NONPROFIT ADMINISTRATORS’ PERCEPTIONS OF TIME USE AND EFFECTIVE TIME MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES THAT IMPACT ORGANIZATIONAL SUCCESS

by

Deborah A. Johnson-Blake

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Deborah A. Johnson-Blake

January 2010

Approved:

Craig Follins, Ph.D., Mentor

James Booker, III, Ph.D., Committee Member

Neil Mathur, Ph.D., Committee Member

Accepted and Signed: January 26, 2010

Craig Follins

Accepted and Signed: January 26, 2010

James Booker, III

Accepted and Signed: January 26, 2010

Neil Mathur

February 5, 2010

Jeremy Moreland, Ph.D.
Dean, School of Advanced Studies
University of Phoenix
The purpose of this mixed methods study was to explore leaders’ perceptions of time use and the use of effective time management strategies. The study included five research questions and responses from 20 nonprofit administrators working within 33 technical college foundations across the state of Georgia. Respondents participated in follow-up interviews after completing the online Time Management Practices Inventory (TMPI) survey. The findings of the study revealed statistically significant relationships between TMPI scores and selected demographics. Findings revealed that leaders’ perception of time use, demographic characteristics, attitudes, and time management strategies were factors in implementing effective time management techniques to improve organizational success and effectiveness. Triangulation analysis substantiated the study’s findings. Results provided a framework for nonprofit administrators to embrace time management strategies that could improve funding research efforts and organizational success and effectiveness. Results revealed why some nonprofit administrators do not implement effective time management strategies to augment funding opportunities and improve individual and organizational growth and success.
DEDICATION

I dedicate my dissertation to my family and friends without whom I would not have attempted and achieved this challenging and life-altering endeavor. I am thankful to God for the strength and wherewithal He granted me through this dissertation journey; to my husband, Blake and our son DeMarco for their love and patience; to my mother, Evelyn Wilson for her unwavering and unconditional reassurance, love, and financial support; to my brother, Alton Wilson; to my sister-n-law Bea Saba; to my grandmother, Bertha Jackson; and to all my best friends (Valerie Hayes, Terry Holmes, Deborah Hunter, Wanda Lynah, Archie Marshall, Trina Richards, Karen Stevenson, Kim Stevenson, Sereda Trammell, Sherry Williams, Darla Watson, Traci Watson, and Joann Wesley) for their continued support, love, encouragement, and understanding.
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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Nonprofit organizations are the backbone of the service sector and often face challenging issues to ensure proper implementation of organizational missions (Chiagouris, 2005). Consequently, nonprofit organizations spend 90% of funds on implementing missions (Stout, 2001). With severe budget cuts, limited staffing, and intense competition for funding (Trautmann, Maher, & Motley, 2007), nonprofit leaders must design successful strategies and brand their organizations to raise money and ensure the success of its programs and operations (Chiagouris, 2005). One of the most challenging issues leaders of nonprofit organizations face is to improve the organization’s effectiveness (Herman & Renz, 2004). Another challenge for leaders of nonprofit organizations is managing limited resources in a competitive social service industry while meeting the increasing demands for services (Pietroburgo & Wernet, 2004).

Green and Skinner (2005) defined time management as “the use of time to achieve work and life goals” (p. 125). To meet the growing demands of its constituencies with limited funding, leaders of nonprofit organizations could implement effective time management practices to ensure organizational success (Lucco, 1994). Although extensive literature exists on organizational efficiency, limited data were available specifically for the nonprofit (Neuhoff & Searle, 2008) especially regarding time management training (Green & Skinner, 2005).

Chapter 1 is the current study’s introduction and includes a description of the problem background, problem statement, purpose of the study, nature of the study, research questions, theoretical framework, definitions of terms, assumptions, limitations, and delimitations. The results of the current research study are useful to leaders of
nonprofit organizations by providing pertinent information to implement successful time management programs for all nonprofit staff. This research project affords leaders the opportunity to improve continuously organization wide.

Background of the Problem

Lakein (1973) posited “no such thing as lack of time” (p. 12) exists, but only the need for more effective use of time. Many leaders struggle daily to manage time. In a study on university staff, Boyd and Wylie (1994) found that 80% of respondents indicated experiencing increases in workload. Leaders are responsible for ensuring staff uses time effectively to accomplish organizational goals (Stack, 2000). Fitsimmons (2008b) suggested that action plans help leaders achieve goals. With increasing competition for funding, nonprofit organizational leadership, similar to their for-profit counterparts, expect staff to be productive and reduce costs (Green & Skinner, 2005). Neuhoff and Searle (2008) noted that if nonprofit organizations experience an increase in productivity, greater opportunity exists to enhance the impact of their work. Leaders of nonprofit organizations have the daunting task of doing more with less and under challenging conditions, including “intense competition, rapid rates of change, and environmental ambiguity” (Sherlock & Nathan, 2007, p. 19). Increased productivity results necessitate that “productive nonprofits standardize their best practices, invest in essential people and processes, manage their costs, and measure their progress” (p. 33). Conquering and achieving these tasks require leaders to implement effective time management strategies.

In the Time Management Practitioner Consensus Survey, researchers at the Institute for Corporate Productivity (2007) found that 53% of the 332 leaders surveyed
indicated time management skills are important to the organization and 49% noted they provide time management training for staff. Because the survey focused on for-profit organizations, capturing the position of nonprofit leaders is a challenge. Unlike the Institute for Corporate Productivity, the current study resulted in an opportunity to assess time management concerns with leaders of nonprofit organizations, specifically those who work in nonprofit education unlike the grassroots not-for-profit institutions.

Many nonprofit organizational leaders rely on foundation and government grants and corporate and individual donations (Lowell, Silverman, & Taliento, 2001) to sustain the organization. With limited resources, more competition, and increased demand for services (Rojas, 2000), nonprofit organizations cannot fulfill missions (Pietroburgo & Wernet, 2004). Funders form nonprofit organizations (Lowell et al.). Because assessing nonprofit organizational effectiveness is difficult, many funders need to review effective management indicators (Herman & Renz, 2004). The type of management practices adopted is a key indicator of effectiveness (Herman & Renz). Good time management skills are vital for leaders because the financial impact to the bottom line could be detrimental to an organization’s success (Fitsimmons, 2008a). The maxim “time is money” (Fitsimmons, 2008a, p. 61) represents a savings for the company if employees are working productively.

