long-winded people by saying one has another call, appointment, or some emergency.

27. Consider using the fax machine or electronic mail instead of the telephone. The messages tend to be shorter and interruptions are avoided.

28. Delegate calls when possible.

29. Use a telephone which tracks time spent on a conversation.

30. Keep a telephone log to maintain documentation of calls and the decisions made during them. Include the name of the caller, the time, the length of the call, and the reason for the call. Log outgoing calls as well. This log will reveal trends, including which calls could have been handled by someone else, and the amount of time spent on unnecessary calls.

31. Call before traveling. One should double check dates, times, directions, and agenda items. This process will ensure all needed materials are assembled. In case one's attendance is no longer needed, one saves a wasted trip altogether.

32. Substitute the use of E-mail instead of the telephone.

Screening and Being Screened

Planning is an important part of telephone management. Stephen Taylor, a time-management consultant, states the average time spent on an unplanned call is 12 minutes.

The time spent on a planned call is 7 minutes. The point is 5 minutes are saved every time the caller makes an agenda before calling (Taylor, 1993).

As discussed earlier, many people ask for the principal when they could well speak with someone else. In addition, the constant interruption of the telephone makes work on top-priority projects difficult. Alexander (1992), and Januz and Jones (1981) offer these tips for screening telephone calls:

1. Whenever possible, the screener should answer the caller's questions, arrange for the materials, take down information, and handle the request if feasible.

2. If the screener is unable to handle the call, the screener tries to refer the person to someone else in the department who can help them.

3. If only the boss can handle the call, the screener takes a message.

4. Supply the secretary with three lists of people. The first list is those which should not be put through. They will be called back during the scheduled call-back time or ignored altogether. The second list consists of those who should be put through except if one is in conference or engaged in quiet-hour activities. The third list consists of those people who should be put through regardless of circumstances.

5. If the call meets the preset definition of an emergency or VIP guidelines, then the screener puts the call through.

Not all authorities agree that screening calls is a timesaving practice, however. Roger Dawson, a negotiation authority, disagrees with the practice of screening calls. He insists taking a call, but explaining one only has a minute, is less time consuming than callbacks (Taylor, 1993).

Telephone Tag

One great source of wasted time is the phenomenon of "telephone tag." Mayer (1995) says the chance of reaching a person on the first try is less than 20%. Harry Newton, a telephone consultant from Telecom Library Inc., stated only 22% of business calls are completed (Emanuel, cited in Taylor 1993). The principal who can avoid or reduce the phenomenon of telephone tag is going to save considerable time which can be applied to worthwhile activities.

Griessman (1994) advises calls be returned quickly. This practice minimizes the chance the other person will not be available when one returns the call. In addition, "being interruptible" is an asset. Often, the other party is difficult to call back. Times exists when it is best to take the call then instead of risking playing telephone tag. Finally, the use of a fax can break the telephone-tag cycle. Faxes tend to be read immediately, and one can usually say everything which needs to be said in a fax, avoiding the need for a telephone call.

Mancini (1994) lists the following techniques for avoiding telephone tag:

1. Make a telephone appointment with the other party.
2. Be aware of the other party's schedule and call at times when the party is likely to be available.
3. If the party is on another line, ask to be placed on hold rather than calling back.
4. Leave messages with a secretary or on voice mail. (p. 97)

Merrill and Douglass (1980) suggest recording next to people's telephone numbers the times they are available. When calling others, one should be careful to leave a complete message (Winston, 1995). Finally, telephone tag is minimized when one informs other callers of the best time to call (Alexander, 1992).

Screening saves time for the principal. What if, however, the principal finds himself or herself being screened out when calling others? Griessman (1994) and Mayer (1995) provide the following suggestions for getting through to the other party:

1. Use people's names when possible.

2. Anticipate the questions the person answering the telephone will ask. Providing the answers before the questions are asked will aid in one's getting through to the person.

3. Do not be stopped by the first stumbling block. Ask the secretary to slip the person a note, rather than accepting the response that the person is on another line.

4. Make telephone appointments.

5. Name drop. Mentioning one's relationship to a person well-respected by the other party may help complete the call.

6. Intrigue the other party in order to get them to call back. Telling the secretary one "has something of interest" for the other party may insure a call-back which otherwise would not have happened.

7. Call early or late. By calling before the secretary arrives or after she departs, one may get through directly to the other party.

8. Obtain direct numbers for people frequently called.

9. Work with the secretary. Attempt to find out when the other person will return or get suggestions for good times to call again. If the person is on another line, ask how long the person will be.

Voice Mail

Voice mail is a common tool for today's executive. Mayer (1995) lists the following advantages of using this option:

1. Voice mail enables the sharing of information without actually speaking to another person.
2. The time spent in leaving a voice mail message is less than an actual telephone conversation.
3. Voice mail is available 24 hours a day.
4. Voice mail reduces the amount of time one is left on "hold." (pp. 96-97)

Taylor (1993) makes the following suggestions for using voice mail:

1. When leaving a message, be sure to repeat your name and telephone at the end of the message.
2. Include a fax number when leaving a voice mail message to encourage the other party to fax the information instead of calling back.
3. Review the instructions for voice mail and take advantage of the training provided so the maximum benefit is gained from the service.
4. Include the voice mail extension on business cards. (p. 239)

Taylor (1993) also speaks of the benefits of keeping accurate records of telephone conversations. He lists the following advantages of using a telephone and visitor's log:

1. Reduces interruptions. Others are less likely to interrupt a person who is writing than one who is listening.
2. Increases concentration. A person who is writing is less likely to be distracted than one who is listening.
3. Improves memory. Writing helps put information into the long-term memory.
4. Ensures follow-up action. Since actions are written down instead of one relying on the memory, those actions cannot be forgotten.
5. Provides a written record. The contents of the conversation can later become distorted if no written record is available.
6. Eliminates scraps of paper. Scraps of paper tend to become lost or form clutter.
7. Provides a time log. The amount of time taken for the call or visit can be recorded, which facilitates keeping control of time spent on the telephone and identifying the long-winded callers and visitors.
8. Highlights telephone activity. Proof is evident of the frequency and length of calls. Such proof could be used to justify voice mail, screening calls, or the need for a "quiet hour."
9. Decreases length of calls. By jotting down the items to discuss before the call is made, the time spent on the call is generally lessened.
10. Avoids embarrassment. The first item to be written will be the person's name, eliminating the possibility of forgetting the name at the end of the conversation.
11. Serves as reminder. (pp. 72-74)

Mail

Taylor (1993) offers this extensive list for helping the school administrator handle the mail effectively:

> 1. Have incoming mail diverted to other people for handling except for the 20% or so which must be handled personally.
> 2. Have mail presorted into folders marked "Important," "Routine," and "Junk Mail." Complete the "Important" first.
> 3. Review mail at a set time each day.
> 4. Move the in-basket off your desk, preferably out of sight, to resist the temptation to grab for incoming mail.
> 5. Use a planner when reviewing mail. Record meetings and relevant information in the planner and discard the notice.
> 6. Have mail date-stamped as it is opened.
> 7. Read junk mail at a low energy time, such as just before quitting time, if it is read at all.
> 8. Eliminate multiple copies of memos and reports by circulating one copy.
> 9. Write brief memos and reports. Outlaw letters over 200 words in length. Have sample letters on hand so new ones are not composed for similar situations.
> 10. Jot replies on incoming letters.
> 11. Handle each item only once.
> 12. Use the telephone instead of writing if it will produce the same results.
> 13. Use form letters for routine correspondence.
> 14. When routing correspondence, indicate on the last line its final destination. If this destination is the wastebasket, say so.
> 15. Sign all originals with a colored pen so they can be easily distinguished from the copies.
> 16. If the secretary types letters, dictate them as opposed to longhand writing.
> 17. Use electronic mail to speed up correspondence.
> 18. Get off the mailing list of direct mail marketing companies if most material received is of little value.
> 19. Insist on brief letters and reports.
> 20. Encourage people to use electronic mail and the telephone instead of writing.
> 21. Have more stand-up meetings and fewer reports and memos.
> 22. Review the school's forms and routine reports periodically to identify those which can be combined or eliminated.
> 23. Keep paperwork out of sight except for the project being worked on at the time.
> 24. Utilize the "unless I hear from you otherwise" approach rather than waiting endlessly for replies to memos.
> 25. When circulating paperwork, use a highlighter to call attention to the important areas. (pp. 182-187)

Kobert (1980) emphasizes the role of the secretary in screening the manager's mail:

1. Allow the secretary to throw away junk mail.

2. Authorize the secretary to handle routine correspondence.

3. Have the secretary route mail addressed to the manager to others who have responsibility for that area.

4. Sort and prioritize the remaining mail which will be sent on to the manager.

Delegation

The demands on the principal's time are great and cover a wide range of activities. Delegation allows the principal to tap the strengths of others in the school and spread the workload. Mackenzie (1972) states delegation extends the results of what one person can do and control. It also releases time for more important work. Delegation develops the skill, initiative, knowledge, and competence of others in the organization, serving as a means of training. Delegation also allows decisions to be made at the lowest level possible.

Reluctance to Delegate

Kobert (1980) cites four reasons why people do not delegate:

1. Personal choice—The person enjoys doing that particular task himself or herself.

2. Economic choice—The person feels he or she can finish the job by the time someone else could be taught the job.

3. Ego choice—The person feels no one else can do the task as well as he or she can.

4. Personnel choice—The person does not want to interrupt someone else's work.

Winwood (1990) points out many executives do not delegate because they lack expertise in this area. Some also feel the workload on subordinates will be too great if they delegate more work to them.

Alexander (1992) and LeBoeuf (1979) give the following list of reasons executives do not delegate: (a) the feeling one can do it better and faster, (b) anxiety about mistakes and criticism, (c) the person is not comfortable delegating, (d) fear of losing control, (e) perfection complex, (f) lack of confidence in others, (g) time required to show someone how to do the task, (h) does not occur to the executive, (i) believe delegation is a sign of weakness, (j) wanting to do the job oneself, (k) too busy to delegate, (l) fear of being disliked, (m) delegates do not want to accept responsibility, (n) doing everything makes one feel indispensable, and (o) desire for the admiration, respect, or pity of others.

Ineffective vs. Effective Delegation

Gleeson (1994) paints the following picture of the ineffective delegator in the following list:

1. Distributes workloads arbitrarily.
2. Delegates just before deadline, thereby causing crisis.
3. Fails to clearly communicate the envisioned outcome.
4. Issues minimal, hurried instructions.
5. Delegates in a way which creates misunderstandings.
6. Asks for everything as soon as possible.
7. Hopes staff develops an effective approach to task.
8. Establishes no formal review process.
9. Interferes with how job is being done.
10. Assigns blame to others if result not achieved but takes credit if achieved.
11. Doesn't delegate but instead holds on to the task and acts as a bottleneck.

(p. 134)

How can one tell if delegation is being handled ineffectively? The first clue is the boss is frequently interrupted with inquiries and begins to see a pattern of reverse delegation. Secondly, assignments done by delegates are substandard and must frequently be redone. Finally, the boss looks at an overflowing in-box and must frequently work late to catch up (Winston, 1983).

The first step in effective delegation is to look at one's job (Douglass & Baker, 1983). This process includes examining the objectives, examining the tasks involved in the job, looking at the results expected, determining if someone else can do parts of the job, and determining if someone else can be trained to do parts of the job.

Douglass and Baker (1983) state the next step is to decide what to delegate. The executive can do this by reviewing the decisions he or she makes most often. Of these decisions, the executive may find other staff members better qualified to make the decisions. Furthermore, the added responsibility serves as professional growth for subordinates.

Delegation requires planning. Douglass and Baker (1983) favor "whole-job unity," the concept of delegating all elements of a particular job to one individual. The executive should review all essentials details and decisions associated with the job. Additionally the executive must clarify appropriate limits of authority, establish acceptable performance standards, and determine the amount and regularity of feedback needed.

Selecting the right person for the job is essential to effective delegation (Posner, 1982). The executive must consider the interests and abilities of the subordinate, the degree of challenge offered by the task, and which subordinates need the assignments most. The wise executive must also attempt to balance and rotate items (Douglass & Baker, 1983).

The executive must clearly define the responsibility delegated. The executive and subordinate should jointly establish deadlines and priorities. This process cannot always happen due to the press of tasks and time. However, when the executive can, he or she should stop and ask when the subordinate could complete the tasks, given the current workload. He or she should let them know when this new task fits into the schedule and gain commitment on a follow-up or completion time. Where the instructions are verbal, one may want to ask the delegate to "play back" the instructions to insure that they were clear (Winwood, 1990).

Once a job has been delegated, the executive cannot simply "forget" about it. An effective system of follow-up is essential. The follow-up should provide the executive with feedback in a timely fashion. The follow-up system should encourage independence. Finally, the follow-up system should reward good performance (Douglass & Baker, 1983).

How to Delegate

Several authors (Januz & Jones, 1981; Gleeson,1994; Taylor, 1993; Griessman, 1994; Alexander, 1992) make recommendations for ways to increase the effectiveness of delegation:

1. Practice delegation. Allow the subordinate to do the project. Avoid allowing "upward delegation" to happen.

2. Use a delegation file. This file should include all projects delegated to others, together with assigned reporting times on the status of projects.

3. Take time to teach a task. While teaching the task will take time, it will save a far greater amount of time down the road.

4. Listen well. After giving instructions and teaching assignments, one should listen to subordinates. If they seem uncertain about schedules, data, or procedures, the problems can be cleared up immediately.

5. Make sure you are understood. When directions are misunderstood, all of the time spent on the project is wasted.

6. Do not solve delegates' problems for them. When a delegate comes with a problem, he or she should also come with some solutions. Otherwise the manager winds up solving the problem. Such a situation defeats the purpose of delegation and loses for the delegate the opportunity to learn how to solve problems.

7. Test your delegate's readiness. One can play "what if?" to see if a person is ready to take a project. By asking several "what if?" questions regarding a certain project, one can see quickly if the subordinate has the knowledge base to tackle the problem.

8. Use meetings to serve two delegation purposes. One can possibly send a delegate to meetings one would normally attend. The delegate writes a summary. In this way, the manager saves time by not having to attend the meeting. The delegate learns about the items being discussed, and is better able to handle related projects.

9. Assume responsibility, but give credit to the person who did the job.

10. Insist revisions in deadlines are made in advance, not when the original deadline arrives.

11. Use a delegation record to keep track of delegated tasks.

12. Establish deadlines which are ahead of the actual date a task must be completed to provide a cushion.

13. Develop written procedures for repetitive tasks.

14. Focus on results, not methods.

15. Delegate tasks to weak members as well as strong members. The weaker ones need the opportunity to grow.

16. Delegate not only the task, but the authority to carry out the responsibility.

17. Compliment or reprimand on an ongoing basis instead of waiting until a performance evaluation time.

18. Do not delegate what you can eliminate. Items not important enough for one to handle personally are often not important enough for others to handle either.

19. Delegate the things you do not want to delegate. A person often keeps certain tasks not because they are the most productive, but because they are enjoyable. This interesting work should be shared with others, instead of only delegating the boring assignments.

20. Delegate the objective—not the procedure. The person to whom the task is delegated will likely come up with a better procedure for achieving the desired results. The task should be evaluated on the results, not the procedure used.

> Mancini (1994) offers these steps to effective delegation:
> 1. Identify the task to be delegated.
> 2. Trace on paper the assigned project's flow.
> 3. Find the right person for the job.
> 4. Explain the assignment.
> 5. Explain the benefits.
> 6. Establish the standards.
> 7. Set deadlines.
> 8. Establish a method for reporting progress.
> 9. Encourage the delegate to ask questions.
> 10. Conduct status checks at unscheduled times.
> 11. Evaluate the results.
> 12. Recognize achievement. (pp. 77-81)

An executive who has several subordinates may want to set up an assignment chart to ensure work is allocated fairly. The chart may include current assignments, special skills or education, and time commitments. Such a chart is valuable to determine the most likely candidate to be delegated a particular assignment (Januz & Jones, 1981).

Januz and Jones (1981) stress five items that need to be covered with subordinates when making a new assignment:

1. The task. One should articulate what is to be done, and do so in specific terms.

2. Considerations. Knowing important background information could be essential to successful competition of the job.

3. The larger view. How this assignment fits into the big picture for the organization is essential to know.

4. Accomplishments. The subordinate should know specifically what needs to be done in order to complete the task.

5. Responsibility. The subordinate needs to know the scope and limits of his or her authority to act.

Douglass and Baker (1983) define six levels of delegation. As one moves from one level to the next, the decision-making element given to the subordinate increases.

1. Level 1—Look into the problem. Report all the facts to the manager. The manager will decide what to do.

2. Level 2—Look into the problem. Let the manager know alternative actions, including the pros and cons of each. Recommend a course of action for the manager's approval.

3. Level 3—Look into the problem. Let the manager know what you intend to do. Do not take action until the manager approves.

4. Level 4—Look into the problem. Let the manager know what you intend to do. Follow through with the action unless the manager instructs otherwise.

5. Level 5—Take action. Let the manager know what action was taken.

6. Level 6—Take action. No further contact with the manager is required.

While the principal delegates to others in the school, he or she is also the recipient of delegation from the superintendent, other central office officials, or the State Department of Education. Alexander (1992) suggests eight ways to make delegated task go smoothly:

> 1. Find out how much authority you have on each assignment. Once this has been clarified, you can carry out the project without step-by-step approval.
> 2. Offer your boss solutions to other problems which arise while working on the assignment.
> 3. Repeat directions in your own words so you and your boss are certain you understand the instructions.
> 4. Ask for specific deadlines for each major segment.
> 5. If your boss procrastinates, write up your proposed action plans and say that unless you hear back from the boss by a certain date, you will proceed.
> 6. If the boss dumps a big project on you at the last minute, show him your things-to-do list and ask what the additional items will displace.
> 7. If your boss overwhelms you with work, ask him to prioritize tasks.
> 8. Ask how well the job needs to be done. (p. 72)

Reverse Delegation

Alexander (1992) defines upward delegation as a process of subordinates delegating responsibilities to their superiors. The subordinate will approach the boss with a problem and explain the problem. The boss knows enough about the project to be worried, but not enough to make an on-the-spot decision. The boss responds by saying he or she is in a rush at the moment, but will think it over and get back with the person. In doing so, the boss has (a) accepted an assignment, and (b) promised a progress report.

Blanchard, Oncken, and Burrows (1989) explore the theme of upward delegation in their book, *The One Minute Manager Meets the Monkey*. In this book, the authors personify tasks as "monkeys." Each monkey is on someones back, and all too often, the monkey is on the back of the manager. The work explores how subordinates are able to transfer their monkeys to the back of their superiors. Furthermore, the book shows managers how to keep this process from happening, and insure a much more effective process of delegation.

Mackenzie (1972) lists six reasons why reverse delegation occurs:

1. The subordinate wishes to avoid risk.
2. The subordinate is afraid of criticism.
3. The subordinate lacks confidence.
4. The subordinate lacks the necessary information and resources.
5. The boss wants to be "needed."
6. The boss is unable to say no to requests for help. (pp. 138-139)

Mackenzie (1972) says, however, certain times exist when reverse delegation is appropriate:

1. Praise and reward are often more effective if they come from higher up on the organizational chart.
2. Approval and backing are important when hiring someone who will also be working with both the subordinate and his boss.
3. When a decision is critical or the boss has special abilities, the participation of the boss in the decision is appropriate.
4. If a decision needs the full weight of authority that only the boss can give, having the decision come from the boss is appropriate. (p. 138)

Ferner (1995, p. 147) states, "If you find that you are constantly interrupted by subordinates with questions on minor details and decisions, your problem may go deeper than interruptions. This kind of pattern suggests poor delegation."

Alexander (1992) states the problem of upward delegation is allowed to occur because superior and subordinate viewed the matter as a joint problem from the outset. Alexander offers several ways to solve the problem:

1. Call the subordinate in and decide jointly what move the subordinate might make next.
2. After deciding on a course of action, set a time when the subordinate will report the status of the project.

