UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

EFFECTIVE TIME MANAGEMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE: A CASE STUDY OF BREMAN ASIKUMA DISTRICT ASSEMBLY

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A Dissertation in the Department of Management Sciences,

School of Business,

Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies

In partial fulfilment of the requirements for the

Award of degree of Master of Business Administration

(Human Resource)

In the University of Education, Winneba.

OCTOBER, 2022

DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I, Alberta Anyan, do hereby declare that this dissertation, with the exception of quotations, references contained in published works which have all been identified and acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and has not been submitted, either in whole, or in part for another degree elsewhere. I bear sole responsibility for any shortcoming in the work.

Signature:………………………………………………………….

Date:……………………………………………

Supervisor's Declaration

This work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of dissertation as laid down at the University of Education, Winneba.

Name of Supervisor: **Dr. Aaron Makafui Ametorwo**

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Date:…………………………………………………

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost, I would like to thank the Almighty God for the strength, knowledge and wisdom He has provided me, without which I would not have managed to sail through. To my research supervisor, Dr. Aaron Makafui Ametorwo, I will forever be grateful for his resolute support, advice, guidance and commitment, which go beyond the research, but span across the period of study.

Special thanks go to all the lecturers at the School of Business, who taught me, especially Dr. B.B.Binga, the former Head of Department of Human Resource Department, for their invaluable assistance throughout the programme. I am truly indebted to my family for affording me this opportunity. To my colleagues in the School of Business, I thank them for their companionship over the years.

To all those who participated in the study, especially, Mr. Seth Owusu Asare, I say a big thank you for your invaluable contribution pertaining to information essential for this research.

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ABSTRACT

Organisational culture has an effect on time management practices. The time management practices would then influence key job performance outcomes. A relationship, that exists between time management cultures and job performance which then influences organisational performance. Most of the time management research has, however, mainly focussed on monochronic western cultures. There is, therefore, very little insight into whether relationship in other cultural contexts, such as polychromic African countries such as Ghana. The aim of this study is to investigate the impact of time management practices on organisational performance of Breman Asikuma District Assembly. In investigating the relationship, the study also examines the perceptions of time and identifies the factors that influence time management behaviours, in particular, the role of leadership. The study found that time management was of great importance and that cultural differences played a crucial role in its determination. Analysis of the interviews revealed that cultural factors had a strong impact on time management. It was also found that there was very little understanding about the impact of monochronic time and polychronic time. However, the study revealed that District Assembly employees had attributes that characterise polychronic culture and that the employees was interested to learn more about monochronic practices. In addition, the study showed that there was indeed a linkage between time management behaviours and organisational performance. The study found that aspects of job outcomes, examined in respect of work balancing, work load and awareness building, were positively and significantly impacted by time management practices. Further, the research found that the Breman Asikuma District Assembly under investigation have gradually been coming to terms and implementing effective time management strategies. These are increasingly recognised as important for the Breman Asikuma District Assembly to achieve their organisational objectives.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

Time is one of the most important assets for any organisation in the business world (Adebisi, 2013; Forbes, 2016). This is virtually because time is tied to every organisational activity that feeds into its strategic objectives. As an important asset, its management is critical for organisational survival and success. As a result, time management could be considered as one of the major competitive tools that can contribute towards improved organisational performance (Ahmed et al., 2012; Nonis et al., 2011). Time management is necessary for any organisation to carry out its operations effectively. Improved operational efficiency through time management contributes to organisational success. Studies have empirically demonstrated the relationship between time management practices and organisational performance (Claessens et al., 2007; Miqdadi et al., 2014; Njagi & Malel, 2012; Nonis et al., 2011). Time management practices are however, influenced by culture (Macan et al., 1990; Nonis & Sager, 2003). As such, different cultural settings could influence organizational time management practices which would then influence the overall organizational performance. As a result, the findings on the relationship that exists between time management practices and job or firm performance could be contextual, and therefore, not generalizable.

Importantly, the time orientation of a culture affects how time is valued and also controlled (Arman & Adair, 2012; Bouncken, 2004; Kaufman-Scarborough, 2017; Onken, 1999). The way time is perceived and also controlled has an effect on the performance of tasks. Thus, arising from the differing perceptions of time and its management across cultures can pose a serious problem for a global or multinational organisation that has to deal with different cultural settings/context. In other words, culturally different attitudes to time management can be extremely harmful in such organisations as it affects corss-cultural communication. Therefore, understanding different attitudes or perceptions to time management forms an important aspect in managing or maintaining intercultural business relationships.

In the broad classifications of cultural perspectives on time, two distinct cultural classes have been observed in the literature: monochronic and polychronic cultures (Hall, 1999; Harvey & Kamoche, 2004; Hirschman, 1987). In such a classification, polychronicity refers to the extent to which people in a culture prefer to be engaged in two or more tasks or events simultaneously; and believe their preference to be the best way to do things (Bluedorn et al., 1999; Nonis et al., 2011; Onken, 1999). Monochronicity, on the other hand, refers to the culture where individuals believe that doing one thing at a time is better than doing several things at a time (Nonis et al. 2005). In monochronic cultures, time is viewed as “linear and separable, capable of being divided into units, and therefore emphasize doing one thing at a time” (Nonis et al., 2005, p. 412). These cultural orientations have implications on organisation culture. This is particularly the case given that national culture has an influence on organisational culture (Hofstede, 2001; Rosen, 2002). For instance, Rosen (2002) argues that the national culture applies to social interactions and power relationship, both within and outside of formal organisations. The national cultures are usually deeply engraved in employees and influence organizational culture. National culture influences managerial decision-making, leadership styles, and human resource management practices (Li et al., 2001; Willmott, 2000). Further, managerial functions within the organisations such as communication, motivation, organizational design, employee's expectations of work design, and reward systems are all affected by national culture (Khan and Law, 2018; Nicholls et al., 1999). As such, polychronicity and monochronicity are both temporal dimensions of organizational culture. Temporal dimensions basically refer to the perceptions, and thus meaning of time (Hall, 1983; Harvey & Kamoche, 2004; Kaufman-Scarborough, 2003) in one cultural setting.

Considering the differences in cultural settings and the possible influence on the organisational practices, it's imperative that contextual factors are taken into consideration when investigating the relationship that exist between time management and organisational performance. Several studies have shown, for example, that there is positive relationship between time management practices and key job outcomes such as improved job satisfaction, job stress, and health (Macan et al., 1990; Nonis and Sagar 2003; Nonis et al., 2005; Schuler, 1979). However, most of this literature is focussed on western cultures (mainly North America and Northern Europe) which are largely low context monochronic cultures (Nonis et al., 2011). Thus, the empirical evidence on the positive relationship between time management and their correlates is mainly limited to Western cultural environment where such effects "can be easily assumed" (Noni et al., 2005). Given the differences in cultural perceptions on time and communication, the findings from such studies on western cultural environments cannot be generalised to non-western cultural environments. Important, these non-western cultural environments (such as Middle Eastern, Asian, African) have different perceptions and therefore, meaning of time (Harvey & Kamoche, 2004; Hall, 1983; Khan & Law, 2018; Mopfu et al., 1996) which has implications on firm performance. This creates a research opportunity to investigate the extent to which the findings in western cultural environments could be generalised to non-western contexts. In short, the claims of a relationship between time management and job or firm performance are yet to be fully investigated in non-western cultures.

1.1 Understanding Time Management

Generally, time management refers to the development of processes and tools that increase efficiency and productivity. Time management represents the act or process of exercising conscious control over the amount of time spent on specific activities, especially to increase effectiveness, efficiency or productivity (Ahmad et al., 2012; Lucchetti, 2010). This act or process may be aided by a range of skills, tools, and techniques that can be utilized in order to manage time when accomplishing specific tasks, projects and goals. The tasks needed to be accomplished encompass a wide scope of activities which include planning, allocating, setting goals, delegation, and analysis of time spent, monitoring, organizing, scheduling, and prioritizing (Allen, 2001). In other words, time management is about organizing tasks or events which involves the estimation of how much time a task will take to complete, when it must be completed and adjusting events accordingly that could interfere with task completion so as to ensure appropriate amount of time is spent (Adeojo, 2012; Forsyth, 2003). According to Forsyth (2003), time management involves working actively to create efficiency and effectiveness in a way that makes achieving targets or deadlines more likely.

The need to manage time arises from its nature as a limited resource (Osawe, 2017). Time is universally static irrespective of geographic location which makes it a limited (or precious) resource. In addition, "time is one of the fundamental bases on which all cultures rest and around which all activities revolve" (Hall & Reed, 1990, p. 179). Its effective and efficient management could lead to better performance (Nonis et al., 2011). As a scarce resource within organizations, its effective and efficient utilization can contribute to organizational competitiveness. According to Ward (2003, p.19), in business, time management "has morphed into everything from methodologies such as enterprises and resources planning through consultant services such as professional organizers". Further, Paul and Stroll (2006) state that when considering time management, leadership plays a major role. As an organisational resource, it's the responsibility of leaderships to ensure that managing time effectively leads to the achievement of organisational goals.

Further, a distinction can also be made between effective time management and time management. The former refers to a situation where high performance is expected by managers and therefore effective time management is the tool used to achieve that expectation. The latter (i.e. time management) is already prevalent within an organisation but may be surrounded with inadequacies. In other words, effective time management goes beyond influencing the productivity of employees to aiding in coping with stress, conflicts and pressure more efficiently (Osawe, 2017). Thus, effective time management has the additional benefit of promoting and maintaining a healthy work-life balance which could contribute to employees' motivation. Put simply, while time management refers to managing time effectively so that the right time is allocated to the right activity, effective time management, on the other hand, allows individuals to assign specific time slots to activities based on their importance (Forsyth, 2003). In this context, effective time management demands a good sense of management and organization in the work life of both the managers and the employees (Osawe, 2017). As a result, good effective time management should be a core skill for management (Forsyth, 2003). This skill can be a key differentiating factor that allows management to have an edge/lead over subordinates (Williams & Cooper, 2002).

Therefore, an attempt to explore the correlation between time management and job outcomes through a cross-cultural study could foster insight into how District Assemblies might improve organisational performance in Ghana. Although the basic operational functions and scope of District Assemblies are similar throughout the country, there are some distinctive features which are based on specific country culture. In other words, there are sociocultural differences that impact on time management, despite time being a crucial factor for any organisational success regardless of the size, type and operations of an organisation (Macan et al., 1990; Nonis & Sagar 2003).

The importance of time management within governmental organisations arises because they conduct various projects according to their aims and objectives; and these projects have close association with time schedules and management. Like every other project, these District Assemblies projects also have specific deadlines and scheduling. Understanding the association between polychromic time culture, as practiced in the District Assemblies and monochromic time cultures as practiced in the Western cultures could enhance knowledge and understanding of how District Assemblies in Ghana might improve their organisational performance. As Ghebre (2003) observed “one of the most non-renewable resources most of us have in our lives is time. No matter how hard we work, or how much we strive to accomplish, time is always our enemy. However, learning to get a handle on time can be one of the first steps we take in our working lives. Understanding the importance of time management is an important step". This perspective supports the notion that time is of essence and that it needs to be managed well and systematically (Forsyth, 2003; Lucchetti, 2010).

Further, understanding time management in organisational settings can also be accomplished through inter-organisational innovations (Mandell & Steelman, 2010). This implies that utilization of key management strategies such as networks, collaborations and information technology may go a long way in assisting time management designed to accomplish organisational objectives. Indeed, having a goal-oriented strategy is quite critical in time management (Nonis et al., 2011).

In addition, when considering time management, the concept of leadership becomes critical (Paul & Stroh, 2006), good effective time management should be a core skill for management (Forsyth, 2003). As such, it is often suggested that organisations are driven by leadership and that the quality of leadership greatly affects time management and the resultant organisational performance (Bass 2008; Bensimon, 2013; Cummings, 2013). However, while this is true in terms of tact, power and influence, there are other considerations which would affect organisational performance, for instance, the perception of subordinates to perceive time management as a motivational factor (Kaufman & Scarborough, 2017).

1.2 Rationale of the Study

Time management is critical for organisational success (Nonis et al., 2011). It is necessary for any organisation to carry out its operations effectively. However, the time management practices are contextual, affected by culture and other factors such as leadership. Studies that have shown the relationship between time management practices and organisational performance have focussed mostly on monochronic western cultural environments (Claessens et al., 2007; Miqdadi et al., 2014; Njagi & Malel, 2012; Nonis et al., 2011). In such environments, time is viewed as a commodity to be controlled (Nonis et al., 2011). However, in high context cultures such as the Middle East, polychronic time perception is the norm where time is considered to be multi-dimensional and flexible (Korac Kakabadse et al., 2001). Therefore, from the outset, there are key cultural distinctions on perceptions and meaning of time between Western and non-Western cultural settings that could have implications on time management and its effect on job performance. With the increase in the global business operations and the interest of Western companies to do business in the Middle East, it becomes important to understand the factors that could affect the development of good business relationships. In the context of research, it becomes necessary to understand how polychronic time and monochronic time might be reconciled in order to improve performance of employees in organisations such as District Assembly.

The motivation to undertake this study was necessitated when the researcher observed these changes and thus, showed some interest in discovering the importance of time management in the Breman Asikuma District Assembly. Time management forms an important aspect of human resource management in any organisation (Bailey et al., 2018). In term of future outlook, over one quarter of the world's population is in South Asia and the Middle-East and therefore, the presence of Western businesses and District Assemblies in the country is most likely to increase in the near future (Nonis et al., 2005). Central to all the changes are the different kinds of human resource management practices in the organisations. Time management practices, which form an integral aspect of human resource management, have been chosen by the researcher for investigation. For instance, it would be interesting to discover how monochromic time practices (of western cultures) might influence polychromic time practices in District Assemblies and non-governmental organisations.