Organizational sustainability is challenging for many nonprofit organizations because as organizations grow, resources are even more limited from funders as growth is a sign of sustainability (Lowell et al., 2001). Before managers can actively implement effective time management in nonprofit organizations, leaders should increase the awareness of the value of time management, implement a practical system to meet time
management objectives, and be able to amend time management strategies over time (Lucco, 1994). A major obstacle in implementing effective time management strategies is helping people to understand that time management issues exist (Kerzner, 1992). The goal of time management is to set priorities and achieve goals (Tyler, 2003) that could influence organizational success. The perception of time use of leaders of nonprofit organizations could determine the impact on organizational success.

Lemberg (2008) suggested creating a list of priorities that should contain no more than seven crucial tasks and issues that will impact the organization. Completing each item is essential prior to moving down the list. Other suggestions included making daily refreshed to-do lists. Lemberg also recommended reprioritizing meetings and daily rituals that steal time by delegating or omitting them from the important to-do lists. To ensure completion of priority lists, Lemberg suggested that leaders evaluate progress by reviewing accomplishments against tasks. By managing priorities, leaders gain a better perspective on time management (Lemberg).

Ostrowski’s (2005) time management views were consistent with the literature but Ostrowski cautioned individuals to be cognizant that not all time management strategies fit the needs of everyone. Ostrowski suggested individuals use creative procrastination when completing assignments by doing desired tasks first preceding prioritizing unwanted projects. The objective of Ostrowski’s approach was to manage time differently rather than better, knowing what needs to be accomplished and prioritized in order to meet missions.

Lucco (1994) noted the act of controlling time classifies time management. Identifying time management issues is crucial toward implementing effective strategies
for improvement. Some common time management issues include interruptions, lack of planning, and prioritizing tasks, which are essential for success (Lucco, 1994). The measurement of accomplishments occurs through effective time management (MacKenzie, 1997). Effective time management is useful when employed as a resource and not as a restraint (Kerzner, 1992). In order for organizations to progress, leaders should implement effective time management techniques (Stack, 2000). Stack discussed three key time management strategies essential toward reaching organizational goals: (a) minimize overloading employees, (b) use effective time management behavior, and (c) manage time wasters.

The premise behind time management is to do more with less time (Harung, 1998). Harung discussed the significance of human development as a factor in improving time management. Harung noted that time management involves doing more with less and focuses on the timing of tasks and creating more productive time. A vast amount of literature exists on the effective use of time management practices (Briddell, 1986), strategies strictly developed for nonprofit leaders are lacking. A need exists for effective time management strategy research in the nonprofit arena because most recent studies assessed other professions, including medicine (Hader, 2006) and education (O’Donovan, 2006). Time management is not a new phenomenon (Claessens, Roe, Rutte, & van Eerde, 2007), but establishing a focus on not-for-profit groups could be the missing link to assist leaders of nonprofit organizations in improving organizational effectiveness. A significant gap exists between for-profit and nonprofit organizations in relation to available resources to improve organizational development and success with the effective
use of time management strategies. Time is an essential and vital resource for organizations (Briddell, 1986) and for “working people” (Claessens et al., 2007, p. 256).

The foundation of the research problem is determining various effective time management strategies that administrators of nonprofit organizations could employ to affect the success and effectiveness of an organization positively. The focus of this mixed methods research study was on nonprofit organizations and the reasons leaders of nonprofit institutions do not use effective time management strategies to advance organizational development and success. The current study revealed how leaders of nonprofit organizations managed and perceived time, and presented strategies for becoming better time managers. The concern for a lack of effective time management in nonprofit organizations was the basis of the problem in this research.

Statement of the Problem

With nonprofit managers continually searching for funds and using the limited staff ineffectively, managers have less time to improve organizational effectiveness (Lowell et al., 2001). The implementation of time management strategies is crucial to increasing productivity and eliminating time wasters (Hart-Hester, 2003). The lack of effective use of time management strategies is often a result of poor planning, inadequate prioritizing, procrastination, and disorganization (MacKenzie & Taylor, 1986). Briddell (1986) posited that limited research is available on the impact effective time management strategy utilization has on nonprofit organizations relative to organizational success and effectiveness. Claessens, van Eerde, Rutte, ands Roe (2007) found in an assessment of time management literature between 1982 and 2004 exposed that previous research in the field indicated “positive effects of time management on perceived control of time” (p.
Claessens et al. (2007) gave no indication of studies conducted on nonprofit organizations, which confirms the gap between for-profit and nonprofit organizations regarding the effective use of time management strategies. The basis for the problem is a lack of knowledge available on the effective use of time management strategies in nonprofit organizations. The goal of the current study was to explore nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use and discover effective time management strategies suitable for administrators of nonprofit organizations.

Qualitative Design

The qualitative segment of this mixed methods study involved an exploration into nonprofit administrators’ perceptions of time use by interviewing leaders working in 33 technical college foundations across the state of Georgia. Housed in a technical college, each technical college foundation is a separate entity from the technical college. Governance for each technical college remains with the Technical College System of Georgia (TCSG), a state government agency that provides a unified system of technical education, adult education, and customized business and industry training. TCSG granted permission to recruit technical college foundation leaders of each technical college (see Appendix A). Each participating technical college foundation leader provided a form granting permission to conduct study.

The current study entailed comparing interview responses to secondary data from a literature review to triangulate the findings. The findings established a framework for leaders of nonprofit organizations to embrace time management strategies that will enhance funding research efforts and improve organizational success. The results of this mixed methods research study revealed why administrators of nonprofit organizations do
not use effective time management strategies to improve organizational success through an examination of the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the problem.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of a study dictates research methods and designs (Newan, Ridenour, Newman, & DeMarco, 2003). The goal of this mixed methods study was to explore nonprofit administrators’ perceptions of time use and discover effective time management strategies suitable for administrators of nonprofit organizations. A survey was disseminated to nonprofit leaders working in technical college foundations across the state of Georgia. This current research project entailed a comparison of the interview and survey responses to secondary data from literature reviews to triangulate the findings. The findings provide a framework for leaders to improve their use of time in nonprofit organizations through the adoption of time management strategies that could enhance funding research efforts and improve success and effectiveness.