3. All discussion of the project should be done face-to-face or by telephone. If done by memo to the superior, the problem will likely then become the superior's. (p. 70)

Follow-Up

The principal is responsible for seeing that a myriad of tasks are accomplished, either by the principal of his or her delegates. An efficient follow-up system is important, and according to Mayer (1995), will do many things for a person:

1. Helps get work done well and on time.
2. Helps improve the quality of work.
3. Gives one the opportunity to start important projects while plenty of lead time exists.
4. Helps one remember whom to call and when.
5. Gives one control of business affairs.
6. Helps one stay on top of work delegated.
7. Enables one to compress the amount of time required to make decisions.
8. Lessens the time taken by putting out fires.
9. Gives one the ability to handle multiple projects.
10. Gives one complete control over the day.
11. Allows one to have feeling of accomplishment at the end of the day.
12. Allows one to sleep better.
13. Allows one to avoid working on weekends.
14. Allows one to spend more time with friends, family, and doing the things one enjoys. (pp. 26-27)

Winston (1995) says if one has few items on which to follow up, a single "holding file" will suffice. Notes are made on the calendar which refer to items in the folder. If one has more follow-ups, a set of tickler files is more appropriate.

Working With Subordinates

Mackenzie (1972) talks extensively about allowing subordinates to manage their time. Nothing tells subordinates what is important to an executive better than the way he or she spends time. Those who allow their days to be fragmented with interruptions communicate the message those interruptions are more important than planning and achieving objectives. Mackenzie goes on to state good communication is essential to helping subordinates use their time well. Delegated tasks should carry with them clear communication as the exactly what is expected, the level of responsibility being delegated, and the deadline for completion of the assignment.

While the executive is careful about shielding himself or herself from interruptions, Mackenzie (1972) says he or she must also be careful about interrupting others. When the subordinate is interrupted and forced to shift from project to project, the effectiveness of the entire organization suffers. Equally important, the executive should be careful about keeping subordinates waiting. The schedule of the subordinate is interrupted, making the person less effective.

Finally, Mackenzie states all subordinates must be taught to use a thorough system of follow through. Much time is lost when workers are disorganized, unable to keep track of the status of their projects, and unable to see clearly their objectives and priorities.

Merrill and Douglass (1980) list the following ways to help all members of the group better utilize their time:

1. Provide a model. Subordinates will follow the lead of their superior. If the boss manages time poorly, the subordinates probably will as well.
2. Training of employees is essential in helping them manage time.
3. Look for ways to simplify the work flow through the office.
4. Develop a time-waster profile for the staff and discuss with them how to eliminate time-wasters.
5. Make time use a part of the regular performance review and set improvement objectives.
6. Praise improvement rather than pointing out what remains to be done.
7. Keep subordinates informed about changes in objectives, priorities, plans, and thinking.
8. Use the last few minutes of faculty meetings to discuss ways of spending group time better. Focus on how meetings can be improved.
9. Discuss priorities with faculty and staff members, and encourage them to do the same. This process will encourage others to establish priorities.
10. Keep everyone focused on objectives and intended results so activity traps may be avoided.

11. Ask subordinates what you do that creates time problems for them and how you can help them use their time more effectively. (pp. 205-206)

Working With a Secretary

Winwood (1990) stresses the executive must keep the secretary informed. The secretary should not only know the boss's location, but also current projects and concerns. The secretary can also keep the boss informed about information communicated informally through the organization. One of the best ways to keep the secretary informed is to have a formal meeting at least once a day. A scheduled meeting will reduce the number of interruptions. Finally, the executive must be consistent in scheduling. Some bosses schedule their own appointments. Some secretaries schedule appointments for the them. Either way will work provided some agreement exists in procedure.

Winston (1983) echoes the need for a daily meeting to keep the secretary informed. The executive can also make the secretary more effective by sheltering the person from interruptions at least some portion of the day. Winston also stresses letting others know of the secretary's authority.

Winston (1983) offers the following extensive list of functions the secretary may perform:

Mail and paperwork—

1. Opens and sorts incoming mail.
2. Collects files pertaining to new correspondence.
3. Discards junk mail.
4. Returns typed letters for signature within a day.
5. Handles routine inquiries.
6. Brings to the executive's attention papers requiring action.

7. Drafts replies for boss's approval.

8. Handles much correspondence on his or her own, reporting back to boss.

9. Composes letters from boss's key ideas.

Telephone—

1. Asks callers for their name and the nature of their business.

2. Collects information the boss will need for call-backs.

3. Makes sure the boss has returned all calls.

4. Handles many calls alone, or refers callers elsewhere, reporting back to the boss on his or her actions.

5. Makes many calls on the boss's behalf.

Screening—

1. Screens drop-in visitors, directing them elsewhere or setting up definite appointments for them.

2. Protects the boss's private time from interruptions.

3. Deals with many drop-in visitors on his or her own, reporting back to the boss.

4. Puts files or relevant documents on the boss's desk before appointments.

5. Greets visitors and escorts them to the boss's office.

6. Calls to remind the boss of "another task" if guests stay past time.

Calendar work—

1. Compares the boss's calendar with his or hers daily.

2. Knows where to reach the boss at all times.

3. Makes tentative appointments.

4. Makes definite appointments for the boss and coordinates his or her schedule.

5. Maintains tickler file.

Office supervision—

1. Keeps track of and orders office supplies.

2. Arranges servicing for equipment.

Other services—

1. Organizes office functions such as conferences and luncheons.

2. Monitors the boss's time (makes sure he or she follows through on daily tasks).

3. Takes on independent projects.

Meetings

Ferner (1995, p. 173) states, "As time robbers, meetings are about the worst." According to Mackenzie (1972), many meetings should not happen at all. These meetings include those where the superior cannot or will not make a decision on a matter. A second example is the practice of meeting for the sake of meetings.

Some committees may have survived their usefulness and need to be disbanded. The school leader should periodically examine all standing committees to determine their usefulness to the organization (Schmidt, 1984).

Executives in all fields tend to complain about meetings as being a waste of time. Why do organizations tend to have so many useless meetings? LeBoeuf (1979) lists the following as answers:

1. To provide an audience for someone.

2. To socialize. Meetings provide an excuse to get together, and provide a break from working alone for long periods of time.

3. To escape from being effective. Attending many meetings gives the impression of being very busy and provides an excuse for not completing important tasks.

4. Habit. Regularly scheduled meetings are a prime waste of time.

5. To pass the buck. Often a decision can and should be made by one individual, but that individual is reluctant to act. Forming a committee and accepting a committee recommendation relieves one of the responsibility for making a decision as well as the results of that decision.

6. To fool people into believing they are participating in important decisions. Often, a boss will form a committee, ignore the recommendation, and do what he or she wants.

Januz and Jones (1981) state a survey of top executives and their subordinates determined a strong leader is important for having effective meetings. The leader must keep the meeting moving, keep people involved, and be sure decisions that need to be made are made. Secondly, the meeting must have a meaningful purpose. Meetings should be held when important matters need attention. Meetings should not be held simply for the sake of routine. Privacy is another key element of successful meetings. Meetings should not be interrupted by telephone calls and messages. Finally, only persons who need to attend a meeting should be invited.

Januz and Jones (1981) state effective meeting leaders exhibit the following characteristics:

1. Decide on a purpose. The purpose may be problem solving, planning, training, making announcements, or any combination of those.
2. Establish the best people-energy ratio. The more people, the more energy the leader must exert to have a good meeting. When only a small number of people are invited, they feel they are privileged and will work hard to retain membership in the group.
3. Avoid meeting tardiness. Effective leaders let the minutes of the meeting reflect who is absent and tardy. Reading these minutes at the next meeting will discourage further tardiness.
4. Keep meetings argument-free. Effective leaders seat those likely to argue with each other away from each other and on the same side of the table.

5. Use speed minutes. They have one person take minutes instead of everyone taking notes. The minutes should include decisions made, assignments, deadlines, and other items which people feel should specifically be recorded. These minutes can be copied and given to all participants.
6. Control the discussion. Control can be established and maintained through positive or negative comments, asking specific questions to focus the group, providing recognition to the speaker (in either a positive or negative way), summarizing the points a person has made (each summary closes a door on that topic of discussion), and pushing for a conclusion when the time seems appropriate.
7. Determine the best time and place. If problem solving or planning is the purpose of the meeting, a morning time in a quiet location is best. Training can be held at any time of the day. If training sessions are lengthy, an off-site location minimizes interruptions.
8. Bunch meetings. They schedule meetings back to back. The tendency to allow the meeting to run over will be eliminated. Ones schedule will flow much more smoothly as well.
9. End on an up beat. They provide an up beat ending by tackling an easily-solved problem, restating assignments, and reviewing deadlines.
10. Schedule future meetings. The best time to schedule a meeting is when all participants are in the same room. All time conflicts can be worked out. (pp. 191-192)

Reasons exist for calling meetings. By the same token, reasons also exist for not calling meetings. Douglass and Baker (1983) lists reasons for each:

Reasons to call a meeting—
1. To clarify goals.
2. To receive verbal reports.
3. To encourage group discussion of issues.
4. To analyze and solve problems.
5. To gain acceptance of a decision, program, or idea.
6. To teach or train.
7. To reconcile conflict.
8. To discuss information essential to others.
9. To fulfill legal requirements.

When not to call a meeting—
1. When another means of communication is possible and equally effective.
2. When time does not allow for adequate preparation.
3. When key people are not available.
4. When the timing is poor.
5. When the meeting is not likely to produce satisfactory results. (p. 28)

A number of authors (LeBoeuf, 1979; Mancini, 1994; Taylor, 1993; Winston, 1983; Merrill & Douglass, 1980; Posner, 1982; & Mackenzie, 1972) report the following techniques for getting the most from meetings:

1. Take an inventory of all existing committees and meetings held. Examine the purpose and usefulness of each to determine which should be kept and which should be abandoned.

2. Keep the number of standing committees to a minimum. Regularly question the value of each committee's existence.

3. When a committee is formed, its purpose should be clearly articulated, a deadline for reaching its goal should be established, and it should be dissolved when its purpose is reached.

4. Look for other alternatives to calling meetings.

5. Keep the number of people attending a meeting small.

6. Determine exactly what is to be accomplished at meetings.

7. Establish starting and ending times for meetings and stick to them.

8. Circulate an agenda for each meeting well ahead of time to those who will be attending.

9. Have all necessary materials on hand and organized.

10. Have someone take accurate minutes. Distribute copies to all attending the meeting.

11. Compare what was accomplished during the meeting to the objectives established beforehand.

12. Never require a group to work on a task one person could do alone.

13. Create an environment which encourages productivity. Check lighting, temperature, audio-visual equipment, etc.

14. Establish a means to capture ideas, such as a blackboard, flip chart, or overhead projector.

15. End the meeting with a summary of the decisions made.

16. Follow up with a memo summarizing the meeting and the steps to be taken to fulfill the decisions made.

17. Allocate a time amount for each agenda item to keep on schedule.

18. If another meeting of the same group is needed, schedule it during the first meeting while everyone is still present.

19. Use a checklist to be sure facilities and equipment are in place.

20. If latecomers or absentees are a problem, list them on the minutes.

21. Hold a meeting wrap-up 5 minutes before its close. During this time, restate decisions, review assignments, and review deadlines.

22. Set a time limit for the meeting and each agenda item.

23. Prepare concise minutes and distribute within 24 hours after the meeting.

24. Be sure progress is made and decisions are executed.

25. Stay abreast of the progress of committees.

The length of a meeting is an important consideration. Mackenzie (1972) states in general, meetings should last no more than one hour. Taylor (1993) stresses keeping meetings under 2 hours. Long meetings lose their effectiveness. Taylor also recommends avoiding a formal break for meetings under 2 hours in length. He recommends a stretch break of around a minute instead. If one does take a break, Taylor recommends specifying a return time rather than the length of the break.

An agenda is essential for an effective meeting. Januz and Jones (1981) say the agenda should be issued 2 or more days in advance of the meeting. It should list the items to be covered and in the order in which they will be covered. In addition, the agenda should allocate an exact amount of time to each item. Finally, the items may be prepared in question form, together with an indication of who is responsible for the answer.

Deviations from the agenda are often the result of a failure to listen. When group members are more focused on what they are about to say than what is being said, time is sure to be wasted (Mackenzie, 1972).

Scheduling a meeting so all needed participants are available can be tricky. An easy way to schedule meetings is to give all participants involved a transparency with blocks of time marked. Each person marks out the times he or she is unavailable. When the transparencies are stacked, one can see immediately the times when all participants are free (Januz & Jones, 1981).

Other ways exists to share information other than meetings. Januz and Jones (1981) propose the following list of alternatives to meetings:

> 1. Routing schedules. Information can be sent to all persons who normally would be called together for a meeting. The participants then send any feedback via a memo.
> 2. Idea notebooks. The notebook contains a problem to be solved or a goal to be achieved. Everyone who would like is free to jot ideas or comments. The results of the notebook can then be typed and sent to all parties who are working on the particular project at hand.
> 3. Conference calls. This technique reduces the need for face-to-face meetings.
> 4. Computer conferencing. Ideas can be sent from person to person at any time. A great deal of time is saved over face-to-face meetings or even conference calls. (pp. 93-94)

The points covered to this point regarding meetings are designed to help the principal make his or her meetings more effective. The principal is also called on to attend meetings held by others. Januz and Jones (1981), and Alexander (1992) propose the following as being effective techniques for helping one manage time spent in meetings:

1. Reduce the number of meetings one attends. Work to reduce by 80% the number of meetings usually attended.

2. Meet with oneself. Block out time to work on important projects. Reserve that time just as if it were a meeting with other people.

3. Keep the minutes, if one is not the chair. The person keeping the minutes has an opportunity to focus the group and prevent digressions.

4. Limit the amount of time spent at any one meeting. When the meeting begins to become nonproductive, the best idea is to leave.

5. Bring a tape recorder. The tape recorder will catch any important information freeing one to work on other things (mentally or on paper).

6. Learn what one can about the people who are there. Meetings provide an opportunity to learn how other people think and react, as well as their areas of strength and weakness. This information is valuable for future situations.

7. Ask what the meeting's purpose is when upon arrival if there is no agenda stating it. If no purpose is clear, one may assume the meeting will be a waste of time. Excusing oneself may be the most productive option.

8. Demand competent leaders. Part of the meeting should include an evaluation of the leader. Through this process, the best leaders will be targeted and rise to the top.

9. Go just for the part which relates to one's work.

Meetings are composed of people, and people come with their individual personalities. Some of those personalities facilitate productivity, while others hinder it. Mackenzie (1972) lists the following roles people play in meetings:

> Group blocking roles—
> 1. The aggressor— Criticizes and deflates the status of others; disagrees with others aggressively.
> 2. The blocker—Stubbornly disagrees; rejects others' views; cites unrelated personal experiences; returns to topics already resolved.
> 3. The withdrawer—Won't participate; "wool gatherer;" converses privately; self-appointed notetaker.
> 4. The recognition seeker—Boasts; excessive talk; conscious of his status.
> 5. The topic jumper—Continually changes subject.
> 6. The dominator—Tries to take over, assert authority, manipulate group.
> 7. The special-interest pleader—Uses group's time to plead his own case.
> 8. The playboy—Wastes group's time showing off; story telling; nonchalant; cynical.
> 9. The self-confessor—Talks irrelevantly about his own feelings and insights.
> 10. The devil's advocate—More devil than advocate.
> Group-building roles—
> 1. The initiator—Suggests new or different ideas for discussion and approaches to problems.
> 2. The opinion giver—States pertinent beliefs about discussion and others' suggestions.
> 3. The elaborator—Builds on suggestions of others.
> 4. The clarifier—Gives relevant examples; offers rationale; probes for meaning and understanding; restates problems.
> 5. The tester—Raises questions to "test out" whether group is ready to come to a decision.
> 6. The summarizer—Reviews discussion; pulls it together.
> Group maintenance roles—
> 1. The tension reliever—Uses humor or calls for break at appropriate times to draw off negative feelings.
> 2. The compromiser—Willing to yield when necessary for progress.
> 3. The harmonizer—Mediates differences; reconciles points of view.
> 4. The encourager—Praises and supports others; friendly; encouraging.
> 5. The gate keeper—Keeps communication open; encourages participation.
> (pp. 103-104)

Along the same line, Posner (1982) says the meeting leader should be prepared to deal with the following types of people:

1. The negative element.
2. The over-aggressor.
3. The introvert.
4. The attention seeker.
5. The non sequitur specialist.
6. The lobbyist.
7. Mr. Cool.
8. Mr. Showbiz.
9. The "dirty laundry" man.
10. The bleeding heart.
11. The Devil's advocate. (p. 17)

Paperwork

The concept of "single handling" is the most common time management practice for handling paperwork discussed in the literature related to time management (Gleeson, 1994; Mackenzie, 1972; Mackenzie, 1985b; Lakein, 1973; Alexander, 1992; Winwood, 1990; Scallan, 1986; Oliver, 1990; Hartley, 1990). This practice involves handling each piece of paper one time only. The paper is acted upon and sent on its way. Single handling saves time by eliminating the need for one to reorient oneself with the facts and determining what remains to be done on the project. Time is wasted when the executive reads a piece of paper and replaces on the desk, only to pick it up again later.

If one cannot deal with papers because of insufficient information, he or she should send the papers to a subordinate, secretary, or other person who can supply the needed information (Mackenzie, 1972). Similarly, Mackenzie (1985b) states one should take all possible action which can be taken on one project before going on to another project or activity.

Alexander (1992) offers these suggestions to reduce the paper blizzard:

1. When someone writes requesting information, answer on the incoming letter.
2. Prepare a short priority list of papers you need. Let your assistant screen and handle the rest.

3. Request your name be taken off mailing and subscription lists.
4. Think twice before keeping an extra copy of anything.
5. Handle each piece of paper only once.
6. Consider placing long distance calls instead of creating paperwork.
7. Reward employees who have good suggestions for reducing paper.
8. Before reading an item, question whether or not it will bring one closer to a priority goal.
9. Do not answer letters others can answer.
10. Substitute oral reports for written ones.
11. Ask for summaries instead of lengthy reports. Have one's assistant mark key passages in the report. (p. 98)

Part of dealing with paperwork is to reduce the amount one generates. One can use the telephone or face-to-face communication as a means to reduce letters and memorandum. The secretary can handle routine paperwork, freeing the executive from some of the time expenditure. Before copying documents, one can question whether the extra paper generated is really needed. Finally, one can throw away unneeded papers (LeBoeuf, 1979).

Winston (1995) states a person can do four things with paperwork:

1. Toss—throw the item away.
2. Refer—pass the item along to someone else to handle.
3. Act—act on the item personally. This could involve replying to a letter, signing a document, or studying a report.
4. File—file the paper for future reference. (p. 28)

The following list expands the "TRAF" idea (Winston, 1995):

Toss—

1. Open the mail over the wastebasket and discard unwanted items immediately.

2. Ask oneself, "What is the worst thing that can happen if I throw this away?" If the answer is not too bad, discard the item.

3. Establish a "holding tank" for items which are possible candidates to be discarded. Periodically check this holding tank for items which can be discarded.

Refer—

1. Create a set of file folders, each labeled with the name of a person with whom one communicates regularly. Drop in the folder items to be discussed with that person.

2. Create a notebook with pages headed with the names of those with whom one communicates regularly. One can jot notes on the appropriate pages.

3. One can create "automatic agendas" for meetings by establishing a folder or notebook page for the meeting. Items to be discussed can be dropped in the folder (or noted on the appropriate page) as they are thought of. When the time comes to write out an agenda, the agenda has already been established.

Act—

1. Hand write replies to memos on the memo itself.

2. Save a couple of sample thank-you notes to use a models. This will save time when writing future notes.

3. Devise form letters for routine correspondence.

4. Limit memos to a page or less.

5. Examine the distribution lists one is on and consider removing oneself from those which are not necessary.

Winston (1995) recommends the following exercise to measure efficiency in moving paperwork:

> 1. Note on each piece of paper the date it arrives on ones desk.
> 2. After one week, check the papers on the desk. Two points are added for each piece of paper which has been there 2 days or less. One point is deducted for each piece of paper which has been on the desk from 3 to 7 days. Two points are subtracted for each piece of paper which has been on the desk for more than one week.
> 3. The goal is to wind up with a positive score. (p. 42)

Desk

Several authors talk about the importance of a neat desktop in helping the executive save time. Mayer (1995) says most executives spend an hour each day looking for paper, files, or other items on their desktops. One solution is at the end of each day, one should go through all of the material which has accumulated during the day. If the task is done daily, one will find staying organized relatively easy.