1.3 Problem Statement

Breman Asikuma District Assembly management has been facing a number of challenges including poor management of time, goal setting, establishing of priorities, budgeting the amount of time given to a particular activity and planning and scheduling the steps required for the accomplishments of goals. The principle and practice of time management embraces collaborations, partnership and networks involved in organisational performance (Ward, 2003; Mandell, 2010). Njagi and Malel (2012) argue that the effectiveness of organisations arises from the appropriate utilisation of one key resource, time. The management of time is fundamental to job performance. Time management typically involves goal setting, establishing priorities, budgeting the amount of time given to a particular activity and planning and scheduling the steps required for the accomplishments of goals (Allen, 2001; Lucchetti, 2011). Alan (2009) argues that the key to successful time management is planning and protecting the planned time, which often involves re-conditioning the environment, particularly the re-conditioning of expectation of others. The perception and meaning attributed to time could be viewed as either a mental construct (Macan, 1994), a social construct (Lewis & Weigert, 1981) or a behavioural issue (Hirschman, 1987). As such, understanding the importance of time attributed to activities is a complex undertaking. Time is an essential resource; it's irrecoverable, limited and dynamic (Osawe, 2017). As a valuable resource, unless it is managed properly, achievement of organisational goals can be difficult. Bregman (2013) described time as "a unique resource, it is indispensable, intangible, irreplaceable, irretrievable and therefore invaluable. It is equitably and uniformly distributed". Similarly, Osawe (2017, p. 154)) describes time is a "scarce resource and universal, which cannot be replaced by man…time cannot be accumulated like money, be stocked like raw materials nor be turned on and off like machine". Since time is biologically, socially and professionally determined, it follows, therefore, that time management requires both the person and the skill, tools and techniques to manage time.

According to Bregman (2013, p.8) biologically determined time pertains to "bodily functions, social pertains to self-sanity and social and professional pertains to professional activities such as time spent at work". As a result, it can be observed that time management should be viewed as embracing a holistic approach in its determinants. Effective time management involves analysing how organisations spend their time in deciding how to achieve their goals through organisational performance. As mentioned already, the problematic issues in this study involve reconciling monochromic time practices and polychromic time practices in the Middle Eastern context, with particular reference to Breman Asikuma District Assembly. Further, although time management can be perceived as essentially a matter of self-discipline, it is affected by external factors such as culture and the qualities of leadership that exist within an organisation. These aspects should be considered when examining the influence of time management practices on job or firm performance.

1.4 Research Aims

The aim of this study is to investigate the influence of time management practices on organisational performance in Breman Asikuma District Assembly using a multi-case study approach. As such, the study examines the time management strategies and approaches adopted by District Assemblies in Ghana and how these affect performance. As perceptions of time is culturally constructed, the study in exploring the time management practices in the governmental organisations also attempts to highlight and reconcile monochronic time practices and polychronic practices on organisational performance.

1.5 Research Objectives

The objectives of the research were to:

i. identify factors that influence time management behaviours in District Assemblies.

ii. explore monochronic and polychronic time perceptions in District Assemblies.

iii. determine the impact of time management practices on organisational performance in District Assemblies.

iv. highlight the influence of culture on time management practices and its impact on organisational performance.

v. explore the future development of time management practices.

1.6 Research Questions

The underlying question of the research is "what is the impact of time management practices on organisational performance of District Assemblies in Ghana?" Thus, the study aims to advance knowledge and understanding of the relationship between time management practices and key organisational objectives such as improved organisational performance and job satisfaction. The following research questions will help to direct the achievement of the above research objectives:

i. What are the factors influencing time management behaviours in District Assemblies in Ghana?

ii. Do the District Assemblies in Ghana use time management strategies based on monochronic time practices or polychronic time practices?

iii. What is the effect of the adopted time management practices on the District Assemblies' performance?

iv. What influence does culture have on the time management strategies in the District Assemblies?

v. How are the time management practices changing in District Assemblies in Ghana?

1.7 Significance of the Study

Time management is a concept that deals with the effective management of time. An individual should organise all his/her tasks and duties in accordance with the timings; when an individual, no matter what age group he is, no matter what job he/she is engaged in to implement all his/her functions in accordance with the time that makes him/her more disciplined, well organised and efficient. Time management provides every individual an opportunity to decide how to make use of this important source. It allows people to make the most of the least and it enhances ones knowledge about how to spend the time in a constructive manner. Time management is a skill and individuals should learn effective time management irrespective of their organisation in order to increase productivity.

Not many studies have been conducted in the past to provide managers with a sustainable remedy to the problem of time management and productivity, particularly in the District Assemblies in Ghana. This research aims to contribute to the existing gap in the literature by investigating whether Time Management Strategies put in place at the Breman Asikuma District Assembly are effective. There is potential for increasing theory development in this area because research investigating Effective Time Management and Organisational Performance strategies is limited. The research is justified by four major points: a gap exists in the literature; the importance and effectiveness of Effective Time Management Strategies; developing a conceptual framework as a contribution to theory and the potential applications of the research's findings.

The study identified and established key motivational variables and mostly influenced effective time management in the Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies in Ghana. The present study will highlight some of these costs in order for managers to appreciate the essence of effective time management on an on-going basis. The outcome of the study will significantly advance the frontiers of knowledge and add to the existing academic literature on Effective Time Management and Organisational Performance particularly in the context of Breman Asikuma District Assembly. The findings will also be useful in the formulation of Time Management policies and in reviewing existing ones. It is believed that the results of the study will inspire other researchers to investigate further areas that are not covered in this study.

1.8 Definition of Terms

Monochronic Time: Monochronic means doing one thing at a time.

Polychronic Time: Polychronic means doing many things at once.

1.9 Organisation of the study

The study is organised into chapters. The Chapter One presents the background against which this research has been undertaken, and hence provides the motivation for the research. The objectives and research questions are laid out in this chapter. Chapter Two reviews the literature concerning the research topic. Chapter Three outlines the research approach and the methodological standpoints taken in the research. It explains the method of data collection and techniques used for quantitative data analysis as well as the variables chosen for the questionnaires. The reliability and validity of the study were briefly discussed. Chapter Four presents a review of some of the statistics of the survey data. Chapter Five discusses the main findings that can be drawn from the research, the conclusion and the recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on time management. The section is focussed on giving some context by defining the key concepts used in this study. This is important as the study builds on this understanding in order to investigate the relationship between time management and firm performance. The definition of key terms is then followed by a discussion of the factors that influence time management. Then, the theories adopted in this research on time management are discussed. In order to understand the impact of time management on organisational performance on District Assemblies in Ghana, three different areas of literature are relevant. These are: literature on national culture, literature on international human resource management and literature on monochronic and polychronic time. This literature review is then followed by a review of some studies on organisational performance, leadership and strategic management in relation to time management.

2.1. Time

Time, which is known be used by everyone, is hard to define precisely with some inconsistency depending on whether from a scientific, philosophical, religious or artistic perspective. From a scientific perspective, for instance, it can be described as the progression of events from the past to the present into the future. It is perceived as the fourth dimension of reality that describes events in three-dimensional space (Richards, 1998).

The perspective, however, envisaged in this study is that time represents a period within which activities have to be undertaken. As such, time is a resource under one's control and sufficient to accomplish a given task. In this respect, time is a period during which actions or processes take place. From this perspective, time becomes a scarce resource that must be properly managed, otherwise nothing can be accomplished (Menzies, 2009). The supply of time is limited whilst its demand is always unlimited. However, unlike other organisational resources which are scarce, time can never be turned on or off or replaced or hoard like raw material. Time is a unique quantity a manager cannot store, rent or buy. Therefore, time is considered as an essential resource that is limited, scarce, dynamic and irrecoverable. Time flows at a predetermined rate regardless of circumstances and everyone is equally endowed with the same amount of it, irrespective of their status (Ziekye, 2016). As such, the management of this resource becomes imperative for successful task completion.

With respect to research on how individuals perceive and think about time, several perspectives have been provided. From psychophysical research, time is viewed as a mental construct which compares the perception of the time to 'clock' time (Macan, 1994). Sociological research, on the other hand, views time as a social construction, a convenience that cultures agree on (Lewis & Weigert, 1981) while behavioural research attempts to predict what individuals might do, their motives for thinking about time in a certain way and their related behaviour (Hirschman, 1987). Importantly, in all views about time, it's the perception of time, which then leads to temporal behaviours (Nonis et al., 2005). This perception of time is highly influenced by culture.

2.2 Time management

There is no universally accepted definition of time management as there is no agreement on its definition (Claessens et al., 2007). As a result, it has been defined and operationalized in a variety of ways (Claessens et al., 2007; Nonis et al., 2011; Davis, 2000). Time management has been defined as the process of planning, organising and exercising control over the amount of time spent on particular activities in order to increase effectiveness, efficiency or productivity (Ahmad et al., 2012; Lucchetti, 2010; Nonis et al., 2011). Time management is also defined as a systematic application of common-sense strategies and techniques to help people become more effective in both their personal and professional lives (Hisrich & Peters, 2002). Thus, for time management to be effective, it must be aided by a range of skills, tools and techniques so that targets may be reached. The tasks needed to be accomplished encompass a wide scope of activities which include planning, allocating, setting goals, delegation, monitoring, organizing, scheduling, and prioritizing (Allen, 2001).

According to Hisrich and Peters (2002) time management involves investing time to determine what one wants out of their activities. It is a process of using time in order to accomplish given tasks in an efficient and effective way using skills and instruments to achieve organisational tasks and goals. It has also been described as a method for managers to increase work performance effectiveness (Claessenset et al., 2009). Therefore, effective time management is the key to high performance levels and the latter are necessary for organisational success. Time management becomes thus, a process by which individuals can accomplish organisational tasks and goals (Frank, 1994; Randall, 1979). In addition, Ward

(2003) argues that time management is often thought of or presented as a set of time management skills. The theory is that once people master the time management skills, they will be more organised, efficient and productive.

However, according to Bregman (2013), the biggest and most distinctive myth in time management is to consider everything done if only a person follows the right system, uses the right time to do his/her tasks and in the right way. Thus, Bregman (2013) argues that this is a mistake because we live in a time when the stream of information and communication, demands reviewing our schedules from time to time. Ghebre (2012) observed that it is crucial to understand the importance of time management. Ghebre (2012) argues that one of the most non-renewable resource that most of us have in our lives is time. As a result, no matter how hard we work or how much people strive to accomplish, time is always the enemy. As such, learning to set a handle on time can be "one of the best steps people take in their working lives" (American Psychological Association (APA), 2019, p. 1). At the same time, understanding the importance of time management becomes an important step.

The above views demonstrate that time is of the essence and that it is a valuable resource designed to be used in a more controlled and profitable manner. Bevius and De Smet (2013) point out that time management is not just about productivity issue over which companies have no control; it has increasingly become an organisational issue whose root causes are deeply embedded in corporate cultures. As such, companies should ensure that individuals are given tools and incentives to manage their time effectively. It can also be added that time management has become an institutional practice since top management organisations are taking it seriously. Management is responsible for creating an environment that is conducive to the effectiveness of time management, setting priorities and making sure that activities around those priorities are carried out and reducing time spent on non-priorities.

The effect of time management has also been investigated on different aspects. These aspects include performance in work and academic settings such as sales performance (Barling et al., 1996); job performance (Abdullah et al., 2013); and academic performance (Burt & Kemp, 1994). Other aspects are the effects on attitudinal and stress-related outcomes such as perceived control of time (Davis, 2000); job satisfaction (Landy et al., 1991; Nonis et al., 2005); role overload (Burt and Kemp, 1994); job-related and somatic tension (Davis, 2000; Macan, 1994); work-family interference (Adams & Jex, 1999); strain (Jex & Elacqua, 1999); emotional exhaustion (Peeters and Rutte, 2005); and health (Bond and Feather, 1988). Claessens et al. (2009) highlight in their review that time management behaviours/activity relate positively to perceived control of time, job satisfaction and health and negatively to stress. Therefore, at an institutional level, management must develop more effective time management practices so as to enhance time management skills in the work place.

2.3 Organisational performance

The resultant impact of time management on the different aspects of organisational activities is the overall performance of the organisation. Therefore, the positive effect of time management on productivity, job performance, job satisfaction or motivation, for instance, should result in overall organisation performance (Abdullah et al., 2012; Claessens et al., 2009). The positive contributions of time management practices by employees on their productivity, efficiency and effectiveness in discharging activities leads to organisational success. Organisational performance could be captured or represented in different way. A quantitative way of expressing organisational performance could be through financial analysis. For instance, an organisation's market share, efficiency, profits or capital bases relative to competitors or changes over a period of time (Njagi & Malel, 2012; Osawe, 2017). A nonfinancial aspect could include service delivery, customer satisfaction, employee welfare, and other measures of productivity (such as reduced staff turnover, stress and health).

The measure of organisational performance is also dependent on the type of organisation. For instance, measures of organisational performance would be different from profit making organisations to non-profit making organisation. Thus, whilst financial analysis or aspects related to profitability would be suitable to profit-oriented organisations, these would not be appropriate for a non-profit making organisations. Other aspects of measuring organisational performance become necessary, therefore, for non-profit making organisation. The effectiveness of the organisations would be perceived as more important for such organisations, as performance is then judged in respect to their objectives and the impact that their activities have on beneficiaries (Ramadan & Borgonovi, 2015). In this respect, the effectiveness of an organisation is the extent to which, the use of certain resources, fulfils its objectives or desired goal without depleting its resources and without placing undue strain on its members and/or society (Ziekye, 2016, p. 4). In this study, the limited resource being 'time'. As such, it is the extent to which organisation manage their time in order to effectively fulfil their objectives.