Significance of the Problem

According to the National Center for Charitable Statistics (2008b), over 1.4 million nonprofit organizations exist in the United States. Claessens et al. (2007) asserted that minimal research is available on using time effectively and finishing tasks within deadlines. The significance of this research investigation lay in an ability to better equip leaders of nonprofit organizations with the tools to use time more effectively. The data derived from the current study provided needed information on how leaders of nonprofit organizations could use time management strategies to become more effective time managers. A concern for the lack of effective use of time management in nonprofit organizations is the basis for the problem under exploration.
The significance of using time effectively is especially unique to nonprofit organizations because of the likelihood of reduced funding sources. Without funding and support from donors, “programs go unsupported, and an array of financial needs is not met” (Iaarobino, 2006, p. 143). This time management study is beneficial not only to leaders of nonprofit organizations but also adds to the body of leadership knowledge. The current study made an original contribution to the field by providing successful strategies for improving how leaders of nonprofit organizations manage time to become more proficient. Berman (2007) posited that “time is the most important element in determining the efficiency and effectiveness of the processes it takes to run a company” (p. 6). Leaders cognizant of the importance of time and communicate the same to employees promote effective use of time (Berman, 2007).

Nature of the Study

The purpose of this mixed methods investigation was to explore administrators’ of nonprofit organizations perceptions of time use and discover effective time management strategies suitable for nonprofit leaders. This mixed methods approach includes both quantitative and qualitative data. Qualitative designs explore patterns or themes in data not necessarily in numerical format to answer the driving research questions and fill the gap in knowledge that is the problem (Creswell, 2004). Alternatively, quantitative designs test theories and examine relationships between two or more variables (Simon & Francis, 2001). Quantitative research determines if one or more variables impact another variable and depicts any relationship among the variables (Creswell, 2005).
The current study commenced using the grounded theory approach and Pfaff and Associates’ previously validated *Time Management Practices Inventory* (TMPI) instrument to analyze nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time and evaluate survey results (Pfaff and Associates/PAN, 2008). Pfaff and Associates granted permission to use the instrument in the research study (see Appendix B). The TMPI survey is a “norm-based instrument that assesses an individual’s time management skills” (Pfaff and Associates/PAN, 2008, ¶1). The instrument has “31 statements on a 7-point scale and helps leaders recognize strengths and weaknesses regarding task orientation, planning, and prioritizing” (Pfaff and Associates/PAN, 2008, ¶1). The collected data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. A copy of the TMPI instrument is in Appendix C.

Creswell (2003) noted that researchers should use all research opportunities to obtain a detailed understanding of issues. Limited survey research is available on leaders’ of nonprofit organizations perceptions of time use and use of effective time management strategies. Based on the research, similar conducted studies are minimal and dated.

The current study population was nonprofit leaders working in technical college foundations across the state of Georgia. An informed consent (see Appendix D) and recruitment letter (see Appendix E) were transmitted electronically and mailed via the U.S. Postal Service to individuals soliciting their volunteer participation and consent, along with a link to the TMPI survey website. The sample was chosen using purposeful sampling (Creswell, 2005) from a selection of 33 nonprofit leaders working in the Technical College System of Georgia’s technical college foundations. Creswell indicated that populations selected using the purposeful sampling technique captures in depth data
about a experience that could be valuable and instructive Working within one of the technical colleges governed by the Technical College System of Georgia, access to leaders of the nonprofit foundations within each of the technical colleges was unproblematic. In addition to the TMPI survey, demographic questions included gender, age, ethnicity, organizational position, and tenure and education level (see Appendix F).

Based on a phenomenological philosophy, the grounded theory process was appropriate for conducting the data collection and analysis of this inquiry. Strauss and Corbin (1990) defined grounded theory as follows:

A grounded theory is one that is inductively derived from the study of the phenomenon it represents. That is, it is discovered, developed, and provisionally verified through systematic data collection and analysis of data pertaining to that phenomenon. Therefore, data collection, analysis, and theory stand in reciprocal relationship with each other. One does not begin with a theory, and then prove it. Rather, one begins with an area of study and what is relevant to that area is allowed to emerge. (p. 23)

By conducting the qualitative portion of the current study from the grounded theory approach; “theory will be developed inductively from the data” (Punch, 2005, p. 155). Analyzing data inductively demonstrates a relation to the inquiry focus rather than a priori hypothesis. Data grouped by relevant categories was essential to conducting the inductive reasoning methods of the current study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) stated that inductive reasoning is akin to content analysis, which exposes embedded information and makes it explicit.
The TMPI survey instrument facilitated determining nonprofit leaders’ perceptions and levels of time use through an online process. The quantitative approach presented essential data to determine time management habits. The collected data were analyzed to discern emerging themes consistent with leadership theories.

The telephone interviews conducted with technical college foundation leaders consisted of investigating other phenomena that the survey may not include such as personal thoughts about time management. By collecting follow-up data, opportunities existed to ascertain the unique reasons time management is important to administrators of nonprofit organizations. The collected data were analyzed using NVivo 8 software. The qualitative methodology offered much more insight and description than a quantitative survey alone. Follow-up questions designed and based on the TMPI survey instrument presented opportunities to gain further insight of nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use.

Research Questions

Cooper and Schindler (2002) defined the research question as the proposition that shapes a study’s objective. Cooper and Schindler noted that research questions are the essential tools to find facts and gather information. This research inquiry encompassed an exploration into perceptions of time use by interviewing technical college foundation leaders working in technical colleges across the state of Georgia. The research questions began this investigation’s data collection process, and presented evidence to support the current study’s approach to discovering leaders’ perceptions of time use and identifying effective time management strategies to improve organizational performance. To understand the perspectives of administrators of nonprofit organizations fully, and to
explore a deeper understanding of leaders’ feelings about time management, the research questions included:

*Research Question #1*: How do the *Time Management Practices Inventory* (TMPI) scores relate to respondent demographics?

*Research Question #2*: What is effective time management?

*Research Question #3*: Is there a need for a time management program for administrators of nonprofit organizations?

*Research Question #4*: Are leaders and staff of nonprofit organizations currently using any form of time management?

*Research Question #5*: Who would benefit from the use of time management strategies? How can each leader develop his or her own time management techniques?