Mackenzie (1985b) recommends the desktop be clean except for the project at hand and one's personal planner. Griessman (1994) echoes this recommendation. Furthermore, Griessman stresses a person's desk should be stocked with all the tools and supplies needed. The tools must also be operational. Much time is lost in borrowing items or going to stock rooms to get items.

Taylor (1993) offers this seven-point plan for helping the school administrator establish a neat work area:

> 1. Arrange office furniture to save time.
> 2. Keep envelopes near the telephone. When information is requested, the envelope may be filled out during the call.
> 3. Use a set of stacking trays, one tray for each person to whom communication routinely takes place.
> 4. Assign a purpose to each desk drawer. Allow no more than one "junk drawer."
> 5. Eliminate the pencil caddy and keep spare pencils and pens in a desk drawer.
> 6. Keep the desk surface relatively clean.
> 7. Place the telephone on the credenza behind the desk. Interruptions while on the telephone are less likely when facing the wall instead of the interrupter. (pp. 190-191)

Taylor (1993) realizes some school administrators may need a "major overhaul" to establish an effective work area. The initial cleanup involves a 10-point plan:

> 1. Block a 3-hour period when no interruptions will be allowed.
> 2. Empty all desk drawers and the credenza of paperwork.

3. Put all paperwork into one of 3 envelope boxes marked "Priority," "Routine," or "Junk Mail." Stack magazines in another pile.
4. In the process of sorting through this paperwork, throw out the items which are obviously garbage.
5. Establish one desk drawer as a file drawer, installed with hanging files. If this arrangement is impossible, a filing cabinet drawer within easy reach of the desk could suffice.
6. Establish a tickler file system in the file drawer. Also include hanging files labeled with titles of current projects.
7. Establish one or more desk drawers for nonpaperwork items, such as office supplies. An organizer tray in this drawer is helpful.
8. Throw out items which appear to be "junk." Place other items in a shoe box. Label the box "Junk Drawer, " and place it in a closet. Examine the contents in a year. Anything which has not been needed in that time can probably be thrown away.
9. Go through the envelope boxes, beginning with the one marked "Priority." Deal with each piece of paper one at a time. Each piece will be scrapped, delegated, acted upon, or scheduled to do at another time.
10. Completing the entire process will not likely be accomplished in 3 hours. A half hour each morning should be set aside to going through the boxes until all items are taken care of. (pp. 99-100)

Filing

Taylor (1993) discusses the importance of an effective filing system for school administrators. A tickler file system is important for filing paperwork related to scheduled events. Hanging file folders are recommended for their ability to house manila folders. The administrator will find keeping frequently used folders close at hand to be an excellent practice. If a "throw away" date is marked on papers before filing, they may then be disposed of when they have exceeded their usefulness. Magazine articles of long-lasting usefulness are best torn from the magazine and filed. Newspaper clippings may be pasted onto standard-sized paper and placed in a 3-ring binder. Smaller clippings can be pasted onto index cards.

Gleeson (1994) also discusses the advantages of the "tickler folder." Using this particular method, stacks of paper on the desktop are eliminated. On the appropriate date, the papers will be there to remind one of a task to be done, and time will have been blocked out to complete the task.

The principal may wish to make use of a chronological filing system. One can easily keep a file of all written transactions in order of date. In addition to taking almost no time to file, one may be able to see a pattern of events and related tasks which can later be incorporated into long-term planning (Scallan, 1986).

Batching

Gleeson (1994) proposes "batching" routine work as a time management practice. Batching involves processing similar communications and tasks at one time, reducing waste and motion. Many elements of work, says Gleeson, can be reduced to simple routines through batching. Batching similar activities can include blocks of time for writing letters, reading the mail, holding routine meetings, handling telephone calls, or doing paperwork (Hartley, 1990; Merrill & Douglass, 1980).

Gleeson (1994) illustrates the following as examples of batching: (a) taking a stack of work from the out basket and distributing it all at the same time, rather than getting up from your desk each time a piece of work is completed; (b) doing all word processing at one time, rather than going in and out of different applications each time a new document must be created; and (c) doing all filing at one time rather than filing one item at a time.

Kobert (1980) recommends the secretary keep a "signature folder." Any material which simply needs the manager's signature is placed in that folder. This system allows the principal to sign a number of documents at one sitting, instead of being interrupted all during the day.

By grouping related items, the principal can save time and steps. A single trip down a hall can combine checking on a part of the building, speaking with a teacher, and giving instructions to a custodian (Cronk, 1987).

Procrastination

Merrill and Douglass (1980) define procrastination as doing low-priority activities or tasks rather than high-priority activities or tasks. They go on to state procrastination is a habit.

One of the causes of procrastination is many executives postpone making a decision until they are absolutely sure the answer is the right one. Mackenzie (1972) stresses even the best decision is no good if it is made too late. Furthermore, if a wrong decision is made and made early, time remains for corrections. He goes on to say if a person is committed to a course of action, good results can occur even if the best of decisions was not made. Winston (1983) also warns of the tendency to be a perfectionist as a cause of procrastination.

The greatest cause of procrastination is the reluctance to do unpleasant tasks (Merrill & Douglass, 1980; LeBoeuf, 1979; Winwood, 1990; Mancini, 1994). The irony is putting off the tasks only increases the unpleasantness, and the task never goes away. The best way to handle the problem is to do the unpleasant task first. Winston (1983) points out the task can also be delegated.

A second cause of procrastination is a task which seems overwhelming (Winston, 1983; Winston, 1995). One solution is to tackle the unpleasant task in small pieces (Merrill, & Douglass, 1980; Winston 1983; Winston, 1995; Mancini, 1994; LeBoeuf, 1979; Winwood, 1990). These small pieces are then scheduled during available time (Winston, 1995). Winston (1995) also says an executive can define small parts of a project which can be accomplished in 5 minutes or less.

Indecision is a major cause of procrastination (Merrill & Douglass, 1980). The indecision is likely due to goals which are unclear or the lack of a good plan of action (Mancini, 1994). Winston (1983) says one must identify the needed action steps, and put the steps into a logical sequence. Often the "best" starting point is not apparent. In such a case, one can make an arbitrary start at some point in the project.

Winston (1983) goes on to point out the lack of an immediate payoff is a reason why executives procrastinate. One can plan "mini" completion points throughout the project to provide more immediate gratification.

Gleeson (1994) stresses "single handling" of paperwork, as discussed earlier, prompts action instead of procrastination. Glesson also recommends one clear up a large supply of low-priority items whose presence calls attention away from the high priority items.

Peale (1982) states one should identify a specific area where procrastination plagues effectiveness and conquer it. Learning to set priorities and focus on one problem at a time reduces procrastination. Finally, Peale says one must establish deadlines.

What toll does procrastination take on the executive and his or her career? LeBoeuf (1979) points out the pitfalls of the habit of procrastination:

> 1. Waste of the present. A person cannot change the past, nor make the future arrive sooner. The only dimension he or she has is the present. The procrastinator wastes the present. Worse yet, procrastination is habit-forming.
> 2. An unfulfilled life. Accomplishment and enjoyment each day are hallmarks of the fulfilled life. For the procrastinator, today never has to count for anything, because there is always tomorrow. The vacuum created in the present is filled with tasks which do not lead to fulfillment.
> 3. Boredom. Boredom is a failure to use present moments constructively.

4. The anxiety of working under pressure. The person who waits until the last minute to accomplish tasks provides numerous opportunities to fills one's life with anxieties.
5. Impotent goals. While people have goals for the future, the actions which lead to their accomplishment occur in the present. By putting off those actions, a person also puts off the accomplishment.
6. The constant plague of unsolved problems. Many problems left unsolved will not go away, but will simply become larger. The procrastinator is faced with solving large problems instead of small ones.
7. Continuous frustration.
8. Poor health. The procrastinator puts off getting symptoms checked by a physician, replacing worn-out brakes, or bad tires.
9. A mediocre career. Delay in acting on opportunity, getting additional education, or making important contacts means missing out on advancement in one's career.
10. A life of indecision. Each decision a person makes is an opportunity to gain some control over his or her future. That opportunity is forfeited when one puts off those decisions. The procrastinator becomes the slave of his or her future instead of the master of it.
11. Poor interpersonal relationships. When conflict arises, the procrastinator shies away from further contact instead of attempting to resolve conflict.
12. Fatigue. Struggling all day with doubt, indecision, delay, frustration, and boredom, the procrastinator should find it no surprise he or she is tired. (pp. 134-139)

Reading

Certainly the reading of professional journals is important to the professional development of the principal. Likewise, keeping abreast of current local, state, national, and world events is also important to the school leader. Though the principal may want to read a great deal, the time demands of the job make it difficult to read and digest all of the information available.

Alexander (1992) states time does not permit reading newspapers and journals word for word. Scanning the table of contents of a magazine will tell a person what articles need to be read (Merrill & Douglass, 1980). They suggest scanning the headlines of a newspaper will provide a maximum of information with a minimum of time.

LeBoeuf (1979) lists the following points to help the executive read selectively:

1. Evaluate professional reading in light of ones goals.
2. Concentrate on the main points. Reading subheadings and topic sentences will clue the reader as to whether or not the entire section needs to be read.
3. Reduce the reading load to the bare necessities. Cut subscriptions to a minimum.
4. Highlight major points and write in margins of material which will be referred to on a regular basis.
5. Prevent reading from building up. Items not read by a reasonable date should be discarded.
6. Attempt to increase reading speed. (pp. 182-183)

Taylor (1993) suggests the reader take notes on 3" X 5" cards. In addition, one might keep a partial pad of Post-it notes stuck to the inside cover of a book to mark pages to be photocopied later. Finally, the executive should keep a file of articles torn or photocopied from magazines. They can be read during wait time or while traveling (Taylor, 1993; Winston, 1995).

Merrill and Douglass (1980) recommend one examine the value of reading material regularly received. The executive need not continue subscriptions to all publications. In addition, one may seek out summations of publications which are available and read those instead. The executive may also adopt the practice of reading only the first lines of paragraphs. Winston (1995) suggests reading only the introduction and conclusion of lengthy reports.

Mayer (1995) suggests the establishment of a "reading file." The executive should skim the table of contents of a magazine and rip out the articles which seem of interest and place these articles in the reading file. If one does not want to rip the article from the magazine, he or she can circle the page number in the table of contents or place a bookmark at the beginning of the article. The entire magazine can then go into the reading file.

If one wants to establish reading as a priority, then the activity should be given a place in the schedule. This time can be set aside for typical low points of the day, or a designated time each week (Winston, 1983; Gleeson, 1994).

Saying "No"

The principal cannot increase the number of hours in a day. He or she can, however, control to an extent the number of time commitments by declining to take extra work. Griessman (1994) suggests avoiding meetings, appointments, and social events which will likely be a waste of time.

Saying "no" can often be difficult. The principal, or any executive, should be diplomatic and decline the request in a nice way (Packard, 1982; Mancini, 1994; LeBoeuf, 1979). Very importantly, though, is saying "no" up front. By stating one will "think about it," for example, the task of declining only becomes harder (LeBoeuf, 1979). Packard (1982) suggests putting the refusal on an impersonal basis by referring to rules one has set regarding projects which will be undertaken.

LeBoeuf (1979) reminds the executive he or she has a right to decline requests. Many requests come to the principal's desk. Some take the form of requests for the principal's time. Others take the form of requests to speak to the student body, or for a group within the school to participate in a particular activity. The principal has a responsibility not only to protect his or her own time, but also to protect academic learning time, teachers' time and students' time. The ability to say "no" becomes an important practice.

Waiting Time

All people experience time waiting for the doctor, dentist, or hair stylist. With some imagination, all kinds of activities can be accomplished in those otherwise wasted minutes.

One can plan a weekend, update goals, update to-do lists, do isometric exercises, pay bills, meditate, or write letters. Small bits of large projects can accomplished during wait time. Examples would include knitting a sweater, planning a dream home, or outlining a novel (LeBoeuf,1979).

Merrill and Douglass (1980) suggest reading material be taken when a wait is anticipated. Griessman (1994) recommends not only reading during a wait, but also handling mail and writing letters or thank-you notes.

Taylor (1993) offers a novel suggestion for minimizing waiting time. He recommends the executive ask for the first appointment of the day at the doctor's or dentist's office. The chances of being kept waiting are much less at this point in the day.

Driving time offers the principal a unique opportunity. The principal who has a lengthy commute will appreciate the following suggestions by Taylor (1993):

> 1. Keep a memo pad in the car to capture ideas.
> 2. Listen to books recorded on cassette tape while driving.
> 3. Carry a kit of commonly needed items in the glove compartment. This kit might include maps, coins, tape, a stapler, safety pins, and a flashlight. (pp. 191-192)

<u>Computer Management</u>

One of the great challenges of the principalship is the vast amount of information which must be digested and recalled at a moment's notice. The computer gives the principal an indispensable tool for doing just those things. A personal computer can perform tasks in a few minutes which would take days if done by hand. The principal can use the computer for typing tasks, processing of student and personnel information, financial record keeping, and planning (Rolley, 1986).

Mayer (1995) uses, and proposes for others' use, a contact manager. Such a program uses the computer to help one take control of all daily activities, including telephone calls, to-dos, meetings, and appointments. Mayer recommends the program "ACT!" as the best choice in a contact manager.

Griessman (1994) proposes the following as valuable uses of the computer to the executive:

> 1. Use the computer to assist with research.
> 2. Use the computer to calculate spreadsheets.
> 3. Use the computer to store and retrieve.
> 4. Use the computer to communicate. Electronic mail is quick and easy.
> 5. Use the computer to do routine tasks. A computer can address envelopes and make out checks.
> 6. Use the computer to assist in organizing ones life. Portable electronic organizers can record appointments and memos, as well as store addresses and telephone numbers. (pp. 195-196)

Several authors (Winston,1995; Griessman, 1994; Fanning & Fanning, 1990) advocate establishing a list of items that recur on a regular basis. Each year, these items are noted on the calendar. Such items could include various deadlines, birthdays, and holidays.

Gleeson (1994) points out the use of electronic mail is quickly becoming a time management practice. The principal who receives a large amount of electronic mail should handle the mail 3 or 4 times daily. All of these electronic mail messages should be processed at the same sitting. According to Gleeson, each message should be handled, filed, purged, or acted upon. Many computer systems alert the receiver each time a message comes in. If one is using a system with such a feature, one would do well to turn off that feature.

Office Machines

Fax machines, photocopiers, and other office machines are potentially big time savers, provided they are used properly. Taylor (1993) discusses a variety of ways in which the principal can save time both personally, and for his or her entire office staff or school.

Transmittal time is a concern when using a fax machine. Taylor says transmittal time is diminished when sheets contain a minimum of graphics and few bold lines of type. Covers sheets may be replaced altogether with Post-it brand fax transmittal memos applied directly to the first page. One may also wish to keep a list of commonly used fax numbers by the fax machine and encourage others to add to the list.

Taylor (1993) lists the following tips for managing the photocopier effectively:

> 1. Accumulate items to photocopy and make one trip to the machine.
> 2. Reduce the volume of paperwork by copying on both sides of the paper.
> 3. Place supplies normally used with the photocopier nearby (such as paper punch, stapler, folders, etc.)
> 4. When copying a long report, photocopy the pages in reverse order so the copy will be in the correct order.
> 5. Control the numbers of copies being made through the use of an autotron or code number, so each person is held responsible for the number of copies made.
> 6. When copying material for later reference, indicate the source on the copy. (pp. 220-221)

Finally, Taylor (1993) offers the following suggestions for helping the principal lead his office staff towards better time management practices:

> 1. Store materials where they are used instead of in centralized places.
> 2. When ordering material or completing registration forms, staple a business card to the form.
> 3. When items are stored in a box (stationary, brochures, envelopes, etc.), identify on the outside of the box the contents.
> 4. Establish written procedures for all tasks.
> 5. Have employees question the things they do, looking for items which could be eliminated, combined, or simplified.

6. Provide training in time management concepts.
7. Post a map of the school area near the secretary's telephone. Callers unfamiliar with the area will be able to receive clear directions to the school.
8. Tape the vendor or repair person's business card to the bottom of equipment, so the name and telephone number will be handy in case of needed repair.
9. Store instruction pamphlets for all equipment in a 3-ring binder.
10. Post operating instructions and instructions for handling frequently occurring problems near photocopying or fax machines.
11. Have vendors conduct a brief training session for the faculty and staff on new machines. (pp. 216-218)

Summary

The review of the literature provides a picture of the effective principal as well as the complexity of the position. A number of sources have shed light on how principals can better accomplish their goals given the limited time allowed and the seemingly limitless duties. As the literature shows, mere knowledge of the central functions of his or her position does not insure the principal will successfully tend to those functions. Other less important but more urgent tasks usurp the principal's time. McCall (1994, p. 2) states, "Principals can't change unless they can accomplish their work in a smarter, less time consuming way. Only then can they become social architects, facilitators of change."

The use of time management practices is a worthwhile topic to investigate. As Roney et al. (1990) found, "Principals who plan their day are much more likely to achieve their goals than are the principals who allow the day to develop on its own" (p. 69).

Today's schools shoulder greater responsibilities than schools of previous generations. This expanded role translates into expanded demands on the principal's time. The challenge for today's principal is to take the 168 hours each week afforded him or her, and shape them in such a way the school moves forward, and the principal enjoys both a rich personal and professional life. In the words of Goethe (cited in Covey, 1989, p. 146), "Things that matter most must never be at the mercy of things that matter least."

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURE

Research Design Overview

The review of literature revealed a great deal of information in the area of time management. Many time management practices were suggested for use by executives in all walks of life. The review of literature, however, reveals a void in information relating to the time management practices principals actually use. Furthermore, the review found no information addressing the use of time management practices by principals currently serving in Alabama public schools.

This study was designed to measure the use of specific time management practices by Alabama principals. The study compared the similarities and differences in the use of these time management practices according to the type of school (elementary, middle, high, or multilevel school) in which the principal is employed, the gender of the principal, the degree held by the principal, and the age of the principal. In addition, the results of the study were used to establish a profile of time management practices. This profile provided a list of the time management practices examined ranked in order from most frequently used to least frequently used.

This chapter outlines the research questions and null hypotheses that guided this study, describes the research design used in gathering and analyzing the data.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used to guide this study:

1. Will a profile of time management practices for elementary, middle level, high school, and multilevel school principals reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

2. Will a profile of time management practices for male and female principals reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

3. Will a profile of time management practices for principals who hold a master's degree and principals who hold a degree beyond a master's reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

4. Will a profile of time management practices for principals from the age of 40 and below, principals from the ages of 41 to 50, and principals from the age of 51 and above reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

5. Will a profile of time management practices for principals with 0 to 3 years' experience in the principalship, principals with 4 to 9 years' experience in the principalship, and principals with 10 or more years' experience in the principalship reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

6. What time management practices will respondents identify that they use with greatest frequency?

7. What time management practices will respondents identify that they use with least frequency?

8. What are the psychometric characteristics of the instrument with this particular population?

Null Hypotheses

Data gathered in this study were used to test the following null hypotheses at the .05 level of significance:

1. There will be no significant difference in the responses of elementary principals, middle level principals, high school principals, and multilevel school principals regarding their use of specific time management practices.

2. There will be no significant difference in the responses of male principals and female principals regarding their use of specific time management practices.

3. There will be no significant difference in the responses of principals who hold a master's degree and principals who hold a degree beyond a master's degree regarding their use of specific time management practices.

4. There will be no significant differences in the responses of principals 40 years of age and below, principals 41 to 50 years of age, and principals 51 years of age and above regarding their use of specific time management practices.

5. There will be no significant differences in the responses of principals with 0 to 3 years' experience in the principalship, principals with 4 to 9 years' experience in the principalship, and principals with 10 or more years' experience in the principalship regarding their use of specific time management practices.