The measurement of performance of District Assemblies activities is basically a systematic evaluation of a program's outputs, inputs and impacts (Ramadan & Borgonovi, 2015). Thus, as argued by Kareithi and Lund (2012), the paramount aim of District Assemblies should be focused on achieving goals desired by their targeted beneficiaries and their communities. As such, the District Assemblies' performance would then be assessed by their effectiveness and efficiency in achieving the mutually identified social goals. In order to assess their performance, District Assemblies generally create performance indicators and gather information that is related to these indicators (Ramadan & Borgonovi, 2015). According to Teelken (2008), the most utilised performance indicators for District Assemblies operations are efficiency, effectiveness, economy and efficacy while Carman (2007) identified efficiency, effectiveness, fundraising, costs, audits and beneficiaries' satisfaction. Benjamin and Misra (2006) argue that measuring performance in District Assemblies should focus on inputs, outputs, outcomes and impact. This understanding guides the development of organisational performance in this study. The aim is directed at what is suitable or appropriate to the case studies used in the research so as to fully address the research objectives.

2.4 Theories on time management

Time management literature has lacked a general theorisation (Claessens et al., 2009; Nonis et al., 2005). Some theoretical contributions, nonetheless, have been made towards understanding how time management works (e.g. Britton & Glynn, 1989; Huang & Zhang, 2001; Macan, 1994). The theoretical understanding of how time management works could then be used to suggest how it could be improved.

In the contribution by Britton and Glynn (1989), time management is visualised in terms of three elements: macros, medium and small levels. In Britton and Glynn's (1989) theoretical contribution, the macro level refers to the choice and prioritization of goals while the medium level involve tasks related to the creation of goals and sub-targets. The small level element then consists of design and implementation. Macan's (1994) theoretical contribution also perceived time management as a multi-dimensional construct consisting of four dimensions: setting of time goals and priorities, mechanics of time management, preference for organisation and perceived control over time. Of the four dimensions, setting of time goals and priorities, mechanics of time management and preference for organisation are time management behaviours while perceived control over time is a time attitude that is an outcome of engaging in time management behaviour (Macan, 1994; Nonis et al., 2005). Similarly, Huang and Zhang's (2001) theoretical model comprises of three dimensions of mental structure and multiple levels. The three dimensions of mental structure are: behaviour, time management, and the sense of the value of time. These three dimensions encompass two levels: the social value of time-orientation and time-oriented individual value. Huang and Zhang (2001) perceive time management as a kind of temperament attribute which makes it possible to be reflected as a means of utilising and managing ones' time. Thus, the three theoretical models of Britton and Glynn (1989), Macan (1994), Huang and Zhang (2001) provide examples of attempts to conceptualise time management.

Further to the conceptualisation of time management, some theories have been proposed in order to aid the understanding of the importance of time management in organisations and everyday life. The most common theories are pickle jar theory, Pareto's principle: 80/20 rule and Parkinson's Law. The pickle jar theory explains how relatively unimportant tasks or commitments can easily take up much of a person's time (Rivera, 2007). The theory is useful in explaining the need for identification of important tasks that should be prioritised in individual or organisational tasks. Similar to the pickle jar theory, the Pareto's principle: 80/20 rule postulates that approximately 20% of the activities that yield the highest benefits and consume 80% of the time should be prioritised (Koch, 2011). The principle is that individuals need to concentrate more on the important tasks/activities (20%) which give the highest results.

The Parkinson's Law proposes reducing the time assigned to each task (Rivera, 2007). This is based on the proposition that the time required to complete a task will expand according to the amount of time it is allotted. The theory states that less time allocated to a task can lead to better, more effective work.

2.5 Factors that Influence Time Management Behaviours in Small Organisations

Time management behaviour is influenced by several factors (Claessens et al., 2007; Onken, 1999). Understanding these factors is important as it forms the basis for evaluating how time management could be enhanced or restrained. As this study focusses on District Assemblies in Ghana, the factors that are particularly relevant to small (and non-profit making) organizations are considered. The importance of understand the factors which influence time management practices in District Assemblies lies in the pursuit of these organisations to achieve goals desired by their targeted beneficiaries and their communities. Time management practices have a significant effect on reaching organizational outcomes, particularly during critical or tough times. In this respect, McNamara (2010) argues that effective time management is required in boosting business resilience during tough times. It is therefore, an essential success factor for small business success. This perspective is relevant to non-governmental organisations too. Further, time management behaviours could be studied at an individual or organizational level (within and across the hierarchy). This research adopts the wider organization level perspective of time management, which is therefore, not limited to top management (executive or managers) but to all the employee. The major factors that influence time management behaviours include: individual characteristics and skills factors, work life balance, organisational factors, internal and external environments, information technology and cultural factors.

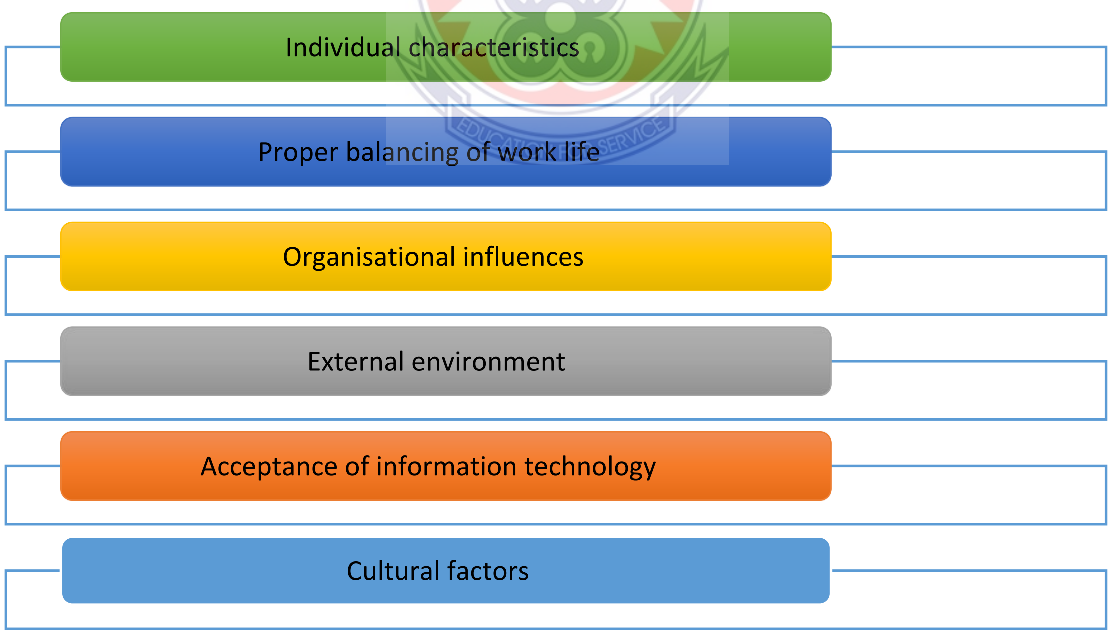


Figure 2.1: ***Influencing factors for time management in the small organisations***

2.5.1 Personal characteristics and skills

Factors that are based on personal characteristics encompass such personality traits as charisma, confidence and self-confidence, extraversion or introversion (McNamara, 2010). Skills include organisational abilities, self-discipline, punctuality and initiative (Hogarth et al., 2001). It is argued that possession of the above skills influences good time management. According to Macan (1996) there is a positive correlation between personal characteristics and skills and good time management. Those who possess cognitive skills tend to have a propensity to do things in a morel planned and orderly way and that they regard time as urgent. Pansiri and Temtime (2010) observed that age, experience and capability are other factors that have a positive bearing on a manager's time management behaviours.

2.5.2 Work-life balance factors

If employee well-being is regarded as both a product of work and non-work activities then it becomes clear that an imbalance between an employee's work and personal life is likely to be a source of stress and, potentially, ill-health (Wilton, 2011). Thus, if there is a balance between work and social life, an employee is likely to manage their time in a more planned and orderly manner. There has been a growing recognition in recent years of the importance of employee well-being to individual performance. The adverse effects of an unbalanced work and like ratio have been associated with such negative outcomes as relationship breakdowns, stress, fatigue and burnout (Brown et al., 2010; McNamara, 2010).

Therefore, taking up work-life balance initiatives is a factor that is likely to contribute towards high performance in the organisation. A healthy employee is a satisfied employee who is likely to perform his/her duties and responsibilities on time. Therefore, effective time management requires the management of work-life balance which encompasses policies and practices that allows some flexibility with respect to hours of work, allow people to work from home and provide work place facilities which will enable employees to attend work on time (Brown et al., 2010). Employee work-life balance increases better individual demands. It also leads to effective time management practices.

Work-life balance is arguably most appropriate to employees with social, personal and professional responsibilities particularly in highly gendered societies like Ghana. For instance, the fundamental role of Ghana women is perceived as maintaining their home, including caring for their children and husbands (Hamdan, 2006). With such constructs of gender, maintaining a professional working life and personal family responsibilities raises challenges. It becomes imperative, therefore, that flexible working should be available so as to reduce levels of stress and ill-health. According to Hogarth et al. (2001) there is significant agreement among employers about the benefits of providing for greater work-life balance through the provision of flexible working practices. One such benefit is the increase that can be accrued on productivity due to effective time management.

2.5.3 **Organisational Factors**

Every organisation, large or small has an impact on time management. The smaller the organisation is, the more opportunities are for effective time management. Pansiri and Temtime (2010) discovered that there is a correlation between the size of an organization and effective time management. Pansiri and Temtime (2010) argue that small to medium size organisations may require considerably more 'hands on' activity than do larger enterprises.

Where project management is required, time management becomes a necessity as it determines the project completion time and scope. Another area where time management provides a challenge is when secondments and assignments are involved.

2.5.4 **Environmental Influences**

Both internal and external environmental factors play a major role in influencing time management practices (McNamara, 2010). Internal environmental factors include good industrial relations, attractive salary and other fringe benefits, a democratic style of leadership, adequate financial resources and good communication channel between management and the work force, the availability of the forgoing lead to job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2017). Thus, there is a positive correlation between job satisfaction and effective time management (Nonis & Sagar 2003). A satisfied employee is likely to show greater enthusiasm in the work place. This would contribute towards an employee's good time management. External environmental factors that may influence employee time management behaviours include the availability of a good transport system from home to the work place (McNamara, 2010). Industry competition, customer demand issues and government regulations are other factors that contribute towards effective time management (Arnold & Pulich, 2004). The desire to achieve a competitive advantage as well as increase market share will enable both managers and employees to improve their time management techniques.

2.5.5 The Impact of Information Technology

Technological advancement in recent years has had some impact on time management behaviours. In this respect, McNamara (2010, p. 5) argues that "the widespread uptake of technology by small business has witnessed high usage of computers and other electronic communication devices have informed some aspect of business performance". It can strongly be argued indeed that the arrival of the internet with its provisions of e-mails, twitter, Facebook and blogs has led to the improvement in the working life of managers and employees with respect to their time management.

2.6 Factors that Influence Time Management Behaviours in Breman Asikuma District Assembly

Time is the most vulnerable asset in any organization (Miqdadi et al., 2014; Njagi and Malel, 2012; Nonis et al., 2011). In the Breman Asikuma District Assembly specifically, time management is considered as one of the major responsibilities that is essential for these organizations to provide proper services to the society (Harris and White, 2018). Apollon (2014) argues that, nowadays, people working in the corporate world are more frustrated over the loss of time than lack of money. On the other hand, time pressure also has several ill effects on the body. According to Christensen et al. (2015) man comes under most stress when they have to follow the diabolical triangle. This theory postulates that in any organizational performance, the job done is evaluated under three aspects or three poles. These are: the objectives that need to be attained; the quality or the parameter set for attainment of the target; and lastly, the duration in which the task is to be accomplished (Christensen et al., 2015). However, these constraints follow in any context also. In case of

household work, for instance, the same three criteria follow. Thus, the question may be raised as to what makes the organizational context different? It can be replied that in the modern companies (profit making as well as nonprofit organizations) the workplace culture forces the individual employees to function better, faster and with lower remunerations.
Therefore, the aforementioned criteria under the diabolical triangle become all the more critical and challenging to maintain.

The nonprofit making organizations, however, do not make the situation such critical for the employees working there. Moreover, with particular reference to Breman Asikuma District Assembly, these receive the patronage of the government and influential personalities of the state. Hence, it becomes easy for the managers of these organizations to fulfill their charity work. The District Chief Executives are also able to ascertain the charitable goals of the Assembly without focusing too much attention on the monetary limitations. However, it may seem that time management is completely an off-context thing for any District/Municipal and Metropolitan Assemblies. However, if studied in depth, time management in the District Assembly is more critical. First of all, the organizations are not working here for the fulfillment of only their organizational goals. They have the responsibility of the society as a whole (Röpke, 2017). Again, since the District Assembly receive so much financial aid from the Government, the expectations from them are also high. Thus, the work pressure on these Assemblies is also equally high. Secondly, at times it happens that due to lack of immediate commercial goals, the employees working for non-profit seeking organizations are not as dedicated as corporate (profit oriented) employees (Ramadan and Borgonovi, 2015). Hence time management policies and principles are of utmost importance for their personal and professional regime.

Building on the discussion in the above section, the basic factors that tend to influence the time management behaviour in the District Assembly can be categorized as:

1. Macro and micro environment
2. Personal traits and mental happiness level of the employees
3. Efficiency level of the social welfare skills possessed

It is critical to have job satisfaction in a workplace (Landy et al., 1991; Nonis et al., 2005). Time constraint (deprivation) is one of the major factors that kills job satisfaction of employees (Degens et al., 2017). In the modern world, organizational goals and performance are constantly monitored for both planning and decision making. The more information that is available, the greater the strength of the organizational database and the more reliable for future decision making. Hence, an employee is constantly occupied with the flow of data that needs to be assembled and accommodated. In this context, data management is coherent with time management.