**Conceptual Framework**

The purpose of this research project was to examine nonprofit administrators’ perceptions of time use and discover effective time management strategies that nonprofit leaders could implement to affect change. The findings added to the body of leadership knowledge in time management. Time management is an issue many leaders face (Berman, 2007) when attempting to multitask and prioritize, but challenges persist (Wagner, 2007). When leaders use time inefficiently, costly issues arise (Green & Skinner, 2005), which could impact organizational success and effectiveness. Time management literature is prevalent, although limited information is specific to the nonprofit sector.

Although vast literature is accessible on the effective use of time management practices, strategies aimed explicitly toward nonprofit organizations are minimal
Hoyt (1983) noted that nonprofit administrators could save time and money by spending less time in unproductive meetings. Based on a survey of church administrators, 12% of respondents indicated time management as a primary problem (Schreiter, 2008). Another survey found that 80% of leaders who implemented time management strategies saved nearly an hour each day (Kyriazis, 2007). These data indicated that nonprofit leaders face time management issues regularly and could benefit from time management strategies specifically designed for this sector to improve organizational success and effectiveness. Assumptions made from Lowell et al.’s (2001) assertion that nonprofit organizations have limited resources, limited time and staff to improve organizational effectiveness, and limited opportunities for implementation, effective time management strategies may be impractical.

If these conjectures are true, perhaps planning could be essential to time management as suggested by Lakein (1973). The premise of the current study was the time allocation theory (Rojas-Méndez & Davies, 2005), which shows that leaders’ time orientations focus on the past, present, or future. The relationship between nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use and task completion was the basis for the conceptual framework. A substantial gap exists between for-profit and nonprofit organizations regarding implementation of effective time management programs. Bielefeld’s (2006) indication that much of the existing literature on nonprofit organizations focused on philanthropy and volunteering substantiated the current study’s assertion that time management data designed specifically for nonprofit leaders is scarce. Some nonprofit leaders heeded the advice of Jaskyte (2004), who reported that competent nonprofit managers impact work settings constructively to emulate creativity and innovation.
This investigation involved analyzing one quantitative research question and five qualitative research questions regarding nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use and discovering effective time management strategies. The focus was on perceptions held by leaders of nonprofit organizations who held positions in technical college foundations across the state of Georgia. The foundation of the theoretical framework for the current study was the concept of time management as set forth in the time allocation theory. The time allocation theory, founded on a phenomenological philosophy, “holds that individuals allocate their discretionary time purposively, depending upon their time orientation: to the past, present, or future” (Rojas-Méndez & Davies, 2005, p. 34). The time allocation theory would have benefited the current study if Rojas-Méndez and Davies’ theory focused on mandatory job-related time rather than unrestricted time.

The literature on time management presented knowledge on strategies to overcome time issues and revealed further insight on how leaders could be more effective. In this exploratory study, determining demographic relationships is essential to creating time management training programs for leaders of nonprofit organization. An established training program could be based on leader demographics and specifically designed for different people based on his or her needs. The absence of literature on time management for leaders of nonprofit organizations strengthens this study’s goal because the topic was uncharted ground. By not duplicating similar studies’ methodologies and presenting unique results, opportunities existed to relate the leaders’ time management practices inventory scores with demographics. The rationale for analyzing nonprofit leaders’ demographics in this study was based on the assumption that relationships would exist, thus serving as the catalyst to provide recommendations and training for nonprofit
practitioners. Comparing demographics in research studies is widespread (Creswell, 2005; Cooper & Schindler, 2003; Cone & Foster, 1993). Significant relationships based on demographics may allow opportunities to provide effective customize time management training. The results of the research study were instrumental in providing relevant literature to the nonprofit field especially because time is a scarce commodity (Berman, 2007; Thairu, 1999) and problematic. This germinal study was the catalyst that changes the nonprofit sector significantly in the area of time management.

Definitions of Terms

*Grounded theory.* “A research strategy whose purpose is to generate theory from data” (Punch, 2005, p. 155).

*Nonprofit organizations.* Nonprofit organizations are organizations that are “eligible for tax-exempt status under the Internal Revenue Code because they are organized for the specific purposes stated in the Code” (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2008a, ¶1).

*Technical College System of Georgia.* “A unified system of technical education that includes 33 technical colleges that provides custom business and industry training and adult education” (¶ 1); as well as 33 nonprofit foundations that provide support to each technical college and its programs (Technical College System of Georgia, 2009).

*Time allocation theory.* Discretionary time that is allocated purposely to the past, present or future (Rojas-Méndez & Davies, 2005).

*Time management.* The process of allocating the hours an individual has available in a regular workweek in the most optimal manner possible (Weatherly, 2004). An assumption can be made that Weatherly defined a regular workweek as consisting of 40
hours, 5 days per week, although an OMB Watch (2004) study purported that the typical nonprofit employee works an average of 29.8 hours per week.

*Time Management Practices Inventory (TMPI)*. The TMPI survey is a norm-based instrument that assesses an individual’s time management skills. The instrument has 31 statements on a 7-point scale and helps leaders recognize strengths and weaknesses regarding task orientation, planning, and prioritizing. TMPI measures time management skills, paperwork, initiatives, resistance, planning, self-confidence, priority setting, and deadlines (Pfaff and Associates/PAN, 2008, ¶1).

**Assumptions**

The following assumptions were made regarding the current study. One assumption was that all leaders of nonprofit technical college foundations will respond honestly and accurately to the TMPI questionnaires and follow-up interviews regarding their use of time and implementation of effective time management strategies. The TMPI instrument has been available for several years and tested for reliability. The second assumption was that the time management strategies used and identified share logical common constructs. The third assumption is that the selected population was representative of technical college foundation leaders across the state of Georgia. Because the purpose of the research study was to explore and identify emerging themes, the small number of respondents will not conciliate the validity of this research, but add value.

**Limitations**

Time management is a broad subject that affects all organizations both the for-profit and nonprofit arenas. The current study was specific to leaders of nonprofit
organizations and limited to participants who agreed to participate voluntarily. The number of participants surveyed and the amount of time available to conduct the survey was a limitation of the study. The truthfulness of the participants limited this research effort. The population studied comprised technical college foundation nonprofit leaders throughout the state of Georgia governed by the Technical College System of Georgia. Validity was limited to the reliability of the TMPI instrument. The sample, drawn from nonprofit leaders, might not provide findings that apply to leaders working within other areas of the Technical College System of Georgia. The term “other” used in the study’s demographic survey represented an education level not included in the selection options, such as a leader who has taken courses toward a masters degree but has yet to earn it.