Population and Subjects

A data base was obtained from the Alabama State Department of Education which listed the names and school addresses of all persons currently serving as school principals in Alabama. Similarly, a list was obtained showing the grade configuration of each school in Alabama. Using this list, each school on the data base was classified in 1 of 4 groups:

elementary school, middle-level school, high school, or multilevel school. Appendix F illustrates the various grade configurations represented in Alabama, together with the number of and percentage of schools reflecting each grade configuration.

Participants were selected for the study by conducting a proportional stratified random sampling of the 4 groups listed above. A table of random numbers (Borg & Gall, 1989) was be used in the selection process. It was determined that 50 usable surveys would be needed for data analysis in each of the groups. Of the 4 types of schools listed earlier, the middle-level schools represented the smallest population; therefore a minimum of 50 usable surveys returned was needed. Realizing that not all subjects would return the surveys, twice the minimum number needed were sent to the selected subjects. A similar procedure was used with the other 3 groups. Table 2 shows the total number of schools in Alabama in each of the 4 groups. The table also illustrates the percentage of total Alabama schools represented by that group. The table goes on to list the target number needed for each of the 4 groups to insure a proportional stratified random sampling. The final column of the table shows the number of surveys sent in each of the 4 categories. In each case, the number sent was obtained by doubling the target number needed.

Table 2

Total Number of Alabama Schools in Each School Level

Type of School	Population Total	Percentage of Population	No. Needed	Sent
Elementary School	616	45%	139	277
Middle Level School	222	16%	50	100
High School	270	20%	61	122
Multilevel School	255	19%	57	115
Total	1363	100%	307	614

Instrumentation

The *Time Management Rating Scale*, discovered during the process of reviewing the literature, was found to be a suitable instrument for this study, and was used to measure principals' use of time management practices. This instrument is a modification of an instrument developed by Calabrese (cited in Tanner & Atkins, 1990). Tanner and Atkins (1990) state that the instrument's content validity was established through a review of the instrument by six school administrators. The reliability was found to be .89. A copy of the survey is found in Appendix E.

The *Time Management Rating Scale* consists of two parts. The first part asks the respondent for certain demographic information. This information includes the type of school in which the responding principal currently serves (elementary, middle, high, or multilevel school), the gender of the respondent, the highest degree held by the respondent, the age bracket into which the responding principal falls, and the experience level in the principalship of the respondent.

The second part of the instrument lists 62 time management practices. Principals are asked to respond on an eight-point Likert scale the degree to which they use each time management practice. The scale ranges from "Never/Rarely" to "Very often/Always." These items will be used to provide data for the analysis of all hypotheses and research questions.

Three questions were added to the survey regarding the respondents' use of technology in the management of time. These questions concerned the use of voice mail, electronic mail, and word processing programs.

Data Collection

All participants were mailed a cover letter explaining the need for data on the use of time management practices by Alabama principals. A copy of the cover letter is included in Appendix C. The participants were also sent a copy of the *Time Management Rating Scale* and a self-addressed, stamped envelope.

Any principal who did not return the *Time Management Rating Scale* within a period of 2 weeks was sent a follow-up letter, a second copy of the *Time Management Rating Scale*, and a second self-addressed, stamped envelope. A copy of this follow-up letter is included in Appendix D. The principals were allowed an additional 2 weeks to respond. Those principals who still did not respond after the second mailing were dropped from the study.

The data from the surveys were input into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (Narusis, 1995). The accuracy of the data was verified by checking a printout of the data versus the individual surveys.

Statistical Analysis

The Windows version 6.1 of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (Narusis, 1995) was used to analyze the data for this study. The package was used as follows:

1. Percentage and frequency analyses were used to compute and analyze the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

2. Descriptive discriminant analysis was employed to test research questions 1-5 to determine the degree to which the *Time Management Rating Scale* separated the groups being examined. To assist in determining the contribution each item on the survey made on the ability to discriminate between the groups, correlations were computed between each

item and the discriminant value. These correlations are referred to as "structure coefficients" (Thompson & Borrello, 1985).

3. Mean scores and standard deviations were calculated for each item on the *Time Management Rating Scale*. These mean scores were used to answer research questions 6 and 7.

4. Reliability and item analysis were used to answer research question 8. Coefficient alpha was computed as an index of the internal consistency reliability of the instrument. To determine the contribution of items to the total score, correlations between each item and the total score without that item were computed.

5. Descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) were used to analyze the technology questions found near the end of the instrument.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

This chapter contains a restatement of the hypotheses and research questions which guided this study. Demographic information about the respondents is analyzed and discussed. Also, the findings from the survey instrument are discussed as they relate to each of the research questions.

The purpose of this study was to examine the degree to which Alabama principals utilize specific time management practices. The study also examined similarities and differences in the use of these time management practices according to the type of school (elementary, middle, high, or multilevel school) in which the principal is employed, the gender of the principal, the degree held by the principal, the age of the principal, and the years of experience as a principal.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used to guide this study:

1. Will a profile of time management practices for elementary, middle-level, high school, and multilevel school principals reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

2. Will a profile of time management practices for male and female principals reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

3. Will a profile of time management practices for principals who hold a master's degree and principals who hold a degree beyond a master's reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

4. Will a profile of time management practices for principals from the age of 40 and below, principals from the ages of 41 to 50, and principals from the age of 51 and above reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

5. Will a profile of time management practices for principals with 0 to 3 years' experience in the principalship, principals with 4 to 9 years' experience in the principalship, and principals with 10 or more years' experience in the principalship reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

6. What time management practices will respondents identify that they use with greatest frequency?

7. What time management practices will respondents identify that they use with least frequency?

8. What are the psychometric characteristics of the instrument with this particular population?

Null Hypotheses

Data gathered in this study were used to test the following null hypotheses at the .05 level of significance:

1. There will be no significant difference in the responses of elementary principals, middle-level principals, high school principals, and multilevel school principals regarding their use of specific time management practices.

2. There will be no significant difference in the responses of male principals and female principals regarding their use of specific time management practices.

3. There will be no significant difference in the responses of principals who hold a master's degree and principals who hold a degree beyond a master's degree regarding their use of specific time management practices.

4. There will be no significant differences in the responses of principals 40 years of age and below, principals 41 to 50 years of age, and principals 51 years of age and above regarding their use of specific time management practices.

5. There will be no significant differences in the responses of principals with 0 to 3 years' experience in the principalship, principals with 4 to 9 years' experience in the principalship, and principals with 10 or more years' experience in the principalship regarding their use of specific time management practices.

Demographic Data

A total of 614 surveys were mailed to Alabama principals selected through a stratified random sampling based on school level (elementary, middle, high, or multi-level). Of these, 422 surveys were returned for a return rate of 69%. Table 3 shows the number returned by level, the number of surveys mailed to principals in each of the 4 levels, the percentage of return by level, the percentage of schools in the total population represented by each level, and the percentage of the returned surveys broken down by level. Figure 1 also illustrates the composition of the sample by level.

Table 3 indicates that the composition of the returned surveys closely reflects the composition of all schools in Alabama. For example, 45% of the schools in Alabama are elementary schools. Of the returned surveys, 47% are from elementary schools. Similar figures were obtained from the other three levels (middle, high school, and multilevel school).

Table 3

Composition of Surveys Mailed

Type of School	Returned	No. Mailed	% Returned	% of Schools	% of Returned Surveys
Elementary	197	277	71%	45%	47%
Middle-Level	64	100	64%	16%	15%
High School	80	122	66%	20%	19%
Multilevel	81	115	70%	19%	19%
Total	422	614	69%	100%	100%

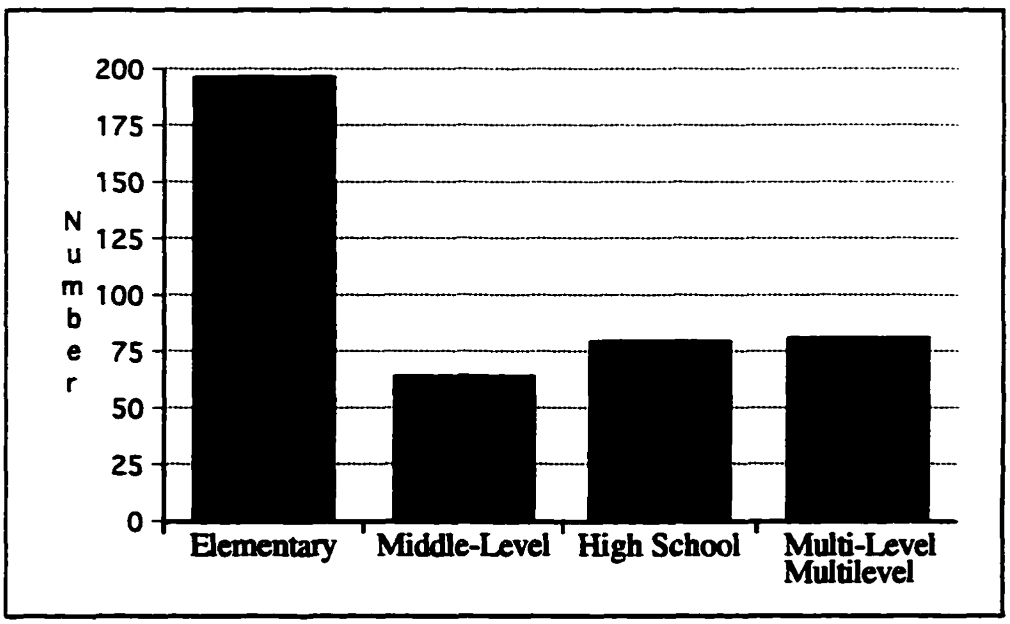

Figure 1. Composition of sample by school level.

Table 4 and Figure 2 reflect the composition of the sample in terms of gender, highest degree held, age bracket, and years of experience as a principal. The table also provides these same figures for the population from which this sample was drawn as provided by the Alabama State Department of Education (1996). Figures on experience as a principal were unavailable. Of the principals returning surveys, 63% were male, while 37%

were female. A total of 60% had gone past the master's degree, while 40% held only a master's degree. The research questions did not address the obtainment of a doctorate. Of the respondents, 34 held doctorates, constituting 8% of the total respondents.

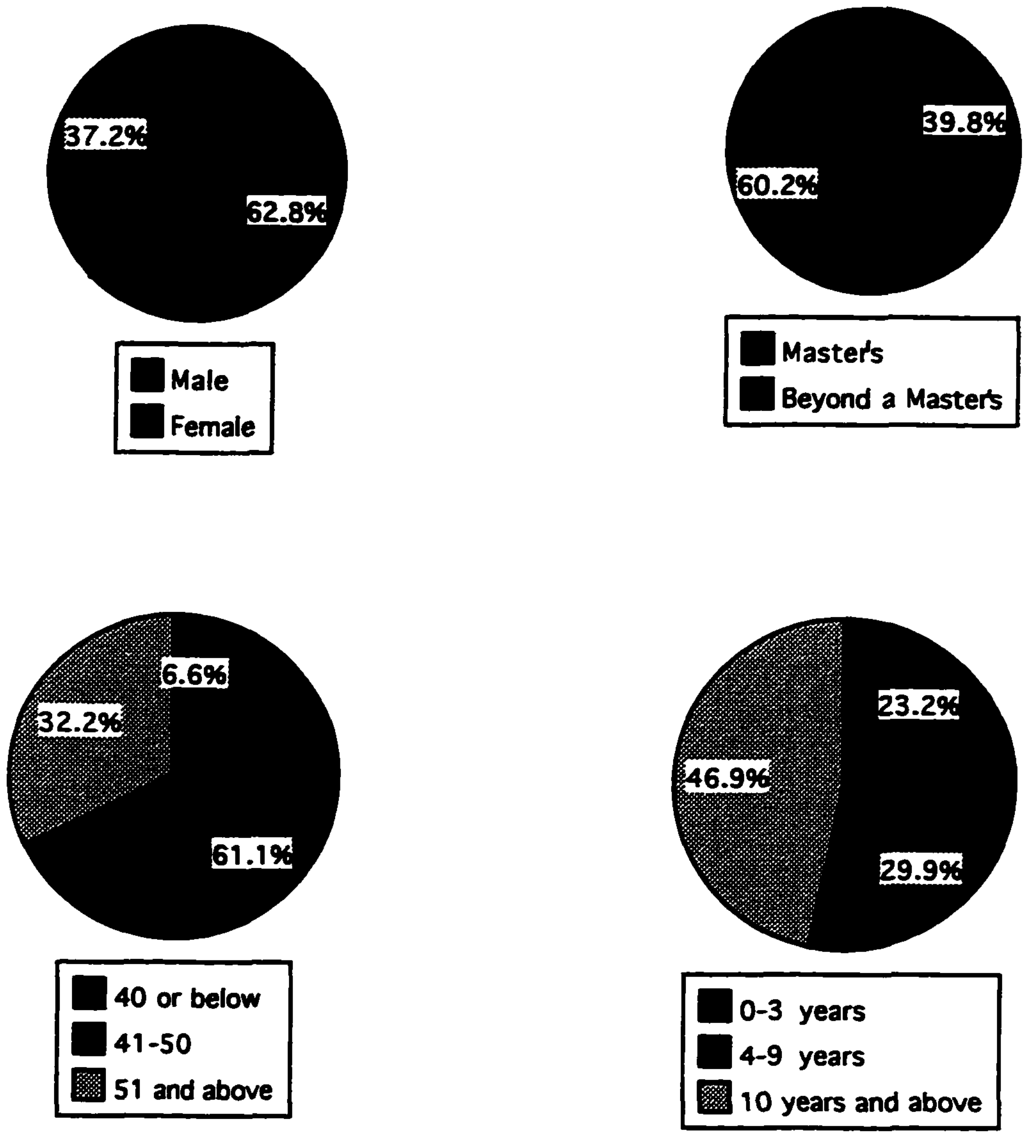

Figure 2. Composition of sample.

Principals within the age bracket of 41 to 50 constituted 61%. Principals 51 years and above constituted 32%. Principals 40 years old and below accounted for 7% of the sample. Almost half, 47%, had been principals for 10 years or more. Principals with anywhere from 4 to 9 years of experience accounted for 30% of the sample. Principals with 3 years of experience or less in the principalship accounted for 23% of the sample.

Table 4

Composition of Sample

Gender	Number	% of Sample	% of Population
Male	265	63%	64%
Female	157	37%	36%
Total	422	100%	100%
Highest Degree Earned			
Master's	168	40%	49%
Beyond a Master's	254	60%	51%
Total	422	100%	100%
Age Bracket			
40 or below	28	7%	5%
41-50	258	61%	52%
51 and above	136	32%	43%
Total	422	100%	100%
Experience as Principal			
0-3 years	98	23%	
4-9 years	126	30%	
10 years and above	198	47%	
Total	422	100%	

Analysis of Research Questions

Research Question 1— Will a profile of time management practices for elementary, middle-level, high school, and multilevel school principals reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

Descriptive discriminant analysis was used to determine the degree to which the instrument separated the 4 groups examined in this research question. The Wilks's lambda was found to be .364 resulting in 64% of the variance accounted for by level (Huberty & Barton, 1989). This Wilks's lambda was significant at the .05 level ($F(186, 625) = 1.35$, $p = .005$). The null hypothesis paired with this research question was, therefore, rejected at the .05 level. This finding indicates that elementary, middle, high school, and multilevel school principals utilize identified time management practices from the instrument in different ways.

Table 5 lists the univariate Fs, p values, eta square values, and structure coefficients for each item on the *Time Management Rating Scale* as they relate to school level.

Table 5

Analysis of Data According to School Level

Item	Univariate F	P Value	Eta Square	Structure Coefficients	Item	Univariate F	P Value	Eta Square	Structure Coefficients
62	5.361	0.001	0.056	0.23	29	1.626	0.184	0.018	0.04
61	4.993	0.002	0.053	-0.07	49	1.495	0.216	0.016	-0.02
60	4.384	0.005	0.047	0.27	56	1.447	0.229	0.016	0.05
37	4.064	0.008	0.043	0.23	27	1.311	0.271	0.014	0.02
9	3.912	0.009	0.042	-0.07	41	1.243	0.294	0.014	0.06
14	3.650	0.013	0.039	0.10	34	1.075	0.360	0.012	-0.14
36	3.661	0.013	0.039	-0.02	47	1.114	0.344	0.012	-0.10
4	3.419	0.018	0.037	0.24	1	1.010	0.389	0.011	-0.06
57	3.342	0.020	0.036	0.14	16	1.031	0.379	0.011	0.01
21	3.184	0.024	0.034	0.12	19	1.024	0.383	0.011	0.10
30	2.941	0.034	0.032	-0.02	42	0.969	0.408	0.011	-0.01
44	2.989	0.032	0.032	0.20	43	1.007	0.390	0.011	0.02
31	2.725	0.045	0.029	0.11	55	1.005	0.391	0.011	0.13
17	2.620	0.051	0.028	0.05	7	0.881	0.451	0.01	-0.04
26	2.459	0.063	0.027	0.04	8	0.911	0.436	0.01	0.06
51	2.455	0.064	0.027	-0.20	52	0.902	0.411	0.01	-0.09
3	2.350	0.073	0.026	0.11	5	0.820	0.484	0.009	-0.12
15	2.414	0.067	0.026	0.09	10	0.823	0.482	0.009	-0.02
53	2.265	0.081	0.025	-0.21	24	0.821	0.483	0.009	0.06
54	2.265	0.081	0.025	0.16	39	0.837	0.474	0.009	0.09
32	2.097	0.101	0.023	0.14	20	0.717	0.543	0.008	-0.02
33	2.157	0.093	0.023	0.02	22	0.691	0.558	0.008	-0.10
25	2.000	0.114	0.022	0.08	6	0.654	0.581	0.007	0.10
48	1.992	0.116	0.022	-0.07	13	0.642	0.589	0.007	0.06
58	2.057	0.106	0.022	0.14	28	0.636	0.592	0.007	-0.02
59	0.144	0.934	0.022	0.04	12	0.555	0.645	0.006	0.10
35	1.901	0.130	0.021	0.07	45	0.577	0.631	0.006	0.14
38	1.948	0.122	0.021	-0.18	50	0.513	0.674	0.006	-0.10
11	1.855	0.138	0.02	0.19	46	0.408	0.748	0.005	0.09
2	1.759	0.155	0.019	-0.00	18	0.365	0.779	0.004	-0.01
23	1.663	0.175	0.018	0.08	40	0.093	0.964	0.001	-0.10

Based on statistical significance (alpha = .01), Items 62, 61, 60, 37, and 9 were significant. These items accounted for 4.2% to 5.6% of the total item variance. Based on the structure coefficients, independent measures of item contribution, Items 62, 61, 37, 4, 44, 51, and 53 each accounted for at least 27% of the total item variances. It should be noted that Items 37, 61, and 62 contributed significantly to group separation under both criteria. Table 6 lists the items that were statistically significant under either of the criteria.

Table 6

Items Which Discriminate Between School Levels

			Mean Scores			
Item	Time Management Practice	Eta Square	Elementary	Middle	High School	Multilevel
62	Do you have your secretary screen unexpected visitors and arrange an appointment?	0.056	4.7	4.7	4.6	3.8
61	Do you have your secretary, when you are unavailable, tell the callers a specific time to call back?	0.053	4.9	5.5	5.1	4.6
60	Do you deal with an unexpected visitor outside your office when possible?	0.047	5.2	4.8	5.1	4.5
37	Do you group your letter and memo reading and responding into one block of time during the day?	0.043	1.9	2.1	1.7	1.8
9	Do you have a secretary refer an unexpected visitor to another administrator's office?	0.042	3.0	3.6	4.2	3.2
4	Do you group your returning and initiating telephone calls into one block of time during the day?	0.037	3.5	3.1	3.3	3.1
44	Do you plan more tasks each day than you can handle?	0.032	5.5	4.4	5.1	5.2
51	Do you allow your assistants to make decisions that relate to their areas of responsibility?	0.027	5.9	6.5	6.5	6.1
53	Do you say "no" to unreasonable requests made by your superior?	0.025	3.7	4.5	4.4	4.3

McLean (1995) advocates the computation of effect size as a systematic method of interpreting the meaningfulness of group differences. The effect size is computed by dividing the difference between the means of the treatment and comparison groups by the standard deviation of the comparison group. According to McLean, effect sizes that exceed 1.0 are considered large and suggest the difference is meaningful. Effect sizes less than .50

are small and suggest the difference is probably not meaningful. Effect sizes between .50 and 1.0 are moderate, and one must be cautious in interpreting meaningfulness. Table 7 lists the effect sizes between each of the groups examined in this research question as they relate to those survey items found earlier to contribute significantly to group separation.