Another important concept that may be introduced with respect to District Assemblies is the concept of importance versus urgency (Drucker, 2012). One key distinction is that corporate employees are always faced by an urgency since their activities are highly associated with organizational progress. On the other hand, Government employees are not driven by urgency. The importance of their work drives them. However, this same concept can be a source of effective weaponry for time management for District Assemblies employees also.

This is because the urgency of the employees in a profit-making organization is due to the parameters set to them by somebody else. Hence, their personal attachment to their immediate goals is nothing. On the contrary, the employees in nonprofit organizations are not set any work targets by others. The tasks that seem more relevant or most beneficial to the community or society are deemed as more important.

Hence, the employee should possess good personal skills such as self-discipline, extraversion and punctuality. As argued by Dumetz (2016), positive personal characteristics have an important role as these are very essential for earning good time management skills.

The Influences of Cultural Factors

National cultures are one of the major factors that influence time management behaviours. In general, a person tends to behave according to society's values, habits and norms (Cleveland et al., 2016). In other words, social interactions have a strong bearing on culture which in turn has a strong influence on time management behaviours. In order to understand how cultural factors influence time management behaviours, a theoretical discussion of national cultures is imperative. In this respect, there are several conceptualisations of national culture. The most notable contributions are Hofstede's cultural dimensions, Trompenaars' cultural dimensions and Hall's cultural dimensions. Each cultural conceptualisation has its own way of defining and explaining national cultures.

Time management trends depend significantly on the national culture and the socio ethical standards in any state. Mandell and Steelman (2010) argue that understanding the implications and applications of cultural factors is an important step in allowing managers to understand the importance of time management behaviours. Similarly, Bolton et al. (2014) suggest that the main factors of national culture are essential in order to understand the way that culture affects time management practices.

2.6.1 National Culture

Culture is a "notoriously difficult term to define" (Spencer-Oatey and Franklin, 2012). Indeed, several definitions of culture exist in the literature (Cleveland et al., 2016; Connell, 2014; McCarthy, 2005). These definitions also reflect the diverse set of perspectives and applications of the term (Cleveland et al., 2016; Grossberg, 2013; Liu, 2014) which explains the difficulty in defining the terms. Tylor (1871) provides one of the earliest conceptualisation of culture as "that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society". Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952, p. 181) identified 164 different definitions of culture in their critical review of the concept, and note that:

> "patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiment in artefacts; the essential core of the culture consists of traditions (i.e., historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may, on the other hand, be considered as products of action, on the other, as conditioning elements of future action".

This understanding of culture brings a number of aspects to light including, for instance, the way culture is transmitted (i.e. by symbols) and its constituents (i.e. traditional ideas, values). Subsequent definitions of culture can be observed to have captured some aspects of Tylor's (1871) and Kroeber and Kluckhohn's (1952) definitions. Hamblin (1978, p. 6) defines culture as "a set of beliefs, objects and events acquired by individuals as members of society" whilst (Hofstede, 1980, p. 25) defines it "as the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another". Heine (2015), on the other hand, provides a two-part definition of culture. The first part views culture as information (e.g. beliefs, habits, ideas) which is learned from others and is capable of influencing behaviour while the second part perceives culture as the shared context and experiences of a group of people. In a similar vein, Matsumoto (2009, p. 5) defines culture as:

> "a unique meaning and information system, shared by a group and transmitted across generations, that allows the group to meet basic needs of survival, by coordinating social behaviour to achieve a viable existence, to transmit successful social behaviours, to pursue happiness and well-being, and to derive meaning from life"

UNESCO (2001, p. 62) has defined culture "as the set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of society or a social group, and that encompasses, in addition to art and literature, lifestyles, ways of living together, value systems, traditions and beliefs". These definitions, in short, recognise that culture is a process that involves people, and thus, does not develop out of a vacuum. It is essentially the people that shape and define culture. Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) summarise culture as a shared system of meanings which dictates what we pay attention to, how we act and what we value.

Culture has also been viewed by some scholars (Munjeri, 1998; Richards, 1996; SpencerOatey, 2008; Thiaw, 1998) as pertaining to the way people perceive, think and evaluate the world, themselves and others in it. This view of culture puts the individual within his/her surroundings. This is important as individuals' perception of life is also significantly affected by the surrounding environment (Munjeri, 2004; Spencer-Oatey, 2008; Thiaw, 1998). Thus, the social environment not only impacts the individual but that the individuals also have a role to play in constructing that environment. Culture is therefore, viewed as a learned process where the cognitive capabilities of groups arise from the interactions with others within a particular social group (Richards, 1996; Munjeri, 2004). In short, "culture is learned, not inherited. It derives from one's social environment, not from one's genes" (Hofstede, 1991, p. 5). As a learned concept, there are distinctiveness in cultural aspects from one generation to another.

The different conceptualisation of culture is discussed next.

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

Geert Hofstede is one of the most significant contributors to the body of knowledge on culture. His work largely resulted from a large scale research programme involving employees from the IBM Corporation, initially in 40 countries. In focusing on one organisation, Hofstede felt the result could be more clearly linked to national cultural difference. Hofstede initially identified four dimensions of culture: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism and masculinity (Muslims, 2006). A fifth dimension was added in 1991 based on research by Michael Bond and Geert Hofstede on Chinese value survey. The fifth dimension based on confucian dynamism is long term orientation (Hofstede, 2012). Hofstede's cultural dimension may be used to analyse and understand the effect of national culture on time management behaviours. It's a useful model to understand cross-cultural communication (Nonis et al., 2005).

The five dimensions are explored further below:

- **Power distance index (PDI)**

As Hofstede (2012) mentions, this dimension expresses the degree to which the less powerful members of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. The issue here is how a society handles inequalities among people. In societies exhibiting a large degree of power distance, people accept a hierarchical order which is in place and which needs no further justification. In societies with low power distance, people strive to equalise the distribution of power and demand justification for inequalities of power.

- **Individualism versus collectivism (IDV)**

In this dimension, individualism can be defined as a preference for a loosely knit social framework in which individuals expect their relatives or members of a particular group they belong to, to look after them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. The position of society on this dimension is reflected in whether people's self-image is defined in terms of "I" or "WE".

- **Masculinity versus femininity (MAS)**

In society, the masculinity side of the dimension represents a preference in achievement, heroism, assertiveness and material reward for success. Society at large is more competitive. The opposite, femininity stands for a preference of cooperation, modesty, caring for the weak and quality of life. The society at large is more consensus-oriented.

- **Uncertainty avoidance (UAI)**

This dimension expresses the degree to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity. The question here is how a society deals with the fact that the future can never be known: should we try to control the future or just let it happen? Countries that exhibit strong UAI maintain rigid codes of belief and behaviour and are intolerant of unorthodox behaviour and ideas. Societies with a weak UAI maintain a more relaxed attitude in which practice counts more than principles.

- **Long term versus short term orientation (LTO)**

This can be interpreted as dealing with society's search for virtue. Here, societies with a short term orientation generally have a strong concern with establishing the absolute truth. They are normative in their thinking. They exhibit great respect for traditions, a relatively small propensity to save for the future, and focus on achieving quick results (Hofstede, 2012). On the other hand, in societies with long term orientation, people believe that the truth lies very much on situation, context and time. They show an ability to adapt traditions to changed conditions, a strong propensity to save and invest, and perseverance in achieving results.

Hofstede's cultural dimensions could be useful applied to understand the effect of national culture on time management behaviours. The first concept, with respect to time management, is the power distance index of time distribution. From this conception, the value attributed to time is relevant mostly for the financially affluent and the most resourceful persons of society. These implicitly use their time and money to purchase the time of others. The social inequalities and the personal positions of individuals in the society are responsible for this.

However, Maleki and De Jong (2014) argue that the Hofstede's dimension of individualism versus collectivism is more applicable when thinking about time management. Individualism can be perceived as the personal preference of individuals in the society by virtue of which they choose to remain in a loosely knit time frame. They try to restrict the time stress from coming upon themselves. In contrast, collectivism is the phenomenon where individuals expect a set of subordinates or followers to perform under a constrained time frame. They expect unquestionable loyalty from the other members.

The cultural conception that follows next is masculinity versus femininity. Masculinity is usually expected to perform tasks under great liability to society. Femininity is generally deprived or refrained from the time rush. However, as Gómez-Rey et al. (2016) argue, in District Assemblies, the cultural theory that is most applied is the long-term aspect versus the short term aspect. On the other hand, in profit making organizations, usually short term or immediate goals are achieved by a cognitive framework of men with similar skills. However, on the contrary, Goodrich and De Mooij (2014), suggest that in the District Assembly, the Managers focus on the achievement of long-term goals based on the personal skills of the executives.

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's Dimensions of Culture

Along with Charles Hampden-Turner, Trompenaars developed a model of differences in national cultures. This model includes seven dimensions which are believed to have shed light on how people in different national cultures interact with each other. They are: universalism versus particularism, individualism versus collectivism, neutral versus emotional, specific versus diffuse, achievement versus ascription, sequential versus synchronic timing and internal versus external control (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 2009). These are explained further below:

- **Universalism versus particularism**

The Universalist approach is roughly: "What is good and right can be defined and always applies". In particularistic cultures far greater attention is given to the obligations of relationship and unique circumstances. For example, instead of assuming that the one good way must always be followed, the particularistic reasoning is that friendship has special obligations and hence may come first. Less attention is given to abstract societal codes (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997).

Individualism versus collectivism

"Do people regard themselves primarily as individuals or primarily as part of a group?" Furthermore, is it more important to focus on individuals so that they can contribute to the community as if they wish, or is it more important to consider the community first since that is shared by many individuals? (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997).

Neutral versus emotional

"Should the nature of our interactions be objective and detached, or is expressing emotion acceptable?" In North America and North-West Europe business relationships are typically instrumental and all about achieving objectives. The brain cheeks emotions because they are believed to confuse the issues. The assumption is that we should resemble our machines in order to operate them more efficiently. Further south and in many cultures, business is a human affair and the whole range of emotions deemed appropriate. Loud laughter, banging your fist on the table or leaving a conference room with anger during a negotiation is all part of business (Trompenaars and HampdenTurner, 1997).

Specific versus diffuse

"How far too we get involved?" this is the degree to which responsibility is specifically assigned or is diffusely accepted. In a specific culture, people first analyse the elements individually and then put them together, the whole is the sum of its parts. People's lives are divided accordingly and only a single component can be entered at a time. Interactions between people are very well defined. Specific individuals concentrate on hard facts, standards and contracts. A diffusely oriented culture starts with the whole and sees individual elements from the perspective of the total. All elements are related to one another. Relationships between elements are more important than individual elements (Trompenaars and Hmapden-Turner, 1998).

Achievement versus ascription

"Do we have the prove ourselves to receive status or is it giving to us?" This is the degree to which individuals must prove themselves to receive status versus status simply given to them. In a culture with achieved status, people derive their status from what they have accomplished. On the other hand, in a culture with ascribed status, people derive their status from birth, age, gender and wealth. Here status is not based on achievement, but it is accorded on the basis of the person being (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998).

- **Sequential time versus synchronic time**

"Do we do things one at a time or several things at once?" This is the degree to which individuals do things one at a time versus several things at once. Cultures developed their own response on time. Time orientation has two aspects: the relative importance cultures assign to the past, present and future, and their approach to structuring time. In a sequential culture, people structure, people structure time sequentially and do things one at time. In a synchronic time culture, people do several things at once, believing time is flexible and intangible (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998).

- **Internal versus external control**

"Do we control our environment or work with it"? This is the degree to which individuals believe the environment can be controlled versus believing that the environment controls them. In an internal directed culture, people have a mechanistic view of nature; nature is complex but can be controlled with the right expertise. People believe that humans can dominate nature, if they make an effort. On the other hand, in an external directed culture, people have an organic view on culture. Here mankind is viewed as one of nature's forces and should therefore live in harmony with environment. People therefore adapt themselves to external forces (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998).

Trompenaars discussed the variation of time management in the light of his social analysis. The first concept introduced by him is universalism versus particularism. The believers of universalism rely on a general set of conception that can be applied without any modification. They are particularly people who serve lower job roles. Whereas, Zhang et al. (2015) opines that the particularism is practiced by executives and managers who circumnavigate their ideas and conceptions to formulate new practices. They set down the rules which people follow universally. Universalists have another negative aspect also. They cannot differentiate or prioritize among their personal, professional and immediate needs. However, the particularists keep their job roles separate. They generally tend to keep their personal and private life separate from their professional priorities. Particularists employ much more time in policy making. They take lesser time in execution of ideas. However, universalists first act and then think hence they invest more time in acting than thinking.

The next concept introduced by Trompenaars is the idea of Individualism versus Communitarianism. Individualist prefers to act singly. They neither prefer to include more people in their neither work, nor do they want to follow others footsteps. On the other hand, the communitarians always want to remain associated with people. They love socializing. Now according to the opinion of Park (2015), individualism teaches the value of time to men in the best manner. Men never waste time if they follow this principle. Whereas, Piri et al. (2017) had opined that about 71% of the people in this world love to socialize and generally consult others in important assignments. Being extrovert keeps man happy. The immense popularity of social platforms like FaceBook or Whatsapp bears evidence of the fact that major amount of people in the world love to socialize. In this regard, Rahim (2017), had opined that man cannot achieve a greater aim without the help or participation of others.

After that comes the concept of neutral versus Emotional. Neutral people are more focused to their immediate goals. They are generally not concerned with the aftermath of any action. Cultures of Japan, England, and Ireland and so on are predominantly neutral cultures.

However, as Shuter et al. (2016) suggest, the emotional kind of people are open minded. They gain strength by connecting emotionally with people. Thus, they think much about the pros and cons of any task. Emotional people think too much about how their actions would affect others. They invest a lot of time by doing this.