Time was another limitation of the study. Because this research examination is not longitudinal, which requires a longer period, findings could vary with the limited time constraints. As a former employee of both a technical college foundation and a grassroots nonprofit organization, research interpretations may have impacted generated and reported results of the study.

The sample in the research study was not specific to all nonprofit organizations; however, the findings are applicable to the issues encountered by all types of nonprofit organizations. The results from this small sample cannot be used for the entire nonprofit population but provides a general basis for making assumptions about leaders’ of nonprofit organizations abilities to manage time effectively. However, reminiscent of other qualitative studies, numbers of participants are small because qualitative data analysis seeks to consider numerical conditions or statistical examinations. Similarly, the current study did not seek to extrapolate quantifiable results to the population at large.
Rather, the objective was to explore the experiences of administrators of nonprofit organizations relative to: how nonprofit leaders perceive time use, how nonprofit leaders implement time management strategies, and to what extent nonprofit leaders’ experiences, attitudes and beliefs impact leaders and their organizations. The current study makes no claims for all administrators of nonprofit organizations but only for the participants who participated in this investigation.

After the study was underway, nine technical college foundations merged into four nonprofit foundations effective July 1, 2009, throughout the state of Georgia. These mergers reduced the number of technical colleges from 33 to 28 subsequent to all study participants submitting informed consents. For purposes of the current study, 33 leaders were solicited. These mergers may have impacted the study’s individual participation levels. A critical limitation was the availability of nonprofit leaders to participate in the study. Because of demanding schedules, limited time, and undisclosed reasons, many of the leaders were not readily accessible or failed to participate in this research effort. Consequently, this issue delayed the data collection process, which began March 2009 through August 2009. The time frame of this research was March 2009 through October 2009 and includes data collection and data analysis.

Delimitations

The current study’s participation criteria included technical college foundation leaders who have a minimum staff of one, which included the leader. The current study’s participants were leaders of nonprofit organizations working in technical college foundations across the state of Georgia. The current study focused on determining nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use.
Summary

Many nonprofit leaders do not have the resources or time to improve organizational effectiveness continually (Lowell et al., 2001) with the implementation of effective time management techniques. Lack of time and ineffective use of time are determinants that impact effective time management strategies (Harung, 1998). Kyriazis (2007) found that 80% of her clients saved 45 minutes each day as a result of implementing time management strategies. Additionally, 91% of Kyriazis’ clients improved productivity levels (p. 1). According to Harung, achieving optimal time management occurs through the “development of the human consciousness to higher stages of happiness, effectiveness, freedom, and comprehension” (p. 425).

Key findings of the current study showed that if leaders of nonprofit organizations implement effective time management practices, the success of organizations could improve. The goal of the current study was to evaluate the surveys and interview responses of leaders of nonprofit organizations regarding the effectiveness of time management strategies and organizational success. The purpose of the current study was to examine administrators’ of nonprofit organizations perceptions of time use and discover effective time management strategies that leaders could employ to affect the growth and success of organizations positively. This mixed methods research study involved exploring leaders’ of nonprofit organizations perceptions of time use and determining which time management strategies could be effective through a method of interviewing. The current study investigated the impact time management strategies could have on organizational success and effectiveness, including funding opportunities. Bielefeld (2006) noted much of the nonprofit literature focuses on “giving, volunteering,
or on discovering and delineating the basic dimensions of the sector” (p. 397), which substantiates the current study’s claim of limited time management data available to nonprofit leaders. The review of literature in chapter 2 offered expanded knowledge on prevalent time management practices and strategies to improve organizational success.
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Brown and Herring (1998) postulated that time is the sole universal resource among organizations; even though most find it both precious and scarce (Berman, 2007; Thairu, 1999). Drucker noted, “Time is the scarcest resource and unless it is managed, nothing else can be managed” (as cited in Williams, 1996, p. 89). Berman concurred that time is people’s scarcest resource. Drucker’s quote indicates that managing anything else is ineffective without proper time management; however, the reality of life presents the converse. Drucker’s quote is crucial to the importance of time management in the current study. Time management is an issue for many people in the for-profit and not-for-profit arenas; limited research is available on how nonprofit professionals can effectively implement time management strategies to achieve organizational success and effectiveness. If employees could be effective time managers, deciding which tasks to do first would be the challenge (Kleinmann & Koch, 2002). Based on research efforts, few studies focused on nonprofit professionals and their time management challenges. The current study contributes to the limited literature by providing a detailed study testing the time management issues faced by leaders of nonprofit organizations.

Anheier and Salamon (1998) defined the nonprofit sector as organizations not businesses controlled by government. This research focused primarily on leaders of nonprofit organizations who could benefit from learning effective time management techniques to improve organizational success and effectiveness. Jaskyte (2004) noted the importance for nonprofit managers to know how to shape and influence the work environment to make it beneficial to creativity and innovation.
As nonprofit leaders vie relentlessly for funding to ensure mission execution, time management is always a factor that influences organizational success and funding opportunities. The problem is the implications of leaders of nonprofit organizations not completing job assignments in a timely manner might cause a loss of funding that impacts organizational success and effectiveness. The adoption of successful time management strategies could influence nonprofit organizations’ funding efforts and organizational triumph.

The goal of this research investigation was to discuss studies and other pertinent information relevant and practical to discovering effective time management strategies for leaders of nonprofit organizations. The results of the data analysis revealed why nonprofit administrators’ perceptions of time use and implementation of effective time management strategies are important to nonprofit leaders as they continue to execute organizational missions and improve success. The objective of chapter 2 is to present an assessment of the literature regarding nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use and discerning time management strategies that can positively affect individual performance and organizational success. Particularly, the literature review entails a documentation of research efforts, a historical overview and current findings in time management research, an overview of the transformational leadership theory, gaps in time management theory, and organizational success and effectiveness.