Table 7

Effect Sizes Between School Levels for Significant Items

Elementary Schools as Comparison Group				High Schools as Comparison Group			
Item	Middle	High School	Multilevel	Item	Elementary	Middle	Multilevel
62	0.0	-0.0	-0.4	62	-0.1	-0.8	-0.0
61	0.3	-0.2	-0.3	61	0.1	-0.9	-0.3
60	-0.2	0.1	-0.3	60	0.1	-1.1	0.2
37	0.1	-0.2	0.0	37	0.0	-0.8	-0.1
9	0.3	0.3	-0.6	9	-0.1	-0.6	-0.0
4	-0.2	0.1	-0.1	4	0.0	-1.1	0.1
44	-0.6	0.4	0.0	44	-0.0	-1.2	0.5
51	0.3	0.0	-0.3	51	-0.0	-0.7	-0.2
53	0.4	-0.1	-0.1	53	0.1	-0.8	-0.3
Middle-Level Schools as Comparison Group				Multilevel Schools as Comparison Group			
Item	Elementary	High School	Multilevel	Item	Elementary	Middle	High
62	-1.0	0.1	-0.2	62	-0.2	-0.2	0.6
61	-1.4	-0.0	-0.1	61	-0.1	-0.6	0.8
60	-1.6	0.1	-0.1	60	-0.3	-0.7	1.0
37	0.1	0.1	-0.2	37	0.1	0.0	0.0
9	-0.6	0.1	-0.2	9	-0.4	-0.0	0.4
4	-0.6	0.0	-0.1	4	-0.1	-0.3	0.4
44	-1.9	0.1	-0.1	44	-0.2	-1.0	1.1
51	-2.1	-0.3	-0.0	51	-0.2	-1.2	1.3
53	-1.1	0.0	-0.1	53	0.0	-0.5	0.6

Research Question 2—Will a profile of time management practices for male and female principals reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

Descriptive discriminant analysis was used to determine the degree to which the instrument separated the two groups examined in this research question. The Wilks's lambda was found to be .710 resulting in 29% of the variance accounted for by gender. This Wilks's lambda was significant at the .05 level ($F(62, 210) = 1.38$, $p = .048$). The null hypothesis paired with this research question was, therefore, rejected at the .05 level. This finding indicates that male principals and female principals utilize identified time management practices in different ways.

Table 8 lists the univariate Fs, p values, eta square values, and structure coefficients for each item on the *Time Management Rating Scale* as they relate to gender of the principal. The items appear ranked from the highest to lowest eta square value.

Table 8

Analysis of Data According to Gender of the Principal

Item	Univariate F	P Value	Eta Square	Structure Coefficient	Item	Univariate F	P Value	Eta Square	Structure Coefficient
31	10.002	0.002	0.036	0.30	54	1.186	0.277	0.004	0.10
61	7.081	0.008	0.025	-0.25	14	1.041	0.309	0.004	0.10
34	6.841	0.009	0.025	-0.25	6	1.011	0.316	0.004	0.10
53	6.273	0.013	0.023	-0.24	50	1.006	0.317	0.004	-0.10
39	4.847	0.029	0.018	0.21	52	0.990	0.321	0.004	-0.10
44	4.613	0.033	0.017	0.20	45	0.856	0.356	0.003	0.09
11	4.447	0.035	0.016	0.20	4	0.742	0.390	0.003	0.08
26	4.397	0.037	0.016	0.20	43	0.733	0.393	0.003	0.08
30	4.218	0.041	0.015	0.20	55	0.630	0.428	0.002	0.07
33	3.694	0.056	0.013	0.18	60	0.461	0.498	0.002	0.07
37	3.601	0.059	0.013	0.18	8	0.441	0.507	0.002	0.06
25	3.442	0.065	0.013	0.18	48	0.402	0.527	0.001	0.06
32	3.265	0.072	0.012	0.17	36	0.377	0.540	0.001	-0.06
5	3.102	0.079	0.011	-0.17	59	0.376	0.540	0.001	-0.06
38	2.508	0.114	0.009	-0.15	47	0.329	0.567	0.001	0.06
41	2.303	0.130	0.008	0.14	1	0.316	0.575	0.001	-0.05
62	2.281	0.132	0.008	0.14	49	0.285	0.594	0.001	0.05
17	2.173	0.142	0.008	0.14	42	0.280	0.597	0.001	-0.05
24	2.080	0.150	0.008	0.14	10	0.268	0.605	0.001	-0.05
46	2.006	0.158	0.007	0.14	19	0.229	0.633	0.001	-0.05
28	1.897	0.170	0.007	-0.13	3	0.182	0.670	0.001	-0.04
15	1.867	0.173	0.007	0.13	2	0.079	0.779	0.000	-0.03
35	1.684	0.195	0.006	0.12	12	0.044	0.834	0.000	0.02
23	1.606	0.206	0.006	0.12	56	0.041	0.839	0.000	0.02
13	1.577	0.210	0.006	0.12	51	0.039	0.844	0.000	-0.02
21	1.531	0.217	0.006	0.12	58	0.231	0.879	0.000	0.01
18	1.512	0.220	0.006	-0.12	22	0.015	0.904	0.000	-0.01
27	1.469	0.227	0.005	0.12	9	0.010	0.922	0.000	-0.01
40	1.300	0.255	0.005	0.11	57	0.009	0.923	0.000	-0.01
29	1.275	0.260	0.005	0.11	7	0.002	0.961	0.000	0.01
16	1.271	0.261	0.005	-0.11	20	0.000	0.993	0.000	-0.00

Based on statistical significance (alpha = .01), Items 31, 61, and 34 were significant. These items accounted for 3.6% to 2.5% of the total item variance. Based on the structure coefficients, independent measures of item contribution, Items 31, 61, 34, 53, 39, 44, 11, 26, and 30 each accounted for at least 19% of the total item variances. It should be noted that Items 31, 61, and 34 contributed significantly to group separation under both criteria. Table 9 lists those 9 items that were statistically significant under either criteria. Table 9 also lists the effect sizes between the 2 groups examined in this research question as they relate to those survey items found to contribute significantly to group separation.

Table 9

Items Which Discriminate Between Gender of the Principal

Item	Time Management Practice	Eta Square	Mean Score for Males	Mean Score for Females	Effect Size
31	Do you scan reading materials before deciding to read them thoroughly?	0.036	6.1	6.7	-0.3
61	Do you have your secretary, when you are unavailable, tell the callers a specific time to call back?	0.025	5.1	4.5	0.4
34	Do you send professional reading materials to staff members without reading it?	0.025	3.8	3.2	0.4
53	Do you say "no" to unreasonable requests made by your superior?	0.023	4.3	3.6	0.4
39	Do you take work home?	0.018	5.0	5.6	-0.3
44	Do you plan more tasks each day than you can handle?	0.017	5.1	5.6	-0.3
11	Do you schedule your day into large blocks of time?	0.016	3.1	3.5	-0.3
26	Do you set weekly administrative staff meetings?	0.016	4.0	4.6	-0.3
30	Do you plan projects in advance and in writing?	0.015	5.5	5.9	-0.2

Research Question 3—Will a profile of time management practices for principals who hold a master's degree and principals who hold a degree beyond a master's reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

Descriptive discriminant analysis was used to determine the degree to which the instrument separated the two groups examined in this research question. The Wilks's lambda was found to be .755 resulting in 25% of the variance accounted for by degree held. This Wilks's lambda was not significant at the .05 level ($F(62, 210) = 1.10$, $p = .312$). The null hypothesis paired with this research question was, therefore, not rejected at the .05 level. This finding indicates that principals who hold a master's degree and principals who hold a degree beyond a master's degree do not necessarily utilize identified time management practices in different ways.

Table 10 lists the univariate Fs, p values, eta square values, and structure coefficients for each item on the *Time Management Rating Scale* as they relate to the degree held by the principal. The items appear ranked from the highest to lowest eta square value. Again, the F statistic for the effect of the degree held on the responses of the principals was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, statistical significance of any of these items could be a result of chance.

Research Question 4—Will a profile of time management practices for principals from the age of 40 and below, principals from the ages of 41 to 50, and principals from the age of 51 and above reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

Descriptive discriminant analysis was used to determine the degree to which the instrument separated the 4 groups examined in this research question. The Wilks's lambda was found to be .552 resulting in 45% of the variance accounted for by age. This Wilks's lambda was not significant at the .05 level ($F(124, 418) = 1.16$, $p = .137$). The null hypothesis paired with this research question was, therefore, not rejected at the .05 level. This finding indicates that principals 40 years of age and below, principals 41 to 50 years of age, and principals 51 years of age and above do not necessarily utilize identified time management practices in different ways.

Table 10

Analysis of Data According to Degree Held by the Principal

Item	Univariate F	P Value	Eta Square	Structure Coefficient	Item	Univariate F	P Value	Eta Square	Structure Coefficient
39	5.882	0.016	0.021	-0.26	29	38	0.545	0.461	0.002
20	4.872	0.028	0.018	-0.24	49	40	0.489	0.485	0.002
22	3.971	0.047	0.014	-0.21	56	3	0.475	0.491	0.002
11	3.898	0.049	0.014	-0.21	27	42	0.478	0.490	0.002
29	3.756	0.054	0.014	-0.21	41	9	0.409	0.523	0.002
54	2.607	0.108	0.010	-0.17	34	36	0.371	0.543	0.001
1	2.588	0.109	0.009	0.17	47	51	0.328	0.567	0.001
27	2.514	0.114	0.009	-0.17	1	55	0.296	0.587	0.001
37	2.487	0.116	0.009	-0.17	16	61	0.289	0.591	0.001
52	2.414	0.121	0.009	-0.17	19	57	0.274	0.601	0.001
34	2.399	0.123	0.009	0.17	42	50	0.226	0.635	0.001
21	2.384	0.124	0.009	-0.17	43	30	0.216	0.642	0.001
46	2.059	0.152	0.008	-0.15	55	43	0.200	0.655	0.001
12	1.971	0.162	0.007	-0.15	7	5	0.178	0.674	0.001
8	1.842	0.176	0.007	-0.14	8	16	0.147	0.702	0.001
59	1.526	0.218	0.006	0.13	52	6	0.134	0.715	0.000
49	1.427	0.233	0.005	-0.13	5	10	0.075	0.784	0.000
17	1.412	0.236	0.005	-0.13	10	31	0.063	0.802	0.000
62	1.087	0.298	0.004	-0.11	24	28	0.060	0.807	0.000
7	1.065	0.303	0.004	0.11	39	26	0.041	0.839	0.000
48	1.034	0.310	0.004	-0.11	20	35	0.035	0.851	0.000
45	1.010	0.316	0.004	-0.11	22	60	0.030	0.862	0.000
14	0.982	0.323	0.004	-0.11	6	2	0.023	0.879	0.000
56	0.954	0.329	0.004	-0.10	13	19	0.021	0.886	0.000
33	0.932	0.335	0.003	-0.10	28	18	0.017	0.897	0.000
41	0.846	0.359	0.003	-0.10	12	58	0.014	0.905	0.000
25	0.752	0.387	0.003	-0.09	45	53	0.011	0.918	0.000
44	0.738	0.391	0.003	-0.09	50	13	0.005	0.942	0.000
32	0.668	0.414	0.002	0.09	46	24	0.006	0.937	0.000
4	0.645	0.423	0.002	-0.09	18	47	0.004	0.947	0.000
15	0.634	0.426	0.002	-0.09	40	23	0.003	0.955	0.000

Table 11 lists the univariate Fs, p values, eta square values, and structure coefficients for each item on the *Time Management Rating Scale* as they relate to age bracket of the principal. The items appear ranked from the highest to lowest eta square value. The F statistic for the effect of the age bracket on the responses of the principals was not significant at the .05 level. Statistical significance of any item could be a result of chance.

Table 11

Analysis of Data According to Age Bracket of the Principal

Item	Univariate F	P Value	Eta Square	Structure Coefficient	Item	Univariate F	P Value	Eta Square	Structure Coefficient
34	5.414	0.005	0.039	0.29	29	0.523	0.594	0.004	-0.09
13	5.175	0.006	0.037	0.21	22	0.514	0.599	0.004	-0.07
38	4.641	0.010	0.033	-0.27	19	0.506	0.604	0.004	0.06
59	4.422	0.013	0.032	0.26	30	0.490	0.613	0.004	-0.03
4	2.989	0.052	0.022	-0.03	54	0.486	0.616	0.004	0.09
6	2.911	0.056	0.021	-0.20	14	0.459	0.633	0.003	-0.86
18	2.734	0.067	0.020	-0.21	61	0.363	0.696	0.003	-0.07
45	2.291	0.103	0.017	-0.04	35	0.359	0.699	0.003	-0.08
11	2.087	0.126	0.015	0.04	15	0.337	0.714	0.002	0.04
40	1.713	0.182	0.013	0.07	24	0.276	0.759	0.002	-0.07
49	1.693	0.186	0.012	0.04	42	0.256	0.775	0.002	0.03
20	1.655	0.193	0.012	0.09	51	0.251	0.778	0.002	0.06
25	1.562	0.212	0.011	-0.16	5	0.248	0.780	0.002	0.19
46	1.437	0.239	0.011	0.14	56	0.228	0.796	0.002	0.05
52	1.264	0.284	0.009	0.14	44	0.205	0.815	0.002	0.00
7	1.240	0.291	0.009	-0.14	37	0.198	0.820	0.001	0.05
50	1.208	0.300	0.009	-0.04	55	0.175	0.840	0.001	-0.05
2	1.126	0.326	0.008	0.12	33	0.171	0.843	0.001	-0.05
12	1.055	0.350	0.008	0.06	21	0.163	0.849	0.001	0.02
41	1.052	0.350	0.008	0.12	17	0.140	0.869	0.001	-0.05
58	0.974	0.379	0.007	-0.12	3	0.139	0.870	0.001	-0.02
1	0.908	0.404	0.007	-0.12	43	0.134	0.875	0.001	-0.01
53	0.899	0.408	0.007	0.05	62	0.134	0.874	0.001	0.05
26	0.860	0.424	0.006	-0.09	60	0.114	0.892	0.001	0.18
23	0.780	0.459	0.006	-0.07	9	0.105	0.901	0.001	-0.04
47	0.618	0.540	0.005	0.09	32	0.103	0.902	0.001	0.04
27	0.599	0.550	0.004	0.09	36	0.100	0.905	0.001	-0.04
57	0.587	0.556	0.004	-0.08	10	0.075	0.928	0.001	0.04
28	0.569	0.567	0.004	0.08	48	0.057	0.944	0.000	-0.02
39	0.562	0.571	0.004	0.04	8	0.015	0.985	0.000	-0.00
31	0.540	0.583	0.004	0.09	16	0.012	0.988	0.000	0.01

Research Question 5—Will a profile of time management practices for principals with 0 to 3 years' experience in the principalship, principals with 4 to 9 years' experience in the principalship, and principals with 10 or more years' experience in the principalship reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

Descriptive discriminant analysis was used to determine the degree to which the instrument separated the 4 groups examined in this research question. The Wilks's lambda was found to be .573 resulting in 43% of the variance accounted for by years of experience. This Wilks's lambda was not significant at the .05 level ($F(124, 418) = 1.08$, $p = .279$). The null hypothesis paired with this research question was, therefore, not rejected at the .05 level. This finding indicates that principals with 0 to 3 years' experience in the principalship, principals with 4 to 9 years' experience in the principalship, and principals with 10 or more years' experience in the principalship do not necessarily utilize identified time management practices in different ways.

Table 12 lists the univariate Fs, p values, eta square values, and structure coefficients for each item on the *Time Management Rating Scale* as they relate to years of experience in the principalship of the respondents. The items appear ranked from the highest to lowest eta square value. The F statistic for the effect of the age bracket on the responses of the principals was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, statistical significance of any of these items could be a result of chance.

Research Question 6—What time management practices will respondents identify that they use with greatest frequency?

Table 13 presents a profile of the time management practices used by the principals who responded to the survey. The practices are ranked in order of the most used to least used. Table 14 shows the 10 most frequently used practices of the respondents.

Research Question 7—What time management practices will respondents identify that they use with least frequency?

Again, Table 13 presents a profile of the time management practices used by the principals who responded to the survey ordered from most frequently used to least frequently used. Table 15 lists the 10 least used practices of the respondents.

Table 12

Analysis of Data According to Experience in the Principalship

Item	Univariate F	P Value	Eta Square	Structure Coefficient	Item	Univariate F	P Value	Eta Square	Structure Coefficient
53	7.090	0.001	0.050	-0.33	11	0.854	0.427	0.006	0.12
38	6.021	0.003	0.043	-0.32	45	0.852	0.428	0.006	0.16
37	3.043	0.049	0.022	0.24	24	0.831	0.437	0.006	-0.12
40	2.958	0.054	0.021	0.19	52	0.826	0.439	0.006	-0.07
60	2.683	0.070	0.019	-0.01	7	0.808	0.447	0.006	-0.12
18	2.286	0.104	0.017	-0.18	48	0.797	0.452	0.006	0.05
50	2.270	0.105	0.017	-0.18	21	0.750	0.473	0.006	0.12
9	2.232	0.109	0.016	-0.19	36	0.730	0.483	0.005	0.01
28	2.047	0.131	0.015	0.15	25	0.596	0.552	0.004	0.11
32	2.021	0.135	0.015	0.12	22	0.559	0.573	0.004	-0.10
16	1.950	0.144	0.014	-0.02	27	0.478	0.620	0.004	0.03
31	1.782	0.170	0.013	0.16	58	0.462	0.631	0.003	-0.01
39	1.777	0.171	0.013	0.16	13	0.334	0.716	0.002	-0.06
35	1.549	0.214	0.011	0.13	42	0.305	0.737	0.002	0.04
41	1.357	0.259	0.010	0.10	12	0.304	0.738	0.002	-0.08
57	1.351	0.261	0.010	0.05	14	0.300	0.741	0.002	0.07
29	1.240	0.291	0.009	0.15	15	0.297	0.743	0.002	0.06
2	1.228	0.295	0.009	-0.05	59	0.248	0.781	0.002	0.07
49	1.218	0.297	0.009	0.09	43	0.245	0.783	0.002	-0.03
44	1.170	0.312	0.009	0.15	62	0.244	0.784	0.002	-0.06
6	1.071	0.344	0.008	-0.04	20	0.201	0.818	0.001	-0.05
3	1.064	0.346	0.008	-0.09	26	0.172	0.842	0.001	-0.00
5	1.045	0.353	0.008	-0.02	8	0.139	0.870	0.001	0.00
19	1.040	0.355	0.008	-0.14	10	0.135	0.874	0.001	-0.04
54	1.014	0.364	0.007	0.14	30	0.127	0.880	0.001	-0.01
47	0.966	0.382	0.007	0.13	51	0.127	0.881	0.001	0.03
61	0.914	0.402	0.007	-0.12	1	0.116	0.891	0.001	0.04
17	0.912	0.403	0.007	-0.06	46	0.105	0.900	0.001	-0.02
34	0.877	0.417	0.006	-0.09	56	0.066	0.936	0.000	0.03
4	0.874	0.418	0.006	0.13	55	0.036	0.964	0.000	-0.01
23	0.858	0.425	0.006	0.01	33	0.006	0.994	0.000	-0.01

Research Question 8—What are the psychometric characteristics of the instrument with this particular population?

Table 16 shows the discrimination index for each item. This analysis used the 273 cases in which respondents answered all questions. The alpha level for this instrument, the *Time Management Rating Scale*, was found to be .89 with this particular population, indicating that scores on the instrument are accounting for 89% of the true attribute being measured.