Two other categories of people are those, which are considered as the specific people and diffused people. Specific people share their public space with lot of people. However, they do not allow them to enter their personal space. Now, people spend maximum time in their personal space. Since, these people have few people who share their personal space, they invest much time in their professional world, which is their public space. Corporate personalities are likely of this kind. However, the diffused people share their public and personal space with equal number of people. Hence, they spend more personal time. Thus, the output which they produce in their professional place is also lesser. The employees of nonprofit making organizations like NGOs are more of this kind. According to Vitell et al. (2016) the kind of work in NGOs requires professionals to interact with a lot of people closely. Hence, they share personal space with large amount people.

The category recognizes the sequential and synchronic people. According to Wang et al. (2016) the sequential culture makes men fond of leading lives in an organized way. Such people are more concerned about the weightage of success and failure in their personal lives. They give topmost priority to punctuality in their lives. They plan, schedule and always remain specific about the task in hand and generally prefers to work within deadlines.

However, synchronic people always prefer to take up multiple assignments at the same time. They are flexible in their execution and rely on people to set parameter for them.

Hall's Cultural Factors

Hall used the concept of context to explain the differences in communication styles among cultures. According to him, the context is the information that surrounds an event; it is completely bound up with the meaning of that event. He categorized cultures on a scale from high to low context. (Treven et al., 2008). Hall used various aspects to focus on how men distribute their time for communicating with each other. Various communication styles across multiple cultures may be studied in this respect.

Context

- **High context**- In a high context culture, there are many contextual elements that help people to understand the rules. As a result, much is taken for granted. This can be very confusing for a person that does not understand the unwritten rules of culture.
- **Low context culture**- Here very little is taken for granted. Whilst this means that more explanation is needed, it also means there is less chance of misunderstanding particularly when visitors are present.
- Contrasting the two- French contracts tend to be very short (in physical length not time duration) as much of the information is available within the high context French culture. American content, on the other hand, is low context and so contracts tend to be longer in order to explain the detail. (Hall, 2012) Highly mobile environments where people come over and go need lower context culture. With a stable population, however, a higher context

culture may develop. Here there is a similarity with Trompenaars' Universalism (low context) and Particularism (high context).

- The cultures that may be studied in this regard are high culture and low culture contexts. In high context cases, people rely on many contextual factors for realizing the severity of any situation. They analysed the various frames of reference and decides their footsteps based on how the scenario impacts the other frames of reference. Any person who enters this culture from any foreign context will find it very difficult to identify the frames of reference and the ways in which the context matters for each frame of reference.
- Secondly, Hall focused upon the low context culture. In this case people do not concentrate upon the reference frames. Rather they tend to study the real scenario. Thus they take very little for granted. Hence, there are lesser chance of misinterpretation and misappropriation.
- A beautiful contrast between the high context and the low context culture is visible in the French culture and the American culture. According to the findings of Volery, Mueller and von Siemens (2015), this is why the French concentrate so much on detailing, ambience and impression of things. Their greeting styles, food habits, behavioural trends and everything else reflects that they rely on high context in any case. On the contrary, the American people never care much about the locale when execute something. In France, the population growth rate is stable for the last few decades. This is one major factor that gives birth to high end cultures. Whereas, according to the opinion of Vitell et al. (2016), in America, infiltration and immigration is one major issue. Thus, people hardly care for assessing the contextual frames of reference. Trompenaars' concept of Universalism and particularism is very similar to this concept of Edward Halls.

Space

In addition, Hall was concerned about space and peoples' relationship within it. He called this Proxemics. People have concerns about space in many situation, from personal body space to space in the office, parking space and space at home.

- The need for space - people in generally need space to varying degrees in different aspects of life. As such, there could be some who consider, for instance, personal space as very important such that anyone who encroaches into that space is seen as a threat or avoided. Personal space is an example of a mobile form of territory and people need less or greater distances between them and others. In addition, some people need bigger homes, bigger cars, bigger offices and so on. This may be driven by cultural factors. For example, Americans generally make greater use of space whilst Japanese need less space (partly as a result of limited useful space in Japan (Hall, 2012).

- High territoriality – Here, some people are more territorial than others with greater concern for ownership. They seek to mark out the areas which are theirs and perhaps having boundary wars with neighbours. This happens right down to desk-level, where co-workers may do battle over a piece of paper which overlaps from one person's area to another. At national level many wars have been fought over boundaries. Territoriality also extends to anything that is 'mine' and ownership concerns extend to material things. Security thus becomes a subject of great concern for people with a high need for ownership. People with high territoriality tend also to be low context (ibid).

- Low territoriality- In this case, people with lower territoriality have less ownership of space and boundaries are less important to them. They will share territory and ownership with little thought. They also have less concern for material ownership and their sense of 'stealing' is less developed (this is more important for highly territorial people). People with low territoriality tend also to be high context (ibid).

- Contrasting- Aboriginal people will say they belong to the land rather than the other way round. This is because they have thrived in harsh conditions for thousands of years. On the other hand, western society has shown much barbarity over the ownership of land (Hall, 2012).

In accordance to the cultural factors of Hall, it can be argued that space is about the situational aspect that is desired by the individuals in many contexts. For instance, space in office, space at home and personal space are the forms of space that are desired by individuals (Jolly et al., 2016).

- **The need for space**

The need for space can be demonstrated with an example of a Chinese person who needs less space, can stand closer to Japanese. However, the Japanese can be uncomfortable due to this fact. Personal space can be mentioned as the territorial form according to which, individuals need greater or less distances from other or between them.

- **High territoriality**

There are some individuals, who follow territoriality with compare to others in terms of greater concern of ownership. For instance, few employees at NGOs are associated with the viewpoint of achieving the ownership of a position that has been made out as their own and no other employee can take their place (Lister, 2016).

- **Low territoriality**

On the other hand, low territorial employees are those, who are less associated with the ownership of space. For instance, an employee, at an NGO, can be less concerned about the boundaries as the boundaries are less important for them.

- **Contrasting**

The contrasting of both high and low territoriality can be demonstrated with an example of Australian Aboriginal individuals. According to the Australian Aboriginal individuals, their belonging is from the land rather than another way around. It can be connected with the harsh conditions of Australian Aboriginal people for more than thousands of years. The western society has presented much more barbarity over the ownership of the land.

Hall focused that the individuals are associated with choosing and following their specific territories and they act according to their desired space. The employees, within both the business organisations and NGOs, want to have space from the different aspects such as space from colleagues or space for personal development at the organisation. Personal development space is essential in terms of making career growth within the same organisation. However, it is commendable that in business organisations, the employees are mostly associated with having space for personal growth that will help that individual in earning extra money or simply just financial incentives. In case of NGOs, the employees are mostly focused on having personal space for self-growth that will be effective in reaching to the upper level positions within the organisation (Waddell, 2017). For instance, at an NGO, an employee can have great concern for ownership of a position of manager and for another employee; the ownership of managerial position can be not that much important (Waddock and Bodwell, 2017). Thus, it can be said that different employees at NGOs, have both the respective great and less concerns about ownership.

Time as a Cultural Factor

It has been noted that cultural factors are powerful shapers of the business environment and one of the most influential of these is time management. Reference has been made about the two concepts of monochronic time and polychronic time. According to Hall (2012) monochronic time is the process of doing one thing at a time because time is precious, valuable and schedule-driven monochronic time assumes careful planning and scheduling. This theory is associated with the perception that 'time is money, use time or time will use you'. Monochronic people are mainly located in North America and Western Europe which are low context cultures.

Polychronic time is in essence doing too many things at one time because time is flexible and multi-dimensional. In such culture, human interaction is valid over time and material things, leading to a lesser concern for getting things done, they do get done but more in their own time. Polychronic people are largely found in the Middle-East, Asia, Africa and Latin America and they tend to be high context (Hall, 2012).

From the above, it can be established that Ghana is characterised by polychronic culture and it will be interesting to examine how this affects time management within the District Assemblies which form the case of this study. Drawing on the cultural conception of Hall (2012), it can be argued that time can be considered as one of the determinant cultural factors that can be applied in the organisations. Hall has presented that time can be subdivided into three aspects. They are monochronic time, polychronic time and the contrasting of these two times.

- **Monochronic time**

As the name suggests, monochronic time is associated with one thing at the single time. In terms of time management, one can make careful planning as well as scheduling for better management. When an employee is quite serious with their respective job role and responsibility, they will be efficient in their performance at the workplace. According to Abeysekera and Dawson (2015), for instance, an employee of an NGO can be more sincere and serious towards their respective job role and responsibilities by attempting a single job at a time. On the contrary, the employees are required to have the versatility of attempting more than one work at the single time in order to achieve personal growth within the organisation (Hanus and Fox, 2015).

- **Polychronic time**

Polychronic time is about the less concern of getting works done (Celik and Gumus, 2015). In this case, the employees make the work done but according to their own preferable time. The polychronic time following employees are the ones who take job responsibilities with less importance. For instance, it can be argued that an employee at an NGO can be less concerned about their respective job role and responsibilities (Dressler et al., 2015). On the contrary, one must have interpersonal skills that are essential to be an employee of an NGO is this involves great sense of sincerity and responsiveness for their specific job roles

(Jackson, 2015). Sincerity in terms of proper time management and responsiveness with provided job responsibility is crucial for the employees of NGOs as their work is partially associated with social service and responsibilities to the society. In this regard, the employee has to think about the overall contribution to the social needs of the society and the impact that their contribution makes. This might put the emphasis on the impact of the social service delivery instead of the management of time. Impact of service becomes more important than the need to manage time as some societal service delivery take longer to have an effect on the beneficiaries.

- **Contrasting**

The contrasting of the two times perspectives can be demonstrated with an example of an American and a French employee. Based on the western culture, an American has the culture of monochronic time and on the other hand, French is with the polychronic time culture (Gifford and Nilsson, 2014). Thus, it is commendable that in an NGO, there can be employees, who are having different culture of time in spite of working in the same organisation. For instance, an employee, who is less sincere and serious about the job role and responsibilities will be late at the board meeting by taking it as less important. On the other hand, an employee, who is much more sincere towards work responsibility will be arriving on time at the same board meeting.

Hence, it can be argued that the employees in NGOs follow time in respect to their cultural orientation as time is a cultural factor. Importantly, there are large numbers of employees in NGOs from different cultural background and orientations. Further, international integration of NGO activities means that more cross-cultural interaction and communication takes place in today's diverse range of NGOs. Understanding the implications of cultural influence on time management practices is important for effective cross-cultural communication. Time management is an effective force to NGOs' performance (Ramadan and Borgonovi, 2015) and thus, need to be promoted to every employee.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY OF DATA COLLECTION

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology used in the study which includes the description of the population and the sample. The measuring instruments used for data collection are discussed, focusing on their rationale, dimensions, validity and reliability. Also, procedure for data collection and the statistical techniques used relating to the research are described.

3.1 Research Design

The term research design and research methodology are often used interchangeably even by researchers to mean the same thing. The two terminologies are however different. According to Mouton and Prozesky (2005), Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005) as well as Ngabase (2013) fundamentally agree that a research design is a plan or a blue print of how a researcher intends to conduct a study. This involves plans for data collection, the instrument for gathering information, how information gathered would be processed and analysed to give meaning to a research finding. The design used for the study was a descriptive survey. This type of survey attempts to provide an accurate and objective description of a picture of an on-going situation or real-life situation. Strauss and Corbin (1990) cited in Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997) describe as studies whose findings are mainly the product of statistical summary and analysis. The choice of a descriptive research design for this study was informed by its primary strengths, by the researcher's epistemological and ontological positions, the nature of the study, research problem, questions to be answered, problem to be solving, and the type of data and analytical techniques needed to process the data. According to Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006) "the findings are generalizable and the data are objective". Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005) also assert that a quantitative research design is more scientific than a qualitative research design.

3.2 Research Method

The researcher used the survey strategy in order to assess the effectiveness of time management and organisational performance in the Breman Asikuma District Assembly. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005) refer to surveys as a method of data collection that utilises questionnaires or interview techniques for recording the verbal behaviour of respondents. Mouton and Prozesky (2005) also describe survey research strategy as involving the administration of questionnaire to a sample of respondents selected from some population. Therefore, a questionnaire was administered to respondents. Survey research is especially appropriate for descriptive research of this nature. In descriptive research, the research problem, according to Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005) is structured and well understood. The problem to be resolved through the research process is clear from the onset. This is in contrast to causal research which equally structures the problem under research but focuses on cause-and-effect problems (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005). The survey is an effective tool to get opinions, attitudes and descriptions as well as getting cause-and-effect relationships. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005) describe surveys and questionnaires as among the most popular data collection methods in business and social science research. Surveys are chiefly used in studies that have individual people as the units of analysis. Although

Mouton and Prozesky (2005) "note that surveys can also be used for other units of analysis such as groups or interactions, some individual persons must serve as respondents or informants." Mouton and Prozesky (2005) contend that "the survey research strategy is probably the best method available to the social scientist interested in collecting original data for describing a population too large to be observed directly." Mouton and Gronhaug (2005) reveal that "in surveys, a review of earlier research and literature is important to determine what kind of questions to be included in the questionnaire." Surveys are used to understand behaviours of employees with regard to motivation, job satisfaction, grievances among other phenomena. The survey method was chosen because survey research is designed to deal more directly with the nature of people's thoughts, opinions and feelings (Nicholas, 2007; Ngabase, 2013).

3.3 Target Population

According to Singh (2007), "Population is a group of individuals, objects, or items from among which samples are taken for measurement." A research population according to Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005) relate to the total universe of units from which the sample is to be selected. The target population the researcher used comprised all employees of the Breman Asikuma District Assembly. Questionnaires were distributed to sampled employees.