**Documentation**

*Title Searches, Articles, Researched Documents, and Journals*

A total of 250 title searches guided this research investigation, including the following key words related to time management: time management, time management
strategies, effective time management, and models of time management. The literature review involved using terms such as workflow, workload, nonprofit management, nonprofit staff, nonprofit theory, nonprofit leaders, nonprofit managers, effective time use, use of time, effective time management strategies, time-based management, workforce, employee perceptions of time management, employee perceptions of time, staff perceptions of time management, and staff perceptions of time. Other relevant search terms included perceptions of time management and perceptions of time, effective leaders and leadership, human resources, organizational effectiveness, and organizational success. Additional search terms used with the words time management included resource management, public policy, public sector, and nonprofit public policy.

Although the time management search results were abundant, time management literature targeted to nonprofit organizations and leaders was scarce. General time management strategies were ascertained and concepts were applied to the current study. Although the search yielded limited results regarding leaders’ perceptions of time use and time management, an abundance of information was ascertained on general time management practices in the literature review.

Scholarly Research

Scholarly research was found in several resources, including Stephen Covey’s *The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People*, Peter Drucker’s *The Essential Executive*, *The Journal of Managerial Psychology*, and James Collins’ *Good to Great* and *Good to Great and the Social Sector*. The literature review included online articles and dissertations from many other peer-reviewed sources found on University of Phoenix’s library databases, including ProQuest, EBSCOhost, ProQuest Digital Dissertations, and
InfoTrac. Local libraries including Georgia State University’s William Russell Pullen Library, Emory University’s Robert W. Woodruff Library, and Georgia Institute of Technology’s Price Gilbert Memorial Library were valuable resources in finding relevant time management data. Other resources included public county libraries, JSTOR, books, newspapers, time management consultants, and nonprofit and public associations.

Although an abundance of data on time management is accessible, limited information is available on time management strategies specifically designed for leaders of nonprofit organizations. The paradigm shift from the adage of doing more with less is of days past, and the new focus is on quality rather than quantity. The current study highlighted the importance of time management research for administrators of nonprofit organizations and scholars and the importance of setting precedence regarding the impact of time on nonprofit organizational success and effectiveness. The following historical perspective provides a detailed synthesis and analysis of time management literature.

**Historical Overview**

*Time Measurement*

In earlier times, movement of the stars and planets, the sun’s shadow, and the moon’s setting and rising were the measurements of time (Bittel, 1990). Calendars and clocks are the current scientific time measures (Bittel) and other technology such as personal digital assistants, cell phones, and other electronic devices that help people become more effective and time conscious (Collins, 2005; Draper, 2006; O’Brien, 2003; Pearce, 2007). Measuring time allows leaders to estimate the amount of time needed to complete tasks; “to set realistic performance standards for staff; and to establish reliable
plans and schedules” (Bittel, p. 164). Assessing the level of performance is an issue encountered by numerous leaders worldwide (Nikolaou, Valkola & Robertson, 2007).

Bittel (1990) provided an overview of macro time measures and micro time measures beginning with a simple event recollection. Past events such as the year of the flood and the planetary system, including the sun, moon, and stars once served as measurements of time (Bittel). The Babylonians of Mesopotamia first used calendar time, and the American Indians used crude horizon calendars (Bittel, p. 165). The clock measurement of time consisted of Roman numerals to minutes, seconds, and milliseconds. To count hours in ancient societies, a water clock sundial was the prevailing tool until Plato invented a hydraulic version of the water clock that provided an organ sound at every hour (Bittel). Other factors that influenced how people told time included the “length of a shadow, quartz watches, and atomic clocks” (Thairu, 1999, p. 281). The measurement of time has far exceeded ancient civilization’s version of time and is the catalyst of modern times’ way of measuring time; thereby, affecting how individuals plan the workday and week while determining how long it takes to accomplish tasks and work effectively (Bittel).

Importance of Time Management

The better leaders manage time, the more likely opportunities exist to resolve issues and complete projects in a timely manner, which could result in organizational success. Although the premise behind time management is to do more with less, Harung (1998) discussed the significance of human development as a factor in improving time management and the creation of more productive time. Herman and Renz (2004) posed the question, “Do nonprofits that increase their use of practices identified as enhancing
organizational effectiveness, in fact, become more effective” (pp. 694-695)? Much organizational success is predicated on the fact that organizations whose leaders implement best practices will become more successful (Herman & Renz). Herman and Renz also noted that little evidence is available on the use of best management practices in nonprofit organizations and found that no relationship exists between the use of correct management practices and organizational effectiveness. Hoover (2007) posited that managing time positively will affect success (p. 6). In the case of time management issues faced by the study’s leaders of nonprofit organizations, the adoption of best time management practices could positively influence organizational success.

Prevalent literature is available on the effective use of time management practices, although strategies aimed specifically toward nonprofit organizations are scarce (Briddell, 1986). Most recent time management research appears to focus on competitive business and industry work environments (Green & Skinner, 2005) and other professions, including the medical (Hader, 2006; Waterworth, 2003) and educational (O’Donovan, 2006) sectors which could be categorized as nonprofit and for-profit organizations. A large gap exists between for-profit and nonprofit organizations in relation to available resources to improve organizational effectiveness and success with the use of an effective time management program. General information on time management is acceptable nevertheless. There exists a lack of experiential time management research specifically relevant to nonprofit organizations regarding strategies that leaders could employ to improve organizational success and funding efforts. Bielefeld (2006) noted that nonprofits may not necessarily benefit from ideas and theories designed specifically for businesses and leaders. The role of the leader is to help transform staff in accepting best
practices to achieve organizational objectives; hence, the evolution of the transformational leader.

The Transformational Leader

Boseman (2008) defined leadership as the ability of leaders to persuade, inspire, and employ others to accept a shared vision. Harrison (1999) posited that “leadership is the lifting of a man’s vision to higher sights, the raising of a man’s performance to a higher standard” (¶ 12). Spearheading change management initiatives involves the commitment of a leadership team that advocates change through productive leadership behavior and forms of inquiry. With dedicated leaders and employees, organizations have an opportunity for success as well as a chance to embrace innovation and performance excellence through the alignment and integration of best practices and effective leadership. Effective leadership development is very important to nonprofit organizations because of recent nationwide growth of nonprofits (Trautmann et al., 2007).