Table 13

Profile of Time Management Practices

Item	Rank	Item	Mean	SD
40	1	Do you work longer hours than your assistants?	6.9	1.45
1	2	Do you have a secretary answer your telephone calls?	6.7	1.38
21	3	Do you stick to and complete agenda items in the scheduled meeting time?	6.5	1.15
17	4	Do you set deadlines for yourself and your staff for decisions to be made?	6.5	1.05
57	5	Do you obtain all the facts each time before you make a decision?	6.5	1.19
24	6	Do you set deadlines for committee work?	6.5	1.11
46	7	Do you deal with the most important tasks early in the day?	6.4	1.15
20	8	Do you start and end meetings at scheduled times?	6.3	1.26
31	9	Do you scan reading materials before deciding to read them thoroughly?	6.3	1.34
51	10	Do you allow your assistants to make decisions that relate to their areas of responsibility?	6.1	1.69
22	11	Do you summarize the major points of discussion at the end of the meeting?	6.0	1.38
58	12	Do you act upon decisions as soon as they are made?	6.0	1.30
42	13	Do you accomplish your top priority items for each day?	6.0	1.23
14	14	Do you set job priorities and work on them in that order?	6.0	1.18
3	15	Do you have a secretary handle routine informational calls for you?	5.8	1.66
15	16	Do you list on paper your major tasks for the day in a priority order?	5.8	1.60
30	17	Do you plan projects in advance and in writing?	5.8	1.46
6	18	Do you keep your telephone calls brief?	5.8	1.47
25	19	Do you use a system of "ad hoc" committees?	5.5	1.59
47	20	Do you attempt to be a perfectionist in everything that you do?	5.5	1.79
54	21	Do you stand up while meeting with an unannounced visitor who arrives at your office?	5.4	1.98
33	22	Do you act upon paperwork as soon as it reaches your desk?	5.4	1.45
43	23	Do you refer incoming correspondence to staff members and direct that they handle the matter?	5.4	1.53
32	24	Do you separate printed material into "must read," "should read," and "don't bother" categories?	5.4	2.12
45	25	Do you start projects sooner than necessary in order to reach your deadlines?	5.3	1.69
2	26	Do you have a secretary screen calls by referring them to other offices or staff members?	5.3	2.20
44	27	Do you plan more tasks each day than you can handle?	5.2	1.81
39	28	Do you take work home?	5.2	2.04
19	29	Do you use the telephone instead of a letter or memo?	5.1	1.47
16	30	Do you focus upon one task at a time?	5.1	1.49
60	31	Do you deal with an unexpected visitor outside your office when possible?	5.0	1.76

Table 13 (Continued)

Item	Rank	Item	Mean	SD
61	32	Do you have your secretary, when you are unavailable, tell the callers a specific time to call back?	5.0	1.93
56	33	Do you schedule appointments with your assistants and/or teachers at their work stations?	4.9	1.67
18	34	Do you outline replies to letters and have a secretary write or type the letters?	4.7	2.35
23	35	Do you have the minutes of the meeting available 24 to 48 hours after the meeting?	4.5	2.03
62	36	Do you have your secretary screen unexpected visitors and arrange an appointment?	4.5	1.96
36	37	Do you have a secretary screen and reroute mail?	4.5	2.51
8	38	Do you place a time limit on meetings with unexpected visitors?	4.4	2.01
26	39	Do you set weekly administrative staff meetings?	4.3	2.15
41	40	Do you find yourself doing your assistants' tasks?	4.2	2.08
52	41	Do you have your assistants read articles in professional journals and/or magazines and report back to you?	4.2	2.02
53	42	Do you say "no" to unreasonable requests made by your superior?	4.1	2.05
49	43	Do you respond immediately to correspondence by writing on the bottom of received correspondence and returning to sender?	4.0	1.87
29	44	Do you keep a daily log of your activities?	3.9	2.20
7	45	Do you have a secretary make your appointments?	3.9	2.14
55	46	Do you have a secretary remind you when your appointed visits go past the scheduled time?	3.9	2.25
50	47	Do you have a secretary do all your filing?	3.8	2.29
48	48	Do you keep your desk cleared of all materials except for those needed for your top priority project at the time?	3.6	2.07
34	49	Do you send professional reading materials to staff members without reading it?	3.6	1.96
37	50	Do you group your letter and memo reading and responding into one block of time during the day?	3.5	1.89
9	51	Do you have a secretary refer an unexpected visitor to another administrator's office?	3.4	1.91
4	52	Do you group your returning and initiating telephone calls into one block of time during the day?	3.3	1.86
11	53	Do you schedule your day into large blocks of time?	3.2	1.72
5	54	Do you accept telephone calls during your meetings and conferences?	3.2	1.83
59	55	Do you delay making a decision for fear you might make a mistake?	3.2	1.76
35	56	Do you have a secretary open, read, and prioritize your incoming letters and memos?	3.2	2.46
27	57	Do you hold lunch meetings?	2.8	1.75
10	58	Do you schedule your day by appointment only?	2.6	1.67
12	59	Do you set aside a portion of your day for accepting any unscheduled visitors— staff or students?	2.6	1.72
38	60	Do you dictate to a secretary in person and/or use a dictating device?	2.3	1.99
28	61	Do you conduct meetings which last over 90 minutes?	2.3	1.44
13	62	Do you schedule your day in a completely uninterrupted block of time?	2.0	1.33

Table 14

Most Frequently Used Time Management Practices

Item	Rank	Item	Mean	SD
40	1	Do you work longer hours than your assistants?	6.9	1.45
1	2	Do you have a secretary answer your telephone calls?	6.7	1.38
21	3	Do you stick to and complete agenda items in the scheduled meeting time?	6.5	1.15
17	4	Do you set deadlines for yourself and your staff for decisions to be made?	6.5	1.05
57	5	Do you obtain all the facts each time before you make a decision?	6.5	1.19
24	6	Do you set deadlines for committee work?	6.5	1.11
46	7	Do you deal with the most important tasks early in the day?	6.4	1.15
20	8	Do you start and end meetings at scheduled times?	6.3	1.26
31	9	Do you scan reading materials before deciding to read them thoroughly?	6.3	1.34
51	10	Do you allow your assistants to make decisions that relate to their areas of responsibility?	6.1	1.69

Table 15

Least Used Time Management Practices

Item	Rank	Item	Mean	SD
13	62	Do you schedule your day in a completely uninterrupted block of time?	2.0	1.33
28	61	Do you conduct meetings which last over 90 minutes?	2.3	1.44
38	60	Do you dictate to a secretary in person and/or use a dictating device?	2.3	1.99
12	59	Do you set aside a portion of your day for accepting any unscheduled visitors— staff or students?	2.6	1.72
10	58	Do you schedule your day by appointment only?	2.6	1.67
27	57	Do you hold lunch meetings?	2.8	1.75
35	56	Do you have a secretary open, read, and prioritize your incoming letters and memos?	3.2	2.46
59	55	Do you delay making a decision for fear you might make a mistake?	3.2	1.76
5	54	Do you accept telephone calls during your meetings and conferences?	3.2	1.83
11	53	Do you schedule your day into large blocks of time?	3.2	1.72

Other Findings

After the last item on the *Time Management Rating Scale*, respondents were asked concerning their use of three technological advances: voice mail, electronic mail, and word-processing programs. In each case, the respondent was asked if he or she personally used this technological device. For each "yes" answer, the respondent was asked, "Do you feel it saves you time?" Table 17 illustrates the responses of the principals on their use of these selected technological advances.

Table 16

Discrimination Index for Each Survey Item

Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation
1	0.27	32	0.35
2	0.40	33	0.37
3	0.36	34	0.10
4	0.35	35	0.43
5	0.06	36	0.38
6	0.24	37	0.48
7	0.39	38	0.29
8	0.42	39	0.22
9	0.41	40	0.10
10	0.41	41	0.04
11	0.45	42	0.39
12	0.31	43	0.31
13	0.34	44	0.06
14	0.32	45	0.36
15	0.37	46	0.40
16	0.21	47	0.21
17	0.45	48	0.39
18	0.28	49	0.36
19	0.22	50	0.35
20	0.29	51	0.26
21	0.36	52	0.46
22	0.38	53	0.31
23	0.41	54	0.17
24	0.41	55	0.49
25	0.27	56	0.41
26	0.44	57	0.33
27	0.33	58	0.39
28	0.05	59	0.09
29	0.37	60	0.16
30	0.46	61	0.41
31	0.34	62	0.59

Table 17

Principals' Use of Selected Technological Advances

Do you personally use...	Yes	% Yes	No	% No
Voice mail	58	15%	325	85%
E-mail	116	29%	283	71%
Word processing program	303	75%	100	25%

If "yes," do you feel it saves you time?	Yes	% Yes	No	% No	No response	% No response
Voice mail	54	93%	4	7%	0	0%
E-mail	96	83%	10	9%	10	9%
Word processing program	250	83%	7	2%	46	15%

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter contains six sections. The first section provides a summary of the study. The second section discusses the findings related to the research questions and hypotheses. The third section presents conclusions that might be drawn from those findings. The fourth section details implications of the study's findings and conclusions. The fifth section lists recommendations for further study. The final section outlines recommendations for principal preparation and development programs.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the degree to which Alabama principals utilize specific time management practices. The study examined similarities and differences in the use of these time management practices according to the type of school (elementary, middle, high, or multilevel school) in which the principal is employed, the gender of the principal, the degree held by the principal, the age of the principal, and the years of experience as a principal. The study also explored the most common and least common time management practices used by Alabama principals.

The population consisted of persons currently serving as principals in Alabama. The subjects selected for participation in the study were drawn from a stratified random sampling of the population, based on the school type.

Instrumentation

The *Time Management Rating Scale*, an instrument discovered during the review of literature, was used to gather information regarding principals' use of selected time management practices. This instrument's reliability was found to be .89, and its content validity was established through a review of the instrument by six school administrators. Principals were called on to provide certain demographic information. This demographic information consisted of the school level, gender, highest degree held, age bracket, and years of experience in the principalship. Principals were then asked to respond on a Likert-type scale regarding the degree to which they used each of 62 time management practices. The survey concluded with three questions related to the principals' use of selected technological advances, and the perception of the principal as to whether or not each saved time.

The instrument was sent to 614 principals, of which 422 completed and returned the instrument. The return rate on the survey was 69%. Of the returned surveys, 273 respondents left no questions unanswered, a condition necessary for a survey to be subjected to discriminant analysis.

Demographic data was analyzed according to frequency and percentage. All hypotheses, as well as the research questions that paralleled them, were tested using descriptive discriminant analysis. Frequency and percentage analyses were used on the remaining research questions.

Findings Related to the Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1—Will a profile of time management practices for elementary, middle-level, high school, and multilevel school principals reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

The F statistic was found to be 1.346, yielding a p value of .005. The null hypothesis was, therefore, rejected at the .05 level. This finding indicates that elementary, middle-level, high school, and multilevel school principals utilize identified time management practices in different ways.

The time management practices that significantly separated the groups were as follows:

1. "Do you have your secretary screen unexpected visitors and arrange an appointment?" Principals of multilevel schools used this practice less than the principals in the other groups, with a mean score of 3.8.

Virtually all literature on time management addresses the topic of the "drop-in" visitor, and warns executives of interruptions caused by this one source. LeBoeuf (1979) reminds the reader upwards of half of one's day can be consumed by the drop-in visitor. Why is this practice addressed in this item not utilized more, and what causes the multilevel principal in this study to neglect the practice to a larger extent than other principals? Clearly, the principalship in the multilevel school is different from the other levels. One could therefore expect time management practices of these principals to be different. Clearly, further research needs to be done on the nature of this type of school and its implications for time management practices.

2. "Do you have your secretary, when you are unavailable, tell the callers a specific time to call back?" Middle-level principals used this practice to the greatest extent, a mean of 5.5, while multilevel principals used it the least, with a mean score 4.6.

This time management practice may be questionable. In order for this practice to work, the principal must use it hand-in-hand with the practice of setting aside a block of time each day for placing and receiving telephone calls, and adhere to that practice without fail. Otherwise, the secretary cannot accurately predict when the principal will be available to receive the call.

If a principal can schedule large blocks of time on a regular basis, he or she must somehow have a shield from the urgent tasks that arise in schools. In other words, someone else must be playing "firefighter." That someone else may well be an assistant principal, or other staff member. The multilevel principal may find himself or herself without an assistant principal to handle these types of duties, and therefore may find difficulty in setting aside blocks of time for telephone calls.

3. "Do you deal with an unexpected visitor outside your office when possible?" Here again, multilevel principals used this time management practice less than the other groups with a mean of 4.5.

This practice can be valuable or questionable, depending on the nature of the visit. Conducting the visit outside the office tends to shorten the length of the visit, and for this reason is recommended in the literature. Alexander (1992) and LeBoeuf (1979) are but two authors who advocate this technique. If the nature of the visit concerns confidential matters, or involves a situation that is potentially hostile, the visit is best held behind closed doors.

As discussed earlier, multilevel principals in this study have their visitors screened to a lesser extent than other principals. One can easily see that multilevel principals are also more apt to find visitors in their offices before they are able to take the meeting elsewhere.

4. "Do you group your letter and memo reading and responding into one block of time during the day?" This was a seldomly used time management practice by all of the groups. Middle-level principals used it to the greatest extent with a mean score of 2.1.

This time management practice is an excellent time saver for any executive. Referred to throughout literature as "bunching" or "chunking," this practice allows the principal to handle numerous similar items in a brief period of time. He or she is able to assemble materials once (and put them away once) and establish a single train of thought. When this technique is neglected, fragmentation occurs. Much time is wasted through reorganizing materials and getting a "new start."

5. "Do you have a secretary refer an unexpected visitor to another administrator's office?" This practice was used most by high school principals and least by elementary principals. High school principals posted a mean of 4.2, while elementary principals had a mean of 3.0.

The underuse of this practice by the elementary principals in this study is likely due to the fact that many elementary schools do not have assistant principals. For those schools who do have an assistant principal, this time management practice is both a potential time saver, and time waster.

While referring the drop-in visitor to someone is a time saver for the principal, the same act may serve as a time waster for the administrator to whom the visitor is referred. The key element seems to lie in defining clearly the role of each administrator. The visitor should be directed to the person who can best handle the concern, rather than simply passing the interruption on to someone else.

6. "Do you group your returning and initiating telephone calls into one block of time during the day?" Use of this practice was most common in elementary schools. The mean score for those principals was 3.5. Middle-level and multilevel principals both posted the lowest scores, 3.1 each.

This practice comes highly recommended from the body of literature on time management. Telephone calls tend to be of shorter duration when grouped. Small talk is minimized, and the call gets "down to business" more quickly. Principals, unfortunately, do not utilize the practice to a great extent. Use of this time management practice together with the practice of handling correspondence in a large block of time, has the potential to be a true time saver for the principal.

7. "Do you plan more tasks each day than you can handle?" This practice was also the most common in the elementary setting. Elementary principals responded with a mean score of 5.5. Middle-level principals used this practice the least of any of the 4 groups. Their mean score was 4.4.

Great use of this time management practice can result in the accomplishment of a great number of tasks. At the same time, it virtually assures an agenda which is never quite completed. A sense of guilt and lack of fulfillment are products of extensive use of this practice. Elementary principals in this study used this technique with greatest frequency. Realizing the high percentage of female principals at this level, this relationship could well be gender related. This relationship of gender to the principalship will be examined further in the discussion of the next research question.

8. "Do you allow your assistants to make decisions that relate to their areas of responsibility?" Both middle-level and high school principals had the highest mean scores on this item, 6.5 each. Elementary principals responded with the lowest mean, 5.9.

The lowest score, that of elementary principals, could be due to these schools being less likely to have assistant principals. This particular item relates to the earlier one which addressed the practice of referring unexpected visitors to another administrator's office.

When each person in the organization has clear responsibilities, and has decision-making power within those parameters, the question of where a person is referred becomes clear.

9. "Do you say 'no' to unreasonable requests made by your superior?" Elementary principals were the least likely to use this time management practice. The mean score for that group was 3.7. The other 3 groups were tightly bunched between 4.3 and 4.5.

Why are elementary principals in this study least likely to say "no" when a superior makes an unreasonable demand? This item may also be gender related. The "superior" in these cases would be the superintendent or other high-ranking central office person. These positions are highly male dominated. Principalships in the other 3 levels examined are also highly male dominated. This item seems to indicate that a female is more likely than a male to comply with unreasonable demands made by a male superior.

Research Question 2—Will a profile of time management practices for male and female principals reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

The F statistic was found to be 1.382, yielding a p value of .048. The null hypothesis was, therefore, rejected at the .05 level. This finding indicates that male principals and female principals utilize identified time management practices in different ways.

The time management practices that significantly separated the groups were as follows:

1. Female principals tended to scan reading materials before deciding to read them thoroughly at a higher rate than male principals. Females responded with a mean score of 6.7, males with a mean score of 6.1.

2. Male principals were more likely to have the secretary tell callers a specific time to call back when the principal is unavailable. The difference here was 5.1 compared to 4.5.

3. Male principals were more likely to send professional reading materials to staff members without reading it. Males responded with a mean of 3.8, while females responded with a mean of 3.2.

4. Males were more likely to say "no" to unreasonable demands made by superiors, with a mean of score of 4.3, as compared to 3.6 for females.

5. Female principals were more likely to take work home. They recorded a mean score of 5.6 as compared to 5.0 for males.

6. Female principals were more likely to plan more tasks each day than could be handled. Here, female principals showed a mean score of 5.6, whereas male principals showed 5.1.

7. Female principals were more likely to schedule the day in large blocks of time. Their mean score was 3.5, as compared to 3.1 for males.

8. Female principals were more likely to set weekly administrative staff meetings. The mean score for female principals in this study was 4.6, as compared to 4.0 for males.

9. Finally, female principals were more likely to plan projects in advance and in writing. Here, the difference was a mean of 5.9 for female principals and 5.5 for male principals.

In six of the nine items which significantly accounted for group separation, the female principal in this study used the time management practice under consideration to the greater extent. The combination seems to portray the female as handling a larger number of tasks and exhibiting better planning skills than her male counterpart. What explanation can one make for these differences? Perhaps the answer lies in the varied roles that the female plays. In addition to being a school leader, the female principal is more likely to have significant responsibilities in her family life. The role of "mother," the role of "wife," and various social obligations are but a few of the demands that compete for the female principal's time.

Several of the time management practices in this list are quite worthy time-saving devices for the principal. A principal cannot read thoroughly all of the material available. Screening reading material is a significant time-saving device, and highly recommended by the literature. Similarly, sending professional reading material to the person who can best use it is a wise decision. The principal need not read the material himself or herself first.

Scheduling the day in large blocks of time is an outstanding time management practice. Whether the block is for handling telephone calls, reading and returning correspondence, or visiting classrooms, the literature advocates grouping similar items together in "chunks" of time.

Administrative staff meetings, held on a regular basis, keep others on the administrative team informed. When this type of regular, scheduled communication is taking place, many single items may be saved for discussion at that time. Administrators are then less apt to interrupt each other throughout the day with such single items.

Finally, the literature tells the reader that time spent in planning is time saved in implementation. The item that concerns planning projects in advance and in writing has tremendous implications for the principal.

Two of the practices that accounted for significant group separation are worthy of mention due to the possible negative effects associated with those practices. Female principals in this study were more likely to plan more tasks each day than could be handled. As mentioned earlier, such a practice results in an agenda that is never completed, and possibly feeling guilty and unfulfilled as a result.

The females in this study were also more likely to take work home, perhaps as a result of planning too much in one day. The implications for possible stress and burnout are present, and the female principals who participated in this study would be well advised to minimize these two practices.

Both male and female principals in this study would be well advised to increase the use of several of the time management practices discussed here. Both groups should be more willing to send professional reading material to staff members without reading it first. Time does not allow for the principal to screen all such material. Both groups also reported low scores when asked about scheduling the day in blocks of time. Finally, both male and female principals in this study should look more closely at the practice of scheduling weekly administrative staff meetings. The definition of "administrative staff," however, may vary from school to school. The assistant principal, counselor, secretary, bookkeeper, or department and grade chairpersons are candidates for inclusion in such meetings.