3.4 Sample Size

Bless & Higson-Smith (2000) define a sample as "a sub-set of a population which must have properties which make it representative of the whole". Similarly, Bryman and Bell (2003) refer to samples as the population that is selected for investigation. Samples involve collecting information from a portion of the larger group, and on this basis, infer something about the larger group (population). A representative sample is crucial to quantitative research and must reflect the population accurately so that inferences can be drawn. Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997), states that a sample will be representative of the population from which it is selected if the aggregate characteristics of the sample closely approximate those same aggregate characteristics in the population. Ngabase (2013) states that "samples involve collecting information from a portion of the larger group, and on this basis, infer something about the larger group (population)."

The sample should be large enough to allow inferences to be made about the population. A very small random sample may be quite unrepresentative and the same is true for a large non-random sample (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). A representative sample is crucial to quantitative research and must reflect the population accurately so that inferences can be drawn. Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997) argue that the ability to generalise from a sample of the population depends critically on the representativeness of the sample; otherwise, the sample becomes biased. Mouton and Prozesky (2005) describe a sampling bias to mean that those selected are not typical or representative of the larger population they have been chosen from. This could be as a result of over-representation of some segment of the population or the exclusion or under-representation of a significant segment. Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997) contend that a sample will be representative of the population from which it is selected if the aggregate characteristics of the sample closely approximate those same aggregate characteristics in the population.

Sample size is determined in part by practical constraints such as the number of the population, finance and the time available. Therefore, 292 questionnaires were administered out. The responses received were regarded as acceptable for most research purposes. The sample size was determined by the researcher using simple random sampling method.

Simple random sampling is one of the most popular types of random or probability sampling. In this technique, each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected as subject. The entire process of sampling is done in a single step with each subject selected independently of the other members of the population. One of the principal reasons for using a simple random design is the ease of assembling the sample. It is also considered as a fair way of selecting a sample from a given population since every member is given equal opportunities of being selected. Another key feature of simple random sampling is its representativeness of the population (Castillo (2009).

Breman Asikuma District Assembly skilled staff were categorised as administration, operations, technical and low skill staff such as cleaners and messengers. For the purposes of this study all skilled staff are included in the study because the features, strengths and weaknesses of Breman Asikuma District Assembly effective time management practices from a staff perspective is being investigated. Questionnaires were distributed to eligible personnel through hand delivery. A letter from the researcher describing the study and instructions was included in the packet. In the study the survey method was pursued for its ability to encompass the phenomenon on a larger scale.

Thus, there are limitations in this study and the results cannot be generalised to other District Assemblies and Ministries other than the Breman Asikuma District Assembly.

Struwig and Stead (2001) provide some factors that should be taken into consideration when deciding on a sample size:

One of the factors is a small sample will be sufficiently representative in a homogenous population. In such a case, a sample of one respondent would be enough to measure the characteristics of others. Conversely, a large sample will be required in a heterogeneous population. The researcher should therefore enlarge the sample in a heterogeneous population and contend with a small sample size where the population has the same characteristics. Also, the objectives of the research play a role in deciding the sample size that produces the right quality and quantity of information needed. Thus, in drawing a sample, the researcher ensured that the characteristics of the population were well represented in order to make meaningful inferences. Time and financial constraints limited the sample size to a manageable proportion even though a larger size was recommended. This, according to Bryman and Bell (2003) occurs whenever some members of the sample refuse to cooperate, cannot be contacted or cannot supply the required data. When the non – response rate is high, it is recommended that a larger sample size be used. Research designs that are less concerned with statistical accuracy (for example, qualitative, interpretative, exploratory etc.) typically do not draw large or random samples. However, the right size of the sample must be amenable to mathematical calculation especially in the case of random sampling techniques (Ngabase, 2013).

3.5 Sampling Error

A sampling error is therefore defined by Bryman and Bell (2003) as “the difference between a sample and the population from which it is selected even though a probability sample has been selected." Samples are selected by chance and any member of the population has the chance of being selected. Samples would therefore never be the same and would always produce some degree of differences even when the same questionnaire and instructions are given, the results would still be different. Sampling errors could not have been completely eliminated but was minimised by the researcher (Mugo, 2007).

3.6 Sampling Procedure

Sampling procedure refers to the process of selecting elements to be observed (Singh, 2007). Sampling procedure according to Blanche et al. (2006) "refers to the process of selecting elements to be observed." Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005) broadly divide sampling procedure into probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is a sample that has been selected using random selection so that each unit in the population has a known chance of being selected for the sample. Probability sampling is a sample that has been selected using random selection so that each unit in the population has a known chance of being selected for the sample. That is, each element in the sampling frame has an equal and independent chance of being selected for the sample. The aim of probability sampling was to keep sampling error to a minimum. This aspect of probability sampling procedure permits statistical inferences. Terre Blanche et al. (2006) and Singh (2007) give examples of probability sampling to include systematic sampling, stratified sampling, cluster and simple random samplings.

In systematic sampling, Blanche et al. (2006) note that after a random start, the nth element is selected and thereafter, every other nth element is systematically selected on the list to be included in the sample (sampling interval). The list can be a register of all employees of an organisation. Strewing & Stead (2001) gave one of the disadvantages of this method to include a situation where a faulty member appears after a certain interval.

Stratified sampling involves dividing a population into a mutually exclusive and exhaustive subset whereby a simple random sample of units is chosen independently from each subset (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005). The advantage of stratified sampling is that every part of the population (i.e. Every stratum) gets a better representation. There is a smaller sampling variation which means that more stable results in repeated samples would be obtained as against using simple random sampling. Cluster sampling is mostly used when a large population is involved and a sampling frame is not available. The population in cluster sampling (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005) is divided into mutually exclusive subsets and then a random sample of the subsets is selected. The major advantage of cluster sampling is that a complete frame of the sampling unit is not required as in simple random sampling thereby minimising costs. However, the method can yield poor precision if there is large variation between clusters in the variables to be examined.

Terre Blanche et al. (2006:139) defined non-probability sampling as “any kind of sampling where the selection of elements is not determined by the statistical principle of randomness”. Examples of non-random sampling include convenience, purposive and snowball sampling. In convenience sampling, the researcher uses volunteers who are willing and available to participate in the research. This is most useful in a homogeneous population. This method is economical and does not require the population list. The main disadvantage is that variability and bias of estimates cannot be measured or controlled. In purposive sampling, dependence is not only on availability and willingness to participate, but on cases that are typical of the population are selected. This process of gradually accumulating a sufficiently large sample through contacts and references is described by Terre Blanche et al. (2006) as snowball sampling. The advantages of purposive and snowball sampling methods is that they are economical and do not require a list of the population. From the above discussion, probability sampling procedure using simple random sampling appears to be the most popular method used by the researcher because it allowed generalization to the population. The researcher used the probability sampling procedure using simple random sampling method because of its merit over other sampling procedures. From the above discussion, probability sampling procedure using simple random sampling appears to be the most popular method used by the researcher because it allowed generalisation to the population.

3.7 Data Collection

Research instruments are a tool used to collect data in the process of carrying out research. Data collection is the process of gathering relevant information about the subject from research participants. According to Martins, Loubster and Van Wyk (1999), "The data gathering process may vary from relatively simple observation at a specific location to an extensive survey of large corporations across the world." Various methods used in data gathering, especially in the social sciences and business include questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions and observation of participants. In this research, the researcher used questionnaire to collect data because of its numerous advantages and its ability to yield the most satisfactory range of reliable data. Questionnaires are most suitable in a quantitative study such as this present one as outlined by Cleverland (2006).

3.7.1 The Research Questionnaire

Since this is quantitative research, the researcher made use of structured questionnaires to collect data from the employees. According to Struwig and Stead (2001), "Questions asked in questionnaires come from a review of available literature on the subject matter and interviewing people and suggest that the questions and design of the questionnaire should be adapted to the educational levels and background of the respondents." A survey questionnaire was used to collect data from respondents in the present study. The research questionnaire was divided into Sections; such as, gender, marital status, level of education, age, length of service, level of employment etc.

3.7.2 Reliability of the Questionnaire

The reliability of the scales used in the study was measured using Cronbach‘s alpha. Struwig and Stead (2001) describe Cronbach‘s Alpha as a measurement of how well a set of items measure a single one-dimensional talent construct. When data have a one-dimensional structure, Cronbach‘s alpha will usually be low. Cronbach‘s Alpha coefficient is typically equated with internal consistency (de Vellis, 1991). For consistency to be present, the alpha must be above 0.7, but not higher than 0.9 (Struwig & Stead, 2001, Sekaran, 2000).

A pilot study was also administered to ten respondents who were identical to the target population who the final questionnaire was administered. One questionnaire was used for all categories of respondents. The aim of the pilot study was to give the researcher the opportunity to rephrase some items where necessary and help the researcher to assess the validity and reliability of the data that were to be collected. Ten questionnaires were first distributed as a pilot and the pilot testing revealed a few inconsistencies and these were considered and corrected.

3.7.3 Validity

Using the guidelines of Leedy and Ormrod (2005) and Terre Blanche et al. (2006), the validity of the measurement instrument was determined and the conclusion was reached by the researcher that the measurement instrument was valid. Validity is measured in terms of two separate, but related dimensions: internal and external validity.

3.7.3.1 Internal validity

Altermatt (2010) defines internal validity as the confidence one can have in making cause and-effect conclusions from the results of a study. Bless and Higson-Smith (2000) reported that internal validity examines the extent to which the observed changes in the dependent variable actually relate to the changes in the independent variation. Two possible complications were considered by the researcher in order to achieve high internal validity.

3.7.3.2 External validity

Bless and Higson-Smith (2000) report that external validity is concerned with whether the results obtained from the sample apply to all the subjects in the population being studied. External validity examines the extent to which the results of the study can be generalized. Three factors were considered by the researcher in order to achieve high external validity.

3.7.3.3 Administration of the Questionnaire

Different methods of administering questionnaires are open to a researcher. According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997), "Questionnaires can be administered through postal mail, telephone interviews, internet or self – administered. Whatever method the researcher uses places a responsibility on the researcher who bears the costs of getting the questionnaires across to the respondents". The researcher obtained a list of employees from the respective departments that formed part of the study. The researcher personally administered the distribution and collection of the questionnaires. A first appointment was made with a staff at the Human Resource Department of the Breman Asikuma District Assembly. On the appointment date, first an official letter that identified the researcher which also sought permission to conduct the study at the District Assembly was handed over. Second, the objective of the study and how the questionnaires would be filled were explained to the respondents. Lastly, the questionnaires were submitted and left with the respondents with an appointment for the collection of filled questionnaires. This method guaranteed that the questionnaires were delivered to the intended recipient and therefore produced better quality and depth of data than with other methods of questionnaire administration. The questionnaire in this study was self–administered. The researcher randomly administered the questionnaires to employees who have worked at Breman Asikuma District Assembly for a period of one year or more and also employees under the Office of the District Chief Executive. The researcher explained all the questions on the questionnaire to the respondents. Questionnaires were personally collected by the researcher.

3.8 Statistical Analysis

According to Nicholas (2008) data analysis can be described as the act in which data that is collected during the research process, are transformed into useful information and conclusions. In this study descriptive research to investigate the effective time management and organisational performance elements were used. Descriptive statistics enable researcher to display the obtained data in a structured, accurate and summarised manner. Researchers use descriptive statistics to summarise a set of scores and making them more comprehensible (Aron & Aron, 1999). Also, Pearson correlation and linear regression were used to analyses inferential statistics.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

The participants were all informed about the aim and purpose of the study and told exactly what would be involved and what would happen to the data gathered from them. Data obtained from the participants were kept confidential. Data was and would not be released to other people or be published unless agreement has been obtained from the source or disguised. The study made use of numbers rather than names to ensure confidentiality. The selection of research subjects was the result of fair selection procedures and resulted in fair selection outcomes. Permission was obtained from the respective authorities in the District Assembly to disseminate the questionnaires. The request was in writing stating the purpose of the study and the requirements from participants.

3.10 Summary

This chapter addressed the research methodology of the study. An extensive explanation was given about the research design, the selection of the sample, the procedure used to gather the data and the measuring instruments used. Matters relating to conducting the research ethically were also considered.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

Chapter three discussed the research methodology. This chapter presents findings of the analysis of the data collected from questionnaires; the quantitative research technique employed. The questionnaires were administered to the employees of the Breman Asikuma District Assembly and Effutu Municipal Assembly.

With respect to the research objectives, this part of the study seeks to establish the relationship between time management practices and organisational performance. Investigating the relationship requires a statistical analysis of the data collected. The questionnaires were useful in providing the researcher with the opportunity of gathering aspects that could represent time management and also organisational performance. As such, the research objectives 1 (identify factors that influence time management behaviours in Breman Asikuma District Assembly and 2 (determine the impact of time management practices on organisational performance in Breman Asikuma District Assembly) are mainly addressed in this chapter.

Further, the research technique was useful in forming the background understanding to aspects of time management practices in the Breman Asikuma District Assembly. This background understanding forms the basis for further exploration through qualitative techniques. As such, aspects of time management and organisational performance are further investigated using the qualitative approach.

4.1 Population and Sample

A total of 132 questionnaires were administered, and 120 copies were successfully returned by the respondents. The discussion below highlights the major findings presented according to the main questions addressed. The first part presents results of the One-Sample Statistics which is then followed by the multiple regression analysis.