Kouzes and Posner (2002) stated that transformational leaders can influence employees’ commitments to the organization, thus enhancing motivation and morality creating a transforming effect on leaders and followers. Transformational leaders provide future vision, encourage work groups, challenge followers’ thinking, set high expectations, support the needs of subordinates, and act as role models (Bommer, Munz, & Rubin, 2005). Servais’ (2006) assessment of leadership noted “leadership is about transformation . . . transforming people, places and possibilities” (p. 5). Friedman and Langbert (2000) noted leadership practices include sharing a vision, instilling courage, exuding confidence, displaying a strong sense of justice, portraying charisma, always
being willing to make sacrifices for one’s beliefs, and representing a change agent (pp. 94-95).

Transformational leadership theory encompasses “idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration” (Bass, as cited in Eddleston, 2008, p. 1056). Idealized influence refers to “how a leader’s charisma causes followers to identify with him or her” (p. 1056). Inspirational motivation is a leader’s ability to articulate a vision that is appealing to followers. Intellectual stimulation reflects the extent to which leaders challenge assumptions, take risks, and solicit ideas from employees. Individualized consideration refers to “the degree to which leaders attend to followers’ needs, act as mentors or coaches and listen to followers’ concerns” (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006, p. 328).

Under the transformational leadership approach, the leader’s focus is guiding daily beliefs that allow followers to accomplish the organizational leaders’ vision and mission, which shapes the culture (Bolman & Deal, 2003). Followers’ collective understandings of policies and actions help build programs and plans guided by the shared values in place. Leaders and followers’ mutual efforts stem from the values of both the leader and the led (Bolman & Deal).

Values and integrity are an important component of the leadership behaviors of transformational leaders. Harvey (2001) posited that followers’ values, motivation, and direction of transformational leadership inspire transformation and performance. Denhardt and Campbell (2006) believed that transformational leaders engage and motivate followers based on shifting values, beliefs, and needs. The effectiveness of the transformational leadership style focuses on the “accomplishment of change and the
Leadership is a relationship” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 78). Leaders who work cooperatively to advocate continuous improvement and innovation to attain organizational objectives focus on becoming effective change agents by implementing strategies that achieve results toward performance excellence and by exhibiting industrious leadership behavior.

The current study involved an examination of valuable time management strategies that administrators of nonprofit organizations could employ to influence the success and effectiveness of an organization. To be effective and successful, continuous improvement and change are necessary. Transformational leaders should realize that change evolves and occurs more effectively with leadership guidance; however, change is inevitable and happens if leaders are ready or not (Denhardt & Campbell, 2006). Leaders can effectively manage change if plans and methods align with organizational goals to
achieve performance excellence. In the current study, leaders of nonprofit organizations have the opportunity to affect positive change by recognizing their perceptions of time and through using effective time management strategies, thus enhancing funding opportunities that could improve organizational success and efficiency.

Discovering perceptions of time use and recognizing the impact on decision-making capabilities and processes is vital to managing time and implementing strategies toward improving organizational success and effectiveness. The objective for leaders is to create an opportunity to coexist and develop interpersonal relationships and effective communication that influence behaviors. Introducing productive change processes such as fostering better time management skills is as important as realizing the unconstructive impact nonproductive methods could have on change management and leadership effectiveness. “Transformational leadership requires leaders to be continually engaged in the present and in the future—analyzing situations and asking difficult questions, connecting with followers as individuals, developing and communicating a clear and inspiring vision” (Trautmann et al., 2007, p. 284). The purpose of this mixed methods research investigation was to explore leaders’ of nonprofit organizations perceptions of time use and discover effective time management strategies that could impact organizational success and effectiveness as well as add to the current leadership literature. The following sections highlight the time management and time perception literature, historical studies, current findings in time management and time perception, gaps in time management literature and organizational success.
Literature Review

Time management scholar Lakein is the “inventor of time management” (Porter, 1999, p. 41) and has provided valuable insight on controlling time. Lakein (1973) argued that there exists “no such thing as lack of time” (p. 12), but only the need for a more effective use of time. Lakein noted that setting priorities and goals is the objective of time management and priorities and goals are most effective in increments of 15, 30, and 60 minutes. Lakein assumed leaders who plan efficiently do so by gridding tasks. Although Lakein posited that time was not scarce, other scholars believed otherwise.

Time is one commodity that all people wish they had more of because limited time is available (Lee & Lee, 1991) in each workday. Each person’s perception of time is different and all offer various time strides (Lee & Lee, p. 5) in time management. Lee and Lee discussed four types of time strides: the overachiever, the self-disciplined, the “chase-your-own-tail” (p. 6), and the careless. The overachiever denotes the Type-A personality and overextends him or herself to the point of burnout. Further, the self-disciplined individual is well-balanced and recognizes the importance of introducing an even keel life. The chase-your-own-tail personality accomplishes people’s objectives but is unsystematic and represents the Type-C personality. The catalyst to the downfall of the Type-C personality is blaming others for one’s inability to be an effective time manager. Finally, the individual who does not care about time is unproductive. Whereas the focus of the literature was students, the concepts could apply to all individuals and bring validity to why individuals’ perceptions of time vary (Lee & Lee). Discovered perceptions result in opportunities to implement effective time management practices.
Stack (2000) described three key time management principles beneficial to leaders: “keeping employees from burning out; modeling effective time management behavior; and eliminating activities that waste time” (p. 35). The principles mirrored the literature in the current study, with the exception of employee burnout. Employees become easily overwhelmed when charged with completing several important projects at once. An increased workload often results in a lower quality of work and diminished effectiveness. A good management technique to prevent burnout is to look for signs such as fatigue, working excessive long hours, and distractedness. Effective leaders listen to staff to discern workload levels (Stack), and help employees develop effective time management strategies.

When leaders practice good time management habits, employees will experience the trickle effect of the leaders’ behavior. Exerting proactive behavior and limiting crisis management modes helps leaders reduce unproductive tasks, delegate assignments, and simplify work life. Stack (2000) noted that leadership in time management requires leaders to “(1) figure out what matters most, (2) empower yourself and others to develop the abilities needed to accomplish those important objectives, (3) remove obstacles to their accomplishment, and (4) eliminate procrastination” (p. 32).