Research Question 3—Will a profile of time management practices for principals who hold a master's degree and principals who hold a degree beyond a master's reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

The F statistic was found to be 1.096, yielding a p value of .312. The null hypothesis was, therefore, not rejected at the .05 level. This finding indicates that principals who hold a master's degree and principals who hold a degree beyond a master's degree do not necessarily utilize identified time management practices in different ways.

At first glance, this finding is disappointing. One would hope to see time management skills increase with education level. The results of this study, however, do not show such a trend. A closer look might explain this finding. Principal preparation programs include many elements. Candidates take courses ranging from leadership to research skills to facility designing. One would tend to find training in time management less likely to be included in the curriculum. Perhaps respondents in this study should have been asked about any time management training they had, either as a part of principal preparation program or though other avenues.

Suppose this study had found that principals manage their time better as they acquire additional education, even if that education were void of time management training. Such findings would then indicate that specific training in time management is not necessarily needed. The findings of this study are exactly the opposite. They possibly suggest that if principals are to improve time management skills, they must have time management training.

<u>Research Question 4</u>—Will a profile of time management practices for principals from the age of 40 and below, principals from the ages of 41 to 50, and principals from the age of 51 and above reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

The F statistic was found to be 1.165, yielding a p value of .137. The null hypothesis was, therefore, not rejected at the .05 level. This finding indicates that principals 40 years of age and below, principals 41 to 50 years of age, and principals 51 years of age and above do not necessarily utilize time management practices identified in the instrument in different ways.

One might assume that a person improves his or her time management skills with age. A more accurate assumption, however, might be that a person tends to become more permanent in his or her routines with age. Familiar practices, even though they may be poor practices, become comfortable. Change is often seen as the enemy.

These findings might indicate that improvement in time management comes with training. That training may take any number of forms. Time management training happens formally and informally. A person may attend a seminar or workshop. This same person may purchase a book devoted to time management with the purpose of working on this life skill. Informal time management training may consist of seeing a particular idea and incorporating it into one's own lifestyle.

Two points related to this research question seem to be important. First, training, and therefore improvement in time management, can happen at any age. Secondly, because the age of the principals in this study did not produce significant differences in use of time management practices, improvement is likely to be brought about only by some sort of formal training.

Research Question 5—Will a profile of time management practices for principals with 0 to 3 years' experience in the principalship, principals with 4 to 9 years' experience in the principalship, and principals with 10 or more years' experience in the principalship reveal that these groups utilize identified time management practices to a similar degree?

The F statistic was found to be 1.084, yielding a p value of .279. The null hypothesis was, therefore, not rejected at the .05 level. This finding indicates that principals with 0 to 3 years' experience in the principalship, principals with 4 to 9 years' experience in the principalship, and principals with 10 or more years' experience in the principalship do not necessarily utilize identified time management practices in different ways.

This finding is a little perplexing, because it contradicts the findings of Tanner and Atkins (1990). Their study concluded use of time management practices paralleled administrative experience. Why does the contradiction exist? The answer may lie in the population used. While this study examined principals from all levels, the study by Tanner and Atkins examined principals who were members of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Why the same pattern, that of time management paralleling experience, would not be present at all levels presents an interesting question for further study.

Here again, the issue of formal versus informal training seems important. If informal training in time management is effective, one would expect principals to improve their time management skills with experience. The principals in this study did not respond in that manner. Improvement is, therefore, likely to improve though formal training.

Research Question 6—What time management practices will respondents identify that they use with greatest frequency?

The 10 most common time management practices used by responding principals (listed in order) were found to be:

1. Working longer hours than assistants.
2. Having a secretary answer telephone calls.
3. Sticking to and completing agenda items in scheduled meeting times.
4. Setting deadlines for oneself and staff for decisions to be made.
5. Obtaining all the facts each time before making a decision.

6. Setting deadlines for committee work.

7. Dealing with the most important tasks early in the day.

8. Starting and ending meetings at scheduled times.

9. Scanning reading materials before deciding to read them thoroughly.

10. Allowing assistants to make decisions that relate to their areas of responsibility.

Two of the items listed actually appear to be poor time management practices. The most commonly used item, that of working longer than assistants, may imply that the principal is underutilizing other time management practices, and must resort to working longer hours to compensate. Another explanation may be in the perception of the respondents to the word "assistants." The word could be interpreted to mean "assistant principals," or it could be interpreted to include secretaries, bookkeepers, custodians, and the other myriad of employees that work in a school. Typically, these employees have scheduled working hours and leave at scheduled times, while the principal is usually at school longer. Defining more accurately what is meant by the word "assistants" would clear up confusion for the respondents, and should have been done in this study.

One other explanation for the high ranking of this item is apparent. Principals naturally feel they are supposed to work hard. A high ranking on this item may be as much an indication of what principals expect of themselves as what they actually do.

A second item from this list, that of obtaining all the facts each time before making a decision, would be a time waster, if that is indeed what principals do. Rarely can one gather all facts. The process is time consuming, and reaches a point of diminishing return. Instead, one gathers the most important facts. The phrase "paralysis by analysis" describes the principal who truly uses this particular practice.

The remaining items on this list constitute excellent time management practices which are supported by the literature. Starting and ending meetings on time, as well as letting an agenda guide meetings are practices highly recommended throughout the literature.

Several commonly used items show very strong characteristics of effective delegation. When a principal allows his assistants to make decisions relating to their areas of responsibility, he or she is delegating effectively. This concept illustrates what Douglass and Baker (1983) call "whole-job unity," the concept of delegating all elements of a particular job, including the decision-making aspects, to one individual.

Deadlines constitute an important part of effective delegation. Members of an organization should have latitude in how they carry out their responsibilities. At some point, however, every member's responsibilities interrelate. Deadlines insure that projects are not brought to a halt because of one member who has not met an obligation. Principals responded with high frequency that they set deadlines for themselves, others, and committees.

Principals do, and should, have the secretary answer the telephone. Not only does this practice constitute a time-saver for the principal, but provides a wonderful public relations tool. The first impression one has of a school is often the impression given by the person who answers the telephone.

As discussed earlier, time does not permit the principal to digest all reading material that crosses his or her desk. Responding principals should be applauded for their practice of scanning reading materials and then making a decision on whether or not to read in detail.

Finally, principals seem to recognize that some tasks are more important than others. They tend to make sure the important tasks are completed by tackling them early in the day. The principal's day is filled with interruptions. Perhaps the tendency to tackle important items early in the day is a response to this pattern of interruptions. Trying to accomplish the important tasks early increases the chances that they will at least be accomplished by the end of the day.

The second 10 most commonly used time management practices provide excellent suggestions for principals. "Do you accomplish your top priority items for each day?" ranked number 13. This practice parallels the advice of such authors as Covey (1989), who labels high-priority items as "Quadrant I" activities. Closely related is the 14th ranked item, "Do you set job priorities and work on them in that order?" Such a practice allows the principal to take the myriad of tasks which compete for his or her attention and proactively make decisions regarding which tasks will result in maximum benefits and which will reap lesser benefits.

The items that ranked 16th and 17th take the idea of planning one's work a step further. Those items, "Do you list on paper your major tasks for the day in a priority order?" and "Do you plan projects in advance and in writing?" emphasize the need to commit plans to paper rather than leaving them to one's memory.

The review of literature talks extensively about the telephone, a device which has the potential both to save time, as well as waste extraordinary amounts of time. The 18th most common time management practice, "Do you keep your telephone calls brief?" reminds principals that the telephone becomes a time waster when calls increase in length and have no agenda.

The 15th most common time management practice was, "Do you have a secretary handle routine informational calls for you?" Kergaard (1991) reminds the principal that others can handle calls that are intended for the principal. If the secretary is kept informed regarding information callers may ask, this type of call is less likely to be routed the principal's office.

Finally, using a system of ad hoc committees, the 19th most common practice, holds great potential for a school. Committees are often looked upon as time wasters. Committees which have no purpose, or which have outlived their usefulness, give people the perception of committees being synonymous with wasting time. Ad hoc committees offer an excellent way to combine the efforts of people without wasting time. These committees are formed to address a particular need. When the need is filled, the committee is disbanded.

Research Question 7—What time management practices will respondents identify that they use with least frequency?

The following list outlines the 10 least common time management practices used by responding principals (listed in order beginning with the least used):

1. Scheduling one's day in a completely uninterrupted block of time.
2. Conducting meetings which last over 90 minutes.
3. Dictating to a secretary in person or using a dictating device.
4. Setting aside a portion of one's day for accepting any unscheduled visitors.
5. Scheduling one's day by appointment only.
6. Holding lunch meetings.
7. Having a secretary open, read, and prioritize incoming letters and memos.

8. Delaying making a decision for fear one might make a mistake.

9. Accepting telephone calls during one's meetings and conferences.

10. Scheduling one's day into large blocks of time.

This list reveals time management practices that principals do not use but should, as well as practices that they do not and should not use. Dictating to a secretary in today's world constitutes a waste of time for both the principal and secretary. The modern principal keys his or her own correspondence and allows the secretary to clean up the rough edges. Likewise, scheduling the day in a completely uninterrupted block of time is unreasonable.

Principals seldom schedule meetings which last over 90 minutes, and according to Mackenzie (1972), should not. This finding may be due to the fact that teachers, with whom many meetings naturally would be held, do not have such a large block of non-instructional time in their days. Mackenzie states in general, meetings should last no more than 1 hour. During the typical school day, the principal would have difficulty meeting with a teacher for even an hour. Planning sessions with other administrators or community leaders, however, are possible.

Lunch meetings also pose disadvantages for the principal. Lunch time constitutes an opportunity for short interaction between the principal and a group of teachers. Longer discourses, however, would tend to be unproductive. Teachers generally have some supervisory duties during lunch. The lunch time is also generally a hectic time for the principal. Such an arrangement makes the discussion of serious matters difficult.

Responding principals generally do not delay making decisions for fear of making a mistake, and should not. Such a practice is actually a time waster, and is one of the leading causes of procrastination according to relevant literature. Mackenzie (1972) stresses even the best decision is no good if made too late. Wrong decisions, if made early, may allow time for corrections to be made. Mackenzie goes on to say if a person is committed to a course of action, good results can occur even if the best of decisions was not made.

Principals responding to this survey do not tend to accept telephone calls during meetings and conferences. Such a practice would save time in preventing telephone tag, but constitutes a tremendous time waster for the other members of the meeting or conference. In addition, the practice implies that the caller is automatically more important than the persons meeting with the principal.

Of the items listed as being the least used, three deal with the scheduling of the principal's day. Responding principals do not tend to schedule their days in large blocks of time. While principals may find such a practice difficult, the literature highly recommends the practice. Gleeson (1994), Hartley (1990), and Merrill and Douglass (1980) all talk of establishing blocks of time in which similar activities are handled.

These principals do not tend to set aside a portion of the day for accepting unscheduled visitors, nor do they schedule their days by appointment only. Drop-in visitors are generally seen at any part of the day. Is this practice the correct one? Partin's (1988) discussion of the modified open-door policy in the literature review may serve as the best solution. While the principal is accessible, he or she is free to set aside certain "unavailable" times to work on important projects. In addition, visitors, when seen, are not allowed to stay for an unlimited period of time.

Finally, the time management practice of having the secretary open, read, and prioritize incoming letters and memos ranked near the bottom of time management responding principals use. In this area, principals are missing out on a great time saving device.

Kobert (1980), in particular, emphasizes the benefits of this practice. He advocates allowing the secretary to throw away junk mail, handle routine correspondence, route mail to those with responsibility for that area, sort and prioritize the remaining mail.

Why would a principal be reluctant to delegate this type of authority to the secretary? Confidential information is often contained in material sent to principals. The principal must be able to trust the secretary not to divulge this type of information to others. Secondly, the principal may lack confidence that the secretary will correctly route or handle correspondence. Finally, the principal may simply enjoy handling this duty himself or herself. Sorting through the mail, junk mail and all, may give the principal a sense of accomplishment, even though it constitutes a tremendous time-waster.

Research Question 8—What are the psychometric characteristics of the instrument with this particular population?

The alpha coefficient for the *Time Management Rating Scale* was found to be .89 with this particular population, indicating that scores on the instrument are accounting for 89% of the true attribute being measured.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study and a review of the related literature, the following conclusions are drawn:

1. The school level tends to impact the use of the time management practices of responding principals. The items that contributed most to group separation revolved largely around screening of interruptions caused by the telephone and drop-in visitors, as well as with the grouping of returning telephone calls and responding to paperwork into one large chunk during the day. As a whole, multilevel principals in this study tended to use these

techniques the least of the 4 groups. No previous study found in the review of literature addressed this relationship.

2. The gender of the principals in this study somewhat tends to impact their use of time management practices. The items that contributed most to group separation involved planning in one form or another. Planning of one's work day and workload, planning of projects, and planning of what materials would be read were all utilized more by female principals in this study. At the same time, however, the females in this study were more likely to use the negative practices of planning too much for any given day and taking work home. No previous study found in the review of literature addressed this relationship. One could hypothesize that because the female plays such a wide variety of roles, she must plan her time more carefully.

3. Neither the degree held by the principal, age of the principal, nor the number of years' experience in the principalship tended to significantly impact the use of time management practices of the respondents. Only formal training in time management seems likely to bring about improvement.

4. Principals in this study tend to set deadlines, both for themselves and for others, to help guide the accomplishment of tasks. Five of the 10 most commonly used time management practices dealt directly with setting deadlines. Those items dealt with sticking to an agenda for meetings, setting deadlines for the making of decisions, setting deadlines for committee work, dealing with the most important matters early in the day, and starting and ending meetings at scheduled times. The review of literature stressed the need for deadlines in order to facilitate delegation (Mancini, 1994; Alexander, 1992; Mackenzie, 1972) and overcome procrastination (Peale, 1982).

5. These principals tend to use frequently those time management practices that deal with the planning of tasks. Of the 10 most frequently used practices, five deal directly with planning. These practices include the planning of meetings through the use of an agenda, setting deadlines for decisions, obtaining all facts before making decisions, setting deadlines for committee work, and dealing with the most important tasks early in the day. Of the next ten most frequently used time management practices, four more relate to planning. Accomplishing the top priority item for each day, setting job priorities and working on them in that order, listing on paper the major tasks for the day in priority order, and planning projects in writing ahead of time were all commonly used time management practices dealing with planning. Many authors cited in the review of literature address the issue of the importance of planning. The need for prioritizing tasks (Winwood, 1990), the problems caused by lack of planning (Mackenzie, 1972), and the need for daily planning time (Alexander, 1992; Rees, 1986) are prime examples.

6. These principals tend to use less frequently those time management practices that deal with scheduling their day. They also tend to neglect time management practices that prevent interruptions. Fourteen of the items on the *Time Management Rating Scale* address the principals' scheduling of the day and handling of potential interruptions. Of these 14 time management practices, only one was included in the 20 most frequent practices. The common use of that item, "Do you deal with the most important tasks early in the day?" seems to indicate that the principal plans to be interrupted, and insures that important matters are dealt with by getting started on them early in the day before interruptions begin. Scheduling of the entire day is discouraged by Mackenzie (1972) and Merrill and Douglass (1980). These authors recommend that anywhere from 20% to 50% of the executive's day

be left unscheduled. From the results of this study, the principals examined are unable to schedule a significant portion of their day.

7. The principals in this study tend to use less frequently those time management practices that involve the use of a secretary. A total of 13 items on the survey concerned the use of a secretary. Only one, that of having the secretary answer telephone calls, was included in the list of the 10 most commonly used time management practices. Only one more, that of having the secretary handle routine informational calls, was even in the 20 most frequently used time management practices. Calabrese (1976) also found under-utilization of the secretary to be a problem with the time management practices of high school principals. The review of literature, however, is full of suggestions on how efficient use of a secretary can help any executive better manage time. In particular, Winston (1983) provides a list of categories which guide the executive towards empowerment of the secretary. She offers nine suggestions dealing with the mail and paperwork alone. Techniques involving screening interruptions, use of the telephone, calendar coordination, and general office supervision are available to the secretary. Each category, and the individual points Winston discusses, offers the principal opportunities to save time through empowerment of the secretary. Of particular concern in this study is the underutilization of the secretary in the area of handling mail and other correspondence.

8. Taken as a whole, principals in this study utilized the time management practices on this instrument almost exactly in the middle of the Likert scale. The average response was 4.746.

9. While most principals in this study utilize the capabilities of a word processing program, those who use electronic mail or voice mail are in the minority. The ones who use

these two devices definitely see them as time savers. A large majority of responding principals, 75%, personally use a word processing program. Only 2% felt it did not save time. Just over one fourth of principals responded they use electronic mail. Of those who use it, an overwhelming 83% view it as a time saver. Voice mail was the least used of these selected technological advances. Only 15% of principals responded that they personally use voice mail. Of those who do, 83% said that it saves them time.

The study of time management is not new. The review of literature has traced serious discussion of the topic as far back as Benjamin Franklin. While many of the time problems executives face, as well as their solutions, have been topics of conversation for decades, one potential for solutions is relatively new. Technology, and its time-saving potential, is available for virtually all principals. Though only three questions in this study dealt with the use of technology, their results provide both some very interesting results and important points of departure for future studies. They are important because they not only describe how principals manage time today, but lay the groundwork for helping principals better manage time in the decades to come. Indeed, an entire study could easily be done on how principals utilize technology in their work. At the current rate of technological change, however, any single study could expect a shelf-life of no more than 6 months.

This study revealed that most principals (75%) use a word-processing program. A more detailed study could, and should, be done to explore exactly how principals make use of this tool. Does the principal compose a draft of a letter, print it, and then hand deliver it to the secretary to correct and rekey ? Does the principal instead compose the letter, and through use of a network, allow the secretary to call up the document on screen, to be corrected and electronically return to the principal?

Does the principal type out a rough copy of an invitation to parents, and then take to a printer to typeset? Does the principal instead use available desktop publishing capabilities to retrieve last year's invitation, electronically make changes, print it, and reproduce the invitation on the school's duplicating machine? These scenarios provide only a few of the questions school researchers can examine.

Just over one fourth of the principals use electronic mail. In years to come, this one tool is sure to partly replace both the telephone and the memo as a means of communicating relatively small amounts of information quickly. This tool holds tremendous potential not only for time savings, but also for professional development. The advent of discussion groups geared towards the school administrator provides the opportunity for one to pose questions for colleagues all over the world.

Voice mail, a tool used by only 15% of principals, has the potential to end the cycle of "telephone tag." As discussed in the review of literature, the chance of reaching a person on the first try is less than 20% (Mayer, 1995). This tool also allows not only the principal, but all school personnel, to break free from the need to drop the project at hand, regardless of how important, simply because a telephone rings. The literature is filled with references to the telephone as a time waster. Voice mail provides a practical way to retain the benefits offered by the telephone and at the same time eliminate its time wasting side effects that it presents for people in all walks of life.

As with the word processor, further study needs to focus on the specific ways in which electronic mail and voice mail are currently used by principals. In the years to come, both of those advances are likely to increase in popularity with principals. As their popularity increases, so does the need for practical suggestions to make the best use of them.

Implications of Findings and Conclusions for Principals

The principal is a key ingredient in an effective school (Daresh, cited in Spradling, 1989; Roney et al., 1990; Ellett & Licata, 1987). Perhaps this statement best captures the need for this study or any study dealing with the nature of the principalship. The review of literature has painted the job of "principal" as that of instructional leader, pupil personnel coordinator, staff personnel coordinator, community relations facilitator, manager of the school facility, and fiscal manager. Truly, the principalship is a multifaceted job.

This same review of literature offers a myriad of suggestions for how the executive can better manage time, yet at the same time, leaves a void in two areas. So little has been written on the subject of time management geared towards application to the school principal. Secondly, even less has been written on how principals actually use time management practices.

Knowing what principals are actually doing provides a basis for any professional development. This study reveals how principals in Alabama use a wide variety of time management practices, and can be used as a starting point to help principals improve in this vital area.