Table 4.1: Demographic Information of Respondents

Variables	Sub-Scale	N	%
Gender	Male	75	62.50
	Female	45	37.50
	Total	**120**	**100.00**
Marital Status	Married	80	66.67
	Single	35	29.17
	Divorced	5	4.16
	Total	**120**	**100**
Level of Education	BECE	10	8.33
	WASSCE	40	33.33
	First Degree	55	45.83
	CIMA/CA	3	2.50
	Professional Qualification	12	10.00
	Total	**120**	**100**
Age (in years)	20-29	15	12.50
	30-39	35	29.17
	40-49	50	41.67
	50-59	18	15.00
	60 years and above	2	1.67
	Total	**120**	**100**
Length of Service (in years)	1-5	10	8.33
	6-10	15	12.50
	11-15	35	29.17
	16-20	40	33.33
	21-25	20	16.67
	Total	**120**	**100**

Level of Employment	Management	6	5.0
	Senior Member	15	12.50
	Senior Staff	44	37.67
	Junior Staff	55	45.83
	Total	**120**	**100**

4.1 Analysis of Demographic Data of Respondents

The demographic data have been analysed in this section by means of descriptive statistics, utilising table in order to understand the sample under consideration. Table 4.1 illustrates the gender of the respondents indicating that 62.50% (75) of the respondents were male and 37.50% (45) of the respondents were female.

4.1.1 **Marital Status**

The marital status of the respondents is shown in Table 4.1. There were 29.17 (35) respondents who were single. There were 66.67% (80) respondents who were married and 4.16% (5) respondents were divorced. Table 4.1 shows that the majority of respondents were married.

4.1.2 **Level of Education**

Table 4.1 indicates that majority of respondents 45.83% (55) hold first degree qualification and 33.33% (40) respondents who hold WASSCE qualification. There were 10% (12) respondents and 2.5% (3) respondents who hold Professional qualifications such as CIMA/CA. There were also 8.33% representing 10 respondents who hold BECE qualification.

4.1.3 Age

In terms of the age of the respondents as illustrated in Table 4.1 where 12.50% (15) of the respondents were between the ages of 20-29 years; 29.17% (35) of the respondents were aged between 30-39 years. The third age category constituted 50 respondents between the ages of 40 to 49 years of age who made up 41.67% of the distribution, followed by 18 respondents (10%) aged between 50-59 years. Only 2 respondents, representing (1.67%) aged 60 years. In essence, most of the respondents were aged ranging between 40-49 years (about 41.67%) and less than 2% were in the old age category between 60 – 62 years.

4.1.4 Length of Service

In terms of the number of years of service as illustrated in Table 4.1 there were 8.33% (10) respondents with a minimum of 1 year to 4 years of service, 12.50% (15) respondents with 6 to 10 years of service, 29.17% (35) respondents with 11 to 15 years of service and 33.33% (40) respondents with 20 or more years of service. The results signify that majority (more than seventy five percent) of respondents had experience in their respective jobs which is more than five years. More particularly 33.33% had between 16-20 years of service and 29.17% had a length of service which ranged between 11-15 years.

4.1.5 Level of Employment

Table 4.1 illustrates normal expectations of the organisations where majority of employees were subordinates or junior staff. 45.83% (55) respondents and 37.67% (44) respondents were at Junior and Senior levels of employment. 12.50% (15) respondents were in Senior Member level of employment, whilst only 5% (6) respondents were at management level.

4.2. Effective Time Management

The question asked was "do you understand about effective time management?" This question was aimed at reviewing the respondents' conception of time as a resource that needs to be managed.

Findings

Table 4.2: Consciousness among Employees regarding the value of time as a critical resource

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	52	43.3
Sometimes	39	32.5
No	29	24.2
Total	120	100.

The results revealed that about 75.8% of the respondents perceived time as a critical resource. However, of these 75.8%, only 43.3% regarded it as an absolute resource. Of the respondents, 24.2% did not conceive time as a critical resource. Putting into perspective the relative weights attached to consciousness of time as a critical resource, some statistical figures helps put this into perspective and presented next.

Report

Consciousness

With a mean value recorded of 1.8083 and standard deviation of 0.80226, the distribution of the responses is widely spread. This indicates a great variation in the conception of time as a critical resource.

T-Test

One-Sample Statistics

One-Sample Test

The standard error mean was low at 0.07324 indicating that the mean value of 1.8083 is a more accurate reflection of the population.

As will be presented subsequently also, One Sample t Test will produce the One-Sample Statistics first to show the mean, standard deviation and standard error mean. This will be followed by results of the One-Sample Test which shows the test value, the t statistics, the degree of freedom (df), Sig. (2-tailed), mean difference and confidence internal of the difference. The One Sample t Test basically tests a null hypothesis that the population mean is equal to a specified value. If this value is zero, then the confidence interval for the sample mean is given.

The meaning and interpretation of these statistical output is as follows:

i. Mean represents the average of the data values (sample or population).

ii. The standard deviation measures the dispersion of the data set, based on squared distances, from the mean.

iii. The test value represents the expected mean from the start which is tested on the sample. It indicates the null hypothesis, for instance, in this case the hull hypothesis would be that there is no consciousness to the criticality of time as a resource. Thus, the test is on whether this null hypothesis is true or not and to what extent differences exist from this expected position.

iv. The t-statistics represents the test statistics of the one sample t test. This is the t-value used to construct the confidence limits. It is based on the degree of freedom and the confidence level. This can be obtained by dividing the mean difference by the standard error mean. The t-statistics is the ratio of the departure of the estimated value of a parameter (in this case consciousness to time criticality) from its hypothesised value (in this case ‘0’) to its standard error.

v. The degree of freedom (df) for the test is number of observations minus one (n-1). It’s used to determine the t-distribution from which t-statistics is generated.

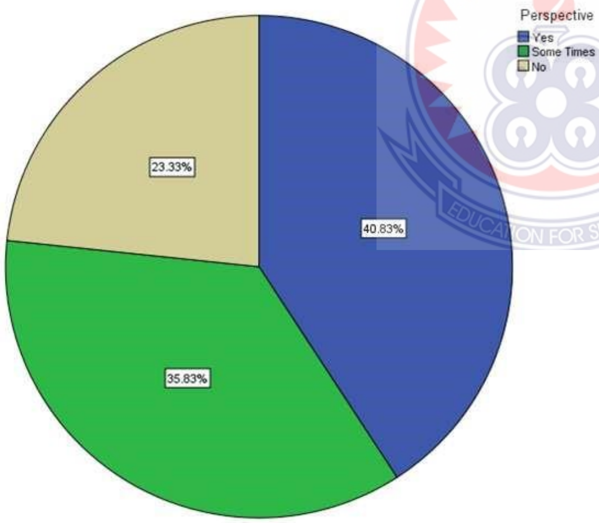
vi. The sig. (2-tailed) gives the two-tailed p-value corresponding to the test statistics.

vii. The mean difference is the difference between the observed sample mean (from the One Sample Statistics) and the ‘expected’ mean (the specified test value). The sign of the mean difference corresponds to the sign of the t value. The positive t value in this case indicates that the mean weighting of consciousness of time of the sample is greater than the expected value of zero (0).

viii. Confidence interval for the difference specifies the confidence interval between the specified test value (zero in this case) with the sample mean (1.8083). These are the confidence limits of the confidence interval for the mean.

Understanding of these parameters is important for the subsequent interpretation of the results presented below. With respect to consciousness of time as a critical resource, the null hypothesis that time is not regarded as a critical resource is rejected as the p-value (Sig. 2 tailed) is less than 0.001. The graph below depicts awareness of time as a critical resource.

Graphical Representation of consciousness of the fact that time is your most critical resource



Interpreting the responses of the respondents, it became evident that about half of the employees (43.33%) agree to emphasize on time as the most critical resource in the Breman Asikuma District Assembly. This suggests that integral time management is a key factor of success in the various philanthropic projects they have executed. However, about 33% of the employees undermined the value of time in execution of the Assembly projects. They held the opinion that sometimes time plays a key role in District Assembly activities, for instance in disaster management projects. Elsewhere, the quality of the service and loyalty of the employees matters more than brisk time management. Lastly, in the survey, about 24.17% of the sampling population completely disregarded the value of time as a resource. They do not consider deadlines of the projects as a progressive idea. In contrast, from the ideas of Lewis (2014), it can be suggested that the mixed proportion of conception regarding the value of time bears evidence that work discipline of the organization needs to improved.

4.3.1. **Self-assessment of time management**

The question asked was 'is your time management good?' This question was aimed at respondents to make judgement regarding their time management practices. Importantly, this complements question one above to highlight whether respondents perceived their time management as good or in need of improving.

The better percentage (about 41%) of the sample population did opine in favour of the time management policies of the Breman Asikuma District Assembly. However, about 23.33% of the respondents provided evidence of the fact that time management skills of all the managers are not equally well. This is because, on some instances, the time management is good. However, in the past, performance has reduced due to poor time management. Lastly, about 23% of the respondents did not seem satisfied with the time management in the organization. They reflected that time framing should be done under guidance of the senior employees in most cases. Similar to findings of Marshall and Suarez (2014), it might be suggested that the organization needs to have a common time mapping technique. The absence of any such concrete policy is responsible for the versatility and deviation in the opinion of the employees.

4.3.2. Feeling of time pressure

The question asked was ‘do you feel pressed for time? This question was directed at examining whether the respondent perceived their tasks to be time sensitive or not in terms of feeling pressed for time. The time pressure variable has been used in other studies (e.g. Orpen, 1994; Shahani et al., 1993) expressed in different forms. For instance, Shahani et al. (1993) used terms such as ‘immediate time pressure’ and ‘time anxiety’.

4.3.3 Usage of goal setting and priority list

The question was asked whether there was a goal setting and priority list: These were the responses. The assembly has a policy of giving task based deadlines to the executive teams. However, some managers do not take the policy. On 45% instances, the employees opined that they work as per priority list. In another 31% of the cases, the employees stated that they have a policy of goal setting in their organisation. However, they do not have any priority list for working on projects. As argued by Noor et al. (2016), it might be suggested that 23% of the employees who follow priority list and set work goals, are experienced and realize the value of time as a critical factor.

4.3.4 Accessibility and tidiness of document in the work space

The question asked was ‘do you find documents and files easily and quickly in your work space?’ This question essentially assesses the organizing skills which as indicated above, form an important part of time management. Documentation in any organisation needs to be well organised. Many of the employees are victim of poor workplace management. This is reflected by approximately 54.11% of the respondents who indicated that they face difficulty in finding documents and files in the office. Most of the District Assemblies have not undergone digitalization. This is why employees of the Assemblies have to maintain a large amount of documentation in the form of paperwork. Moreover, de-synchronization of time makes maintenance of papers difficult for the workers. The personal work regime and orderliness of 45% of the workers makes it easy for them to manage files in their workspace.

4.3.5 Time for leisure activities

The question that was being addressed in regard to availability of leisure time was ‘do you have time for leisure activities?’ Timely completion of tasks results in higher job performance, more leisure time and working less overtime (Claessens et al., 2007). Therefore, one way of assessing whether employees complete tasks on time is examining whether they have leisure time available. It is also another way of assessing the work-life balance (Breevaart et al., 2016; Green and Skinner, 2005). Work life balance forms an integral aspect of the internal culture of an organisation. In this respect, Breevaart et al. (2016) argues that employees should develop skills of work life balancing so that work does not affect their personal life. Most of the employees of Breman Asikuma District Assembly have ample free time for their leisure. About 45% of the employees stated that they are able to find time for their families, community affairs or pursuing their hobbies.

4.3.6 Maintenance of Time log

The question asked was ‘do you keep a time log to the nearest minute of everything you do on a typical working period of at least one day? The question was aimed at understanding the important aspect of time management practice which involves time framing. The findings are presented below. The response of the employees against this question suggests that managers do not properly monitor time management of their subordinates. This is why majority (38%) of the employees of the organization follow a typical day long work chart. However, a good percentage of the employees (32%) follow time logs that helps in fragmenting their work into convenient quarters.

4.3.7. Procrastination of daily tasks

The question asked was on procrastination, a time management behaviour. Law & Schouwenburg (1993), for instance, included procrastination as a time management trait in their study. In this study, the question, ‘do you often procrastinate (postpone) completing your daily tasks?’ About 60% of the employees indicated that they avoid postponing their daily work. Instead they work overtime to finish their scheduled work on time. However, about 40% of the employees are forced to postpone their work daily. Analysis reveals that most of the employees who postpone daily work are less experienced and have not adopted the work regime of the organization yet.

Identification of activities with high value

The respondents were asked 'Do you know which of your activities have high value productivity? The responses of the employees to this question made it evident that the employees were not clear of the priority level of their work. This is because; most of the employees were given specific deadlines for working. The deadlines set for high and low priority tasks do not vary. Hence the employees have to equally prioritise their works.

Do you avoid meetings that are time wasting

Besides keeping time to attend meetings, effective time management also requires that employees avoid time wasting meetings altogether. These could be defined as meetings that do not add value to overall objectives of the organisations. As such, respondents were asked 'do you avoid meetings that are time wasting? These were the responses from the respondents; the junior employees are part of their executive teams only. However, 41% of the senior members participate in group meetings with the hierarchy. About 35% of the speciality group employees are often invited in meetings to share their technical knowledge with team leaders and project managers. The rest of the respondents (23%), receive work instructions on a common online platform. They personally interact with the project managers for discussing about time management of their work.

Usage of automated document management system

It can be analysed that the majority of employees, 40.8% have responded that they utilise automated document management system. Thus, it is essential for the District Assemblies to keep more organised in the document management system and accessible as well.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

This research was carried out with the aim of studying the impact of effective time management practices on organisational performance of Breman Asikuma District Assembly. The study employs a multi-case study approach using two District Assemblies that is Breman Asikuma District Assembly and Effutu Municipal Assembly, in order to investigate the possible relationship that has been found to be mainly positive in monochromic cultures. In investigating the relationship, the study also examines the perceptions meanings of time and identifies the factors that influence time management behaviours, in particular, the role of culture and leadership.

The study uses a mixed methods research approach from a pragmatist perspective. In this respect, both qualitative and quantitative research methods were employed in order to obtain the rich data needed to help address the research objectives. In investigating the perceptions attached to time, including the factors that affect time management practices, a qualitative research approach was applied. On the other hand, in order to investigate the possible association of time management practices on job outcomes and thus, firm performance, a quantitative research approach was relevant.

In order to understand the influence of culture on time management practices, some theoretical contributions on cultural dimensions were reviewed. In this respect, Hofstede's

Cultural Factors, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's Dimension of Culture as well as Hall's Cultural Factors were reviewed. In addition, the study acknowledges that other factors could influence time management practices which includes environmental factors, organisational factors and personal factors. Qualitative data was collected using semi-structured interviews while quantitative data was obtained through questionnaire administration. The questionnaires were administered to employees of the two selected District Assemblies and interviews were conducted on the employees of the District Assemblies. The analysis of qualitative data was based on Seidel's (1998) model which involved three steps of noticing, collecting and thinking about interesting things.

5.1.1 **Qualitative Results**

The perceptions of time and the factors that influence time management behaviours in Breman Asikuma District Assembly were the focus in this part of the study. The factors included personal characteristics, internal and external environmental factors, technology and cultural factors. The study found that time management was of great importance and that cultural differences played a crucial role in its determination. Analysis of the interviews revealed that cultural factors had a strong impact on time management. It was also found that there was very little understanding about the impact of monochronic time and polychronic time. For example, western cultures view time as a commodity to be controlled. Therefore, monochronicity is where time is schedule driven. The African cultures view time in polychronic terms. This is where time is considered to be multidimensional and flexible. Therefore, the rationale for the study was compelled by the need to discover the importance of time management in the African context. Consistent with the propositions of cultural dimensions (Halls, 2012; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 2009) the study found that Breman Asikuma District Assembly employees had attributes that characterise polychronic culture and that the society was interested to learn more about monochronic practices.

5.1.2 **Quantitative Results**

As several studies have highlighted the influence of time management on organisational (e.g. Abdullah et al., 2012; Ahmad et al., 2012; Channar et al., 2014; Claessens et al., 2009). The study explored the concept of time management and its relationship to job satisfaction, job performance, job motivation and individual goals. In this respect, it is conceived that if there is poor time management, then the former elements would not be realised. Generally, high levels of employee motivation present opportunities to perform better in the workplace.

The study found that there was indeed a linkage between time management behaviours and Organisational performance. This is the case that time management can lead to quantifiable improvements in organisational performance which can be measured in different ways. The job performance can be evaluated, for instance, through performance appraisals. In this study, aspects of job outcomes examined included work balancing, work load and awareness building. These are important determinants with respect to District Assemblies performance because of the nature of organisational objectives which are more about the impact of District Assemblies operations on society. The time management variables are captured through aspects such as improvement, sufficiency, automation and documentation with predictors related to importance, timeliness, involvement and undertaking. The study has shown that good time management has the effect of improving organisational performance.

5.1.3 Development in time management practices

In addressing the research objective 'explore the future development of time management practices' the study investigated the changes in time management practices. In the analysis of responses from both questionnaires and interviews, the researcher found that the Breman Asikuma District Assembly under investigation have gradually been coming to terms and implementing effective time management strategies. The findings from primary data were supported by secondary data.

5.2 Recommendations

It is acknowledged that time is a scarce commodity which is a challenge for most managers and employees. There is a greater need for both managers and employees to engage in self-management. It is recommended that Breman Asikuma District Assembly should train their managers and employees to acquire skills in self- management. In fact, managers should be able to make the most of their time and also help employees to manage their time effectively. One of the effective ways in which employees' skills could be developed is through workshops. Through skill tailored workshops, employees of Breman Asikuma District assembly can acquire time management skills which include setting clear goals, breaking one's goals down into discreet steps and action planning. The employees of the Breman Asikuma District Assembly should acquire skills which can include prioritising, focusing on urgent and important matters. Organising their work schedules, list making and avoiding procrastination. Time is of equal importance for both personal and professional success (Channar et al., 2014). As such, harnessing the time management skills is imperative.

Further, during the research, it was discovered that a majority of employees did not keep 'to do list' and did not use a time log. It is recommended that the employees take stock of these skills. There is need to have a reminder system such as a diary so that one can write down things needed to be done including appointment and work deadlines. Information in the diary is an essential part of action planning. Managing time wisely guarantees that District Assembly managers are able to better manage themselves and their time as well as able to assist their subordinates to learn to make the most of their time. Keeping records of one's activities is vital for time management, since as already mentioned, it shows the efficiency of time spent from activities that are classified as important and urgent to activities which are not important and neither urgent.

It is clear that effective time management is an instrument for organisational performance, therefore, it is recommended that Breman Asikuma District Assembly should adhere strictly to effective time management so as to provide quality of service and achieve high levels of productivity. Every effective employee must be time conscious and managers should continuously lay emphasis on the importance of good time management during meetings so that employees may recognise time as an important resource. In addition, Breman Asikuma District Assembly should adopt modern technology to a high extent so that they can have an idea about the employees' punctuality when it comes to time management and productivity at the workplace.

The management of Breman Asikuma District Assembly can have specific computer software to record the activities of employees in a timely manner. It can be added that employees are self-applicable to have records of their own performance at the workplace in a timely manner.

Further, employees of Breman Asikuma District Assembly need to enhance their time management skills for task categorisation which should be based on the specific time it takes to complete tasks. There are few times when an employee is unable to identify the time-wasting tasks at the workplace. As Anderson et al. (2018) suggest, employees should have developed knowledge about choosing tasks according to the criteria of time requirement. While each and every employee will be effective in identifying the required time of an individual task, achieving the ability of proper time management within the Breman Asikuma District Assembly can be difficult. In terms of managing and using time properly, it is essential to have recognisable knowledge of tasks and its timeline. If an employee is able to gain knowledge on task categorisation by time requirement, the employee will be more efficient in managing and utilising time properly at the workplace. Thus, it is recommended that the employees are required to have personalisation on categorising tasks as per the separate timeline.

The employees of Breman Asikuma District Assembly are needed to avoid multitasking activities so that they can be more effective in managing time at the workplace. Multitasking activities are inefficient in completing a particular task with ultimate sincerity. Bartlett and Beamish (2018) argue that when an employee, no matter whether the employee is performing individually or as a team member, perform more than one task at a single time, they are likely to have failure at the end of task completion. This is due to a division of attention towards several tasks at the same time. Hence, while the employee will have a tendency of performing one task at a single time, the possibility of achieving success is quite high. On the other hand, if an employee of the Breman Asikuma District Assembly is unable to quit the nature of attempting multi-tasks at a single time, there are more chances of having a failure at the end of the time period. Therefore, it is recommended that employees are required to avoid multitasking tendency in order to utilise time wisely at the workplace.

Time management strategy - training or workshops for employees

It is commendable that in order to maintain proper time management at Breman Asikuma District Assembly, the employees should be firstly aware of implications of time management in career development. As suggested by Oettingen et al. (2015), it's important that management shows a commitment to effective time management. Thus, the management of Breman Asikuma District Assembly should demonstrate commitment, for example, through arranging time management training sessions on a weekly or monthly basis for their employees so that employees will be most effective towards their individual performance on a timely manner. Organised training sessions are effective in making employees realise about time management including its impact on performance as individuals or in a team. Organised and personalised training sessions are associated with realising actual importance of time management in order to build a successful career within the District Assemblies (Ramadan & Borgonovi, 2015). Organised training sessions if provided for employees could enhance awareness of time implications in both personal and professional life. When employees start to perform tasks on a timely manner and with ultimate sincerity, they would be able to complete tasks efficiently and effectively.

Thus, provision of time management training sessions could be adopted as a strategic approach for efficient time management.

Time management strategy - prioritisation

In order to maintain effective time management in Breman Asikuma District Assembly, the employees are required to prioritise their respective tasks. As argued by Kuratko et al. (2014), the employees should have vast and vivid view about task importance at the workplace. As highlighted in Eisenhower and Posec methods above, there is need to identify the relative importance and urgency of tasks (Melinte, 2013). There are few times when unimportant tasks are executed by the employees with high energy and time.

However, it is recommended that the energy and time should be utilised for important and urgent tasks. There are few times when an employee is unable to utilise time at workplace due to lack of knowledge on task prioritisation. As a result of this fact, the employee provides more time towards unimportant tasks and less time to important tasks. This wrong approach can cause major challenges in case of task completion. In more simple words, due to less time provision towards important tasks, possibilities of failure become high. Therefore, it can be argued that in order to adopt a strategic approach for effective time management, the Breman Asikuma District Assembly should require or make their employees aware about prioritising tasks at workplace both as individuals and in a team.

5.4 Limitations and suggestions for future research

This research has some limitations which might impact on the applicability of the findings to other contexts, despite every effort made to make the study solid and relevant. Firstly, the number of respondents was relatively small. The study had 7 interviews and 132 questionnaires were administered in two District Assemblies that formed the case study. As such, one of the limitations arises from the small number of respondents which might affect the overall applicability of the study findings. Similarly, only two District Assemblies were included in the study. This could raise potential limitations as two District Assemblies out of over one hundred and fifty four District Assemblies in Ghana might not be representative of the District Assemblies. However, given the study aims of obtaining an understanding of time management perceptions and relationship to performance, the data collected from these respondents was reasonable. Further research in this regard could target more Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies and a larger sample size. The importance of a larger sample size is that it enables a better statistical analysis to be carried out with results more generalisable. In addition, while small sizes are suitable for qualitative research approaches in order to obtain a deeper understanding, increasing the number of respondents within the same context could provide more contextual understanding.

There were also inherent limitations that arose when seeking to establish a relationship between time management practices and organisational performance. These limitations are inherent in any study that seeks to express and simplify causality. In this respect, identifying what are appropriate independent variables to capture time management practices and also dependent variables that reflect organisational performance is a key consideration. As such, whilst this consideration has been guided by prior studies, there is understandably other variables that could have captured the independent and dependent variables. Further, because of the nature of the organisations under study (Breman Asikuma District Assembly) there is arguably no universality of variables that could capture organisational performance.

This study was localised in Ghana. Whilst there are recognisable similarities in cultural characteristics of African countries, further research could include District Assemblies in other countries in the Sub-Saharan Africa. This could further provide insight into whether the cultural influence on time management are similar beyond the national boundaries.

5.5 Conclusion

Time remains a scarce resource that must be properly managed, otherwise nothing can be accomplished (Menzies, 2009). The supply of time will always remain limited whilst its demand is limitless. Therefore, time is of the essence and that it is a valuable resource designed to be used in a more controlled and profitable manner. Time is virtually tied to every organisational activity that feeds into its strategic objectives. As an important asset, its management is critical for organisational survival and success. Time management has an effect on organisational performance. Importantly, time management can be a motivating element behind employees' performance and productivity on tasks which form the basis for the overall performance of organisations.

Effective time management influences job satisfaction, job performance, job motivation and individual goals which contribute to organisational performance. However, time management practices are influenced by several internal and external environmental factors.

One of key environmental factors is culture. In particular, time management practices are culturally and contextually driven and thus, understanding the cultural environment within which organisations operate is important.

This study has empirically shown that time management has an effective role to play in improving the level of performance of employees, both individually and in teams, in District Assemblies. As such, the research implications are that District Assemblies in Ghana need to promote effective time management practices within the organisations, for instance, through training. District Assemblies in Ghana would be in a better position to achieve their societal oriented objectives through effective time management. Having good time management practices would also enable employees meet stakeholder expectations.

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APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE

I am an MBA student at the University of Education, Winneba. I am conducting a research to assess EFFECTIVE TIME MANAGEMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE: A CASE STUDY OF BREMAN ASIKUMA DISTRICT ASSEMBLY. I crave your indulgence to respond to the questionnaires below. Please note that there are right or wrong responses and our identity remains anonymous. Thank you.

Gender

Female [ ] Male [ ]

Marital Status

Married [ ] Divorced [ ] Single [ ]

Level of Education

"BECE, [ ] "WASSCE, [ ] First Degree, [ ] CIMA/CA, [ ]Professional Qualification[ ]

Age (in years)

20 - 29[ ] 30 – 39 [ ] 40 – 49, [ ] 50 – 59, [ ] 60 [ ]

Length of Service (in years)

1 - 5 [ ] 6 - 10 [ ] 11 - 15 [ ] 16 - 20 [ ] 21 – 25 [ ]

26 [ ]

Level of Employment

Grade/ Scale

Management [ ]

Senior Member [ ]

Senior Staff [ ]

Junior Staff [ ]

1. What do you understand about effective time management?

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

2. Do you agree that effective time management creates and reinforces employee satisfaction in leading to better performance? Yes [ ] No [ ]

3. Does your organisational conduct self-assessment of time management?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

4. Do you feel pressed for time? Yes [ ] No [ ]

……………………………………………………………..………………………

5. Do your organisation have goal setting and priority list? Yes [ ] No [ ]

6. Do you find documents and files easily and quickly in your work space? Yes [ ] No [ ]

7. Do you have time for leisure activities? Yes [ ] No [ ]

Time Management Questionnaire

Please tick the appropriate response as it relates to you

No.	Statement	Yes	Some Times	No
1	Are you continually conscious that time is your most critical resource?			
2	Is your time management good?			
3	Do you ever feel pressed for time?			
4	Do you have time for leisure activities?			
5	Do you keep a time log to the nearest minute of everything you do over a typical working period of at least one day?			
6	Do you often procrastinate (post-pone) completing your daily tasks?			
7	Do you give your undivided attention to one task at a time?			
8	Do you plan to be 10 to 15 minutes early for all appointments?			
9	Do you avoid meetings that are time wasting?			
10	Do you consciously avoid making social telephone calls during working time?			

11	Do you start and finish projects on time?			
12	Working for an Assembly, do you know that good time management is of utmost importance?			
13	Do you use automated document management system?			
14	Do you feel that you need to improve on your time management?			