Perhaps the most valuable collection of information is the profile of time management practices examined in Research Question 6 and Research Question 7. Interestingly, the most commonly used time management practice was for principals to work longer hours than their assistants. Perhaps principals responded in this manner because they have been taught they *should* work longer hours than their assistants. Perhaps they take the word "assistants" to mean secretaries, custodians, or other personnel aside from the assistant principal. Perhaps, however, principals are simply caught in a situation where working harder rather than smarter is a reality. This finding alone implies that principals need training in time management.

This same profile of time management practices illustrates other areas where time management skills could and should be enhanced through training. The tendency for the principal's day to be driven by interruptions instead of a plan constitutes cause for concern. As Roney et al. (1990) found, "Principals who plan their day are much more likely to achieve their goals than are the principals who allow the day to develop on its own" (p. 69). Principals must learn to be proactive, rather than reactive, in their approach to time.

The profile of time management practices reveals a general underuse of the secretary. Relevant literature talks extensively on how executives can empower the secretary to act as a buffer, a buffer between the principal and those activities that divert him or her from accomplishing those tasks central to the school's mission. Unfortunately, principals seem to lack the understanding or the training necessary to utilize this vitally important person effectively.

The questions regarding technology reveal that the use of voice mail and electronic mail are time-savers for the principals who use them. Those principals, however, are in the minority. In this age of technology, principals must be trained in how to use those advances in technology which offer time-saving benefits.

Does the type of time management training offered need to differ depending on the group of principals being trained? This study compared principals' use of time management practices by school level, by gender, by degrees earned, by age, and by experience. Of those comparisons only school level and gender produced significant differences in overall use of time management practices. The findings and conclusions imply that one well-planned program for improving time management practices would benefit all principals.

How much training in time management is needed in order for a principal to see real improvement? Tanner and Atkins (1990) found a minimum of 2 days' time management training is needed for one to see a reduction in levels of stress. One might assume this same amount of training would be needed to see improvement in time management practices.

Training in time management can be offered in a number of ways. Workshops presented by private companies are readily available. While presented with the business executive in mind, such workshops can offer valuable assistance to the school principal. School systems can take the initiative by offering time management seminars to their current and aspiring principals as a part of their professional development programs. Finally, schools of education can help future principals by specifically offering time management training as a part of their principal preparation programs and in-service offerings.

Time is a constant. How each individual uses it constitutes the variable. In the words of Dennis Gabor (cited in Linder, 1970, p. *x*), "Till now man has been up against Nature; from now on he will be up against his own nature."

Recommendations for Further Study

These recommendations are provided as a basis for further study:

1. Replicate this study with principals recognized as being exemplary in order to examine the time management practices of this segment of school administrators.

2. Conduct a study comparing the time management practices of principals who have high-achieving students versus those of principals with low-achieving students.

3. Conduct similar studies with assistant principals, school secretaries, and teachers to serve as a basis for the planning of professional development activities in the area of time management.

4. Conduct further studies to examine the relationship between gender and time usage.

5. Conduct a study with principals to determine how they use their time in contrast with how they would prefer to use their time.

6. Conduct qualitative studies in order to examine the question of why principals manage their time the way they do.

7. Conduct a study to determine how principals use their time within the framework of Covey's four-quadrant model.

8. Conduct a study to determine the effects of formal time management training on improvement in practice.

9. Conduct an expanded study of the use of technological advances as time savers. Examine in this study all areas of the educational community (classroom, school office, central office, state departments of education) to uncover current "best practices" in this area.

10. Repeat studies on the use of technological advances as time savers at a period of no less frequently than 2 years.

Recommendations for Principal Preparation and Development Programs

The following recommendations are meant to guide universities as they prepare tomorrow's educational leaders, as well as to guide school systems in the professional development of their current and aspiring principals:

1. Introduce principals and prospective principals to some of the better books on the subject of time management. Such books include *The One Minute Manager Meets the Monkey* (Blanchard et al., 1989); *The Effective Executive* (Drucker, 1966); *Successful Time Management* (Ferner, 1995); *Time Tactics of Very Successful People* (Griessman, 1994); *How to Get Control of Your Time and Your Life* (Lakein, 1973); *The Time Trap: How to Get More Done in Less Time* (Mackenzie, 1972); and *The Organized Executive: New Ways to Manage Time Paper, and People* (Winston, 1983).

2. Offer instruction aimed at improving time management skills in the following areas: (a) implementing a "quiet hour," (b) empowering the secretary, (c) implementing effective delegation techniques, (d) managing the telephone and drop-in visitors, (e) managing paperwork through the use of tickler files and other efficient filing systems, (f) overcoming procrastination, (g) learning to say "no," and (h) developing routines for activities that repeat.

3. Train principals and aspiring principals in the philosophies proposed by Covey in *The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People.*

4. Train principals and aspiring principals in effective practices for using word processing, electronic mail, and voice mail.

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APPENDIX A

REQUEST TO USE TIME MANAGEMENT RATING SCALE

COLUMBIANA MIDDLE SCHOOL

"Catering Tomorrow's Success"

222 Joinertown Road
Columbiana, Alabama 35051
Telephone (205) 669-5650

PRINCIPAL
OUIDA L. MAYFIELD

ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL
FRANK BUCK

SECRETARY
CATHERINE BLANKENSHIP

RECEPTIONIST
GAY BEASLEY

December 10, 1996

Dr. Truman Atkins
Superintendent
Walker County Schools
P.O. Box 29
LaFayette, GA 30728

Dear Dr. Atkins:

As we discussed on the telephone, I am a doctoral student in educational leadership at the University of Alabama at Birmingham. The subject of my dissertation is "A Study of the Time Management Practices of Alabama Principals."

I am familiar with the "Time Management Rating Scale" that you used in your work, and request permission to use the instrument. My plan is to send the instrument to a stratified random sampling of elementary, middle, and high school principals in Alabama. The results gained from the survey will serve as the data by which I will answer the research questions and accept or reject the various hypotheses I have established.

I enjoyed speaking with you on the telephone and appreciate your verbal consent to use the "Time Management Rating Scale." I look forward to receiving written confirmation, which I will include in the appendix of my dissertation.

Sincerely,

Frank Buck

Frank Buck
Assistant Principal

APPENDIX B

PERMISSION TO USE INSTRUMENT

WALKER COUNTY DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

OFFICE OF SUPERINTENDENT

P.O. BOX 29 • LaFAYETTE, GEORGIA 30728
LaFAYETTE: (706) 638-1240 CHATTANOOGA: (423) 267-7054

December 19, 1996

Mr. Frank Buck
Assistant Principal
Columbiana Middle School
222 Joinertown Road
Columbiana, AL 35051

Dear Mr. Buck:

Congratulations to you on the progress you have made toward your doctoral program in educational leadership at the University of Alabama in Birmingham. I fully appreciate the amount of time and effort that you are expending toward your goal.

You have my permission to use the "Time Management Rating Scale" in your study. Best wishes to you on the successful completion of your study. If I can assist you further, don't hesitate to call.

Sincerely,

Truman T. Atkins

Truman T. Atkins, Superintendent
Walker County Schools

TTA/ms

APPENDIX C

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

THE UNIVERSITY OF
ALABAMA AT BIRMINGHAM

Office of the Institutional Review Board for Human Use

FORM 4: IDENTIFICATION AND CERTIFICATION OF
RESEARCH PROJECTS INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

THE INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB) MUST COMPLETE THIS FORM FOR ALL APPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND TRAINING GRANTS, PROGRAM PROJECT AND CENTER GRANTS, DEMONSTRATION GRANTS, FELLOWSHIPS, TRAINEESHIPS, AWARDS, AND OTHER PROPOSALS WHICH MIGHT INVOLVE THE USE OF HUMAN RESEARCH SUBJECTS INDEPENDENT OF SOURCE OF FUNDING.

THIS FORM DOES NOT APPLY TO APPLICATIONS FOR GRANTS LIMITED TO THE SUPPORT OF CONSTRUCTION, ALTERATIONS AND RENOVATIONS, OR RESEARCH RESOURCES.

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Frank Buck

PROJECT TITLE: A Study of the Time Management Practices of Alabama Principals

---

_____1. THIS IS A TRAINING GRANT. EACH RESEARCH PROJECT INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS PROPOSED BY TRAINEES MUST BE REVIEWED SEPARATELY BY THE INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB).

__X__2. THIS APPLICATION INCLUDES RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS. THE IRB HAS REVIEWED AND APPROVED THIS APPLICATION ON 2-13-97 IN ACCORDANCE WITH UAB'S ASSURANCE APPROVED BY THE UNITED STATES PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE. THE PROJECT WILL BE SUBJECT TO ANNUAL CONTINUING REVIEW AS PROVIDED IN THAT ASSURANCE.

__X__ THIS PROJECT RECEIVED EXPEDITED REVIEW.

_____ THIS PROJECT RECEIVED FULL BOARD REVIEW.

_____3. THIS APPLICATION MAY INCLUDE RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS. REVIEW IS PENDING BY THE IRB AS PROVIDED BY UAB'S ASSURANCE. COMPLETION OF REVIEW WILL BE CERTIFIED BY ISSUANCE OF ANOTHER FORM 4 AS SOON AS POSSIBLE.

_____4. EXEMPTION IS APPROVED BASED ON EXEMPTION CATEGORY NUMBER(S) __________.

DATE: 3-3-97

Marguerite Kinney
MARGUERITE KINNEY, DNSc
VICE CHAIR OF THE
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

The University of Alabama at Birmingham
1170R Administration Building • 701 South 20th Street
Birmingham, Alabama 35294-0111 • (205) 934-3789 • FAX (205) 975-5977

APPENDIX D

LETTERS TO PRINCIPALS

COLUMBIANA MIDDLE SCHOOL

"Catering Tomorrow's Success"

222 Joinertown Road
Columbiana, Alabama 35051
Telephone (205) 669-5650

PRINCIPAL
OUIDA L. MAYFIELD

ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL
FRANK BUCK

SECRETARY
CATHERINE BLANKENSHIP

RECEPTIONIST
GAY BEASLEY

Dear Principals:

In the book *The Harried Leisure Class*, the author opens with the following poem written by Michel Quoist:

Good-by, Sir, excuse me, I haven't time.
I'll come back, I can't wait, I haven't time.
I must end this letter- I haven't time.
I'd love to help you, but I haven't time.
I can't accept, having no time.
I can't think, I can't read, I'm swamped, I haven't time.
I'd like to pray, but I haven't time.

Perhaps we all, at some time or another, feel time pressures similar to those expressed in this poem. Certainly the principalship is one arena where great demands and limited time pose potential problems.

As a practicing school administrator, I am interested in learning how principals in our state make use of certain time management practices. I need your help in this project. Enclosed is a questionnaire and a postage paid envelope for the questionnaire's return.

The results will be used in my doctoral dissertation, *A Study of the Time Management Practices of Alabama Principals*. Please be assured that your individual responses will remain anonymous. Thanks for your help in this project.

Sincerely,

Frank Buck

Frank Buck

Enclosures: Questionnaire
Return envelope

COLUMBIANA MIDDLE SCHOOL

"Catering Tomorrow's Success"

222 Joinertown Road
Columbiana, Alabama 35051
Telephone (205) 669-5650

PRINCIPAL
OUIDA L. MAYFIELD

ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL
FRANK BUCK

SECRETARY
CATHERINE BLANKENSHIP

RECEPTIONIST
GAY BEASLEY

Dear Principal:

I need your help! Approximately two weeks ago, I sent you a questionnaire regarding your use of selected time management practices. At this point, I have not received your response.

Enclosed is a second questionnaire and a postage paid envelope for the questionnaire's return. The process will take only a few minutes, and will greatly help me with my project. The results will be used in my doctoral dissertation, *A Study of the Time Management Practices of Alabama Principals*. Please be assured that your individual response will remain anonymous.

Your response, together with those of other principals, will be a valuable contribution to the knowledge-base of how principals in Alabama manage their time. Thanks for your help in this project!

Sincerely,

Frank Buck

Frank Buck
Assistant Principal

APPENDIX E

TIME MANAGEMENT RATING SCALE

Do you:	Never/Rarely ... Very Often/Always
51 allow your assistants to make decisions that relate to their areas of responsibility?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
52 have your assistants read articles in professional journals and/or magazines and report back to you?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
53. say "no" to unreasonable requests made by your superior?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
54 stand up while meeting with an unannounced visitor who arrives at your office?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
55. have a secretary remind you when your appointed visits go past the scheduled time?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
56. schedule appointments with your assistants and/or teachers at their work stations?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
57 obtain all the facts each time before you make a decision?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
58 act upon decisions as soon as they are made?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
59 delay making a decision for fear you might make a mistake?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
60. deal with an unexpected visitor outside your office when possible?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
61. have your secretary, when you are unavailable, tell the callers a specific time to call back?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
62 have your secretary screen unexpected visitors and arrange an appointment?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8

Just a few questions about your use of technology...

Do you personally use:			*If "yes," do you feel it saves you time?*	
Voice mail	Yes	No	Yes	No
E-mail?	Yes	No	Yes	No
A word processing program?	Yes	No	Yes	No

Thank you for your valuable assistance! Check here if you would like a copy of the results when the study is completed. ____

Demographic Information

Please complete the following information about yourself:

Type of School:	___ Elementary	___ Middle Level	___ High School
Highest degree:	___ Masters degree	___ Educational Specialist	___ Doctorate
Gender:	___ Male	___ Female	
Age Bracket:	___ 40 or below	___ 41-50	___ 51 or over
Years experience as a principal (not counting this school year)	___ 0-3	___ 4-9	___ 10 or above

Time Management Rating Scale

Please circle the number at the end of each question that best describes how often you use this time management practice.

Do you:	Never/Rarely ... Very Often/Always
1. have a secretary answer your telephone calls?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
2. have a secretary screen calls by referring them to other offices or staff members?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
3. have a secretary handle routine informational calls for you?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
4. group your returning and initiating telephone calls into one block of time during the day?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
5. accept telephone calls during your meetings and conferences?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
6. keep your telephone calls brief?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
7. have a secretary make your appointments?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
8. place a time limit on meetings with unexpected visitors?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
9. have a secretary refer an unexpected visitor to another administrator's office?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
10. schedule your day by appointment only?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
11. schedule your day into large blocks of time?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
12. set aside a portion of your day for accepting any unscheduled visitors — staff or students?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8
13. schedule your day in a completely uninterrupted block of time?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8

Do you:	Never/Rarely Very Often/Always
14. set job priorities and work on them in that order?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
15. list on paper your major tasks for the day in a priority order?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
16. focus upon one task at a time?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
17. set deadlines for yourself and your staff for decisions to be made?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
18. outline replies to letters and have a secretary write or type the letters?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
19. use the telephone instead of a letter or memo?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
20. start and end meetings at scheduled times?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
21. stick to and complete agenda items in the scheduled meeting time?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
22. summarize the major points of discussion at the end of the meeting?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
23. have the minutes of the meeting available 24 to 48 hours after the meeting?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
24. set deadlines for committee work?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
25. use a system of "ad hoc" committees?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
26. set weekly administrative staff meetings?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
27. hold lunch meetings?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
28. conduct meetings which last over 90 minutes?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
29. keep a daily log of your activities?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
30. plan projects in advance and in writing?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
31. scan reading materials before deciding to read them thoroughly?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
32. separate printed material into "must read," "should read," and "don't bother" categories?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
33. act upon paperwork as soon as it reaches your desk?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8

Do you:	Never/Rarely Very Often/Always
34. send professional reading materials to staff members without reading it?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
35. have a secretary open, read, and prioritize your incoming letters and memos?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
36. have a secretary screen and reroute mail?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
37. group your letter and memo reading and responding into one block of time during the day?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
38. dictate to a secretary in person and/or use a dictating device?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
39. take work home?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
40. work longer hours than your assistants?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
41. find yourself doing your assistants' tasks?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
42. accomplish your top priority items for each day?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
43. refer incoming correspondence to staff members and direct that they handle the matter?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
44. plan more tasks each day than you can handle?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
45. start projects sooner than necessary in order to reach your deadlines?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
46. deal with the most important tasks early in the day?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
47. attempt to be a perfectionist in everything that you do?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
48. keep your desk cleared of all materials except for those needed for your top priority project at the time?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
49. respond immediately to correspondence by writing on the bottom of received correspondence and returning to sender?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8
50. have a secretary do all your filing?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7......8

APPENDIX F

GRADE CONFIGURATIONS OF ALABAMA SCHOOLS

Grade Configuration Chart

Configuration	Type of School	Number	% of Type	% of Schools
1-2	Elem.	2	0.3%	0.1%
1-3	Elem.	1	0.2%	0.1%
1-4	Elem.	7	1.1%	0.5%
1-6	Elem.	1	0.2%	0.1%
2	Elem.	2	0.3%	0.1%
2-3	Elem.	2	0.3%	0.1%
2-4	Elem.	1	0.2%	0.1%
2-6	Elem.	2	0.3%	0.1%
3-4	Elem.	3	0.5%	0.2%
3-5	Elem.	18	2.9%	1.3%
3-6	Elem.	3	0.5%	0.2%
4-5	Elem.	8	1.3%	0.6%
4-6	Elem.	6	1.0%	0.4%
K	Elem.	7	1.1%	0.5%
K,3-5	Elem.	1	0.2%	0.1%
K-1	Elem.	4	0.6%	0.3%
K-2	Elem.	22	3.6%	1.6%
K-3	Elem.	27	4.4%	2.0%
K-4	Elem.	51	8.3%	3.7%
K-5	Elem.	250	40.6%	18.3%
K-6	Elem.	198	32.1%	14.5%
Total	Elem.	616	100.0%	45.2%
4-7	Middle	3	1.4%	0.2%
4-8	Middle	9	4.1%	0.7%
5-6	Middle	7	3.2%	0.5%
5-7	Middle	7	3.2%	0.5%
5-8	Middle	33	14.9%	2.4%
6	Middle	5	2.3%	0.4%
6, 9	Middle	1	0.5%	0.1%
6-7	Middle	2	0.9%	0.1%
6-8	Middle	107	48.2%	7.9%
7	Middle	4	1.8%	0.3%
7-8	Middle	23	10.4%	1.7%
7-9	Middle	15	6.8%	1.1%
8	Middle	2	0.9%	0.1%
8-9	Middle	4	1.8%	0.3%
Total	Middle	222	100.0%	16.3%
10-12	High	11	4.1%	0.8%
11-12	High	1	0.4%	0.1%
7-12	High	80	29.6%	5.9%
8-12	High	10	3.7%	0.7%
9-10	High	1	0.4%	0.1%

Grade Configuration Chart

9-12	High	167	61.9%	12.3%
Total	High	270	100.0%	19.8%
1-7	Multi-Level	1	0.4%	0.1%
3, 7, 9, 10	Multi-Level	1	0.4%	0.1%
3-12	Multi-Level	2	0.8%	0.1%
3-8	Multi-Level	1	0.4%	0.1%
4-11	Multi-Level	1	0.4%	0.1%
4-12	Multi-Level	4	1.6%	0.3%
5-12	Multi-Level	6	2.4%	0.4%
6-10, 12	Multi-Level	1	0.4%	0.1%
6-12	Multi-Level	12	4.7%	0.9%
7-10	Multi-Level	1	0.4%	0.1%
7-11	Multi-Level	1	0.4%	0.1%
K, 4-6	Multi-Level	1	0.4%	0.1%
K-10	Multi-Level	1	0.4%	0.1%
K-12	Multi-Level	125	49.0%	9.2%
K-7	Multi-Level	5	2.0%	0.4%
K-8	Multi-Level	83	32.5%	6.1%
K-9	Multi-Level	9	3.5%	0.7%
Total	Multi-Level	255	100.0%	18.7%
Grand Total		1363		100.0%

GRADUATE SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA AT BIRMINGHAM
DISSERTATION APPROVAL FORM

Name of Candidate Frank Buck

Major Subject Educational Leadership

Title of Dissertation A Study of the Time Management Practices of Alabama Principals

Dissertation Committee:

______________________, Chair

Director of Graduate Program ______________________

Dean, UAB Graduate School ______________________

Date 9/4/97