Controlling time wasters is essential to time management leadership and organizational success. Stack (2000) discussed the challenges encountered in daily work lives that cause people to waste time and energy on unnecessary tasks. Time-wasting activities include scheduling unnecessary meetings and unplanned interruptions (Stack). Effective leaders ensure priorities are clear, successfully communicate organizational objectives, and train employees to be efficient time managers so company goals are met.
Priorities can become unclear and inconstant, which is a challenge in managing time (Weatherly, 2004). The best leaders create in others the competence and ability to manage time wisely in accordance with established goals (Weatherly, p. 35).

Many employees struggle with time management problems daily, in both for-profit and not-for-profit organizations. In a 2005 survey conducted by Basex, Incorporated (as cited in Needleman, 2007), researchers found that distractions result in two hours of each workday lost by the average full-time employee. Another report indicated that employees waste 60 minutes per day (Key Organizations Systems, 2007) in the office because of an ineffective use of time. Time management affects work efficiency. Interruptions play a major role in managing time and are one of the key issues of time management. Because daily interruptions are not avoidable, disturbances that affect the use of time need managing. Time is irreplaceable and requires effective time management skills to yield success (Pearce, 2007). The better people manage time, the more likely are those persons’ chances of resolving issues and completing projects on time.

**Time Management Strategies**

Hobbs (1987) defined time as “the occurrence of events one after another and define[d] management as the act of controlling” (¶ 8). Kleinmann and Koch (2002) defined time management as “the self-controlled attempt to use time in a subjectively efficient way to achieve outcomes” (p. 201). Kleinmann and Koch indicated that one’s choices determine time management. Time management is the ability to spend time on important achievable tasks (*Time Management*, 1999). As the work environment transforms, many employees faced with new work challenges tend to juggle numerous
tasks with limited time, which often leads to procrastination. O’Brien (2003) provided several organizational strategies to overcoming time management issues. The strategies included scheduling time better, prioritizing, using technology, organizing workspace, managing lists, knowing which projects are important, completing projects, and declining tasks. O’Brien also recommended several tactics on accomplishing the strategies. First, by maintaining a time log, leaders can assess how time is spent (O’Brien, p. 37), and eliminate those time wasters that do not impact the mission of the organization. Second, by working smartest during the most productive times of the day (O’Brien, p. 37), leaders can be diligent in accomplishing important tasks and reducing interruptions. Third, by using technology to improve productivity (O’Brien, p. 38), leaders have a greater opportunity to increase work efforts. Technology includes cell phones, updated software, personal digital assistants, and similar devices.

Another strategy O’Brien (2003) recommended is to organize workspace by ensuring everything has its place and by keeping the most used items accessible. O’Brien adopted personal productivity expert Allen’s suggestions regarding managing to-do lists as another time management strategy. The objective was to organize to-do lists into five lists in sequential order: projects, next actions, waiting for, calendar, and someday/maybe (Allen, as cited in O’Brien, p. 39). The projects list focuses on vision, and next actions are subsequent steps enumerated on the priority list. The waiting-for list is dependent on others for completion, whereas the calendar list is time-based appointments and meetings. The someday/maybe list contains items not ready for the projects list. Other strategies include understanding what is important, setting realistic completion timelines, and saying no to projects (Allen, as cited in O’Brien, p. 39).
When managing several ongoing projects, employees should assess the tasks more important and tackle the less important ones later to be more effective (Time Management, 1999). Many employees struggle with time management because of daily demands (Time Management). The primary focus of the current study was the nonprofit arena in which administrators often wear many hats resulting from limited staff and resources. Nonprofit leaders compete feverishly for grants that influence time management, thereby affecting organizational success and funding opportunities that can affect mission implementation.

Koch (1998) reintroduced the 80/20 principle, which suggests that 80% of job achievement (output) results from 20% of work effort (input). This theory originated from the Pareto law (as cited in Koch, 1998), which was a study of wealth distribution conducted in England in the 1800s. The Pareto theory indicated that “causes, results, outputs, inputs, and efforts and rewards” (p. 4) are disproportionate, including wealth allocation; hence, the birth of the 80/20 principle. Koch insisted the imbalance applies not only to the business arena, but also all facets of life. In a business context, 80% of profits come from 20% of customers (Koch, 2003).

Koch (2003) postulated that individuals can do more with less and adopting the 80/20 principle is the method to achieve success. Koch provided a unique approach to discussing time and its influence on the business world by combining Einstein’s general theory of relativity and Pareto’s law. Koch paraphrased Einstein’s relativity theory, indicating that four dimensions of space exist instead of three. The fourth entity was time, and Koch indicated the business world has not accepted that time is relative. In business,
Koch indicated that time is not other because time is a part of included or deducted service and product.

Koch (2003) posited that “time is an integral part of what we do and who we are. Time is a dimension where, like space, we can express ourselves and create a value for others, and therefore ourselves” (p. 84). With the combination of both Einstein’s and Pareto’s premises, Koch noted that if “80 percent of the wealth (or anything else desirable) is created in less than 20 percent of time available, then there is no shortage of time” (p. 84). Hence, a lack of time does not exist and individuals can do much more with less time. Under the doctrine of the 80/20 principle, a person can accomplish 60% more by working a two-day workweek (Koch, 2003).

Koch (2003) suggested two steps to creating 80/20 product and service time: compressing delivery time to customers and making a detailed plan to cut time (Koch, 2003). Compressing delivery time to customers is available in the format of self-service (Koch, 2003). The goal is to have the customer do the majority of the work, pay for the service, and determine that change is the most efficient method of reaping higher profits with low organizational input, which could result in lowering costs, speeding up service, improving customer satisfaction, and lowering costs. Some examples of self-service offerings include bank ATMs and cashier-free registers.

Cutting time involves devising an action plan with time measurements visibly indicated so an analysis of time use can ensue. The time between tasks completion often brings no value to an organization and frivolous, needless steps to achieve objectives. The Boston Consulting Group (as cited in Koch, 2003) indicated, “10% of the total time devoted to any work in an organization is truly value-added. The rest is wasted because
of unnecessary steps or unbalanced operations.” (p. 89). Planning before acting is crucial to the success of the 80/20 principle, which prompts individuals to exhibit their innermost business creativity. Similar to other scholars in the time management arena, Koch noted that identifying a person’s most valuable activities and linking those high-value activities to a new idea generally results in success (Koch, 2003). Leaders who understand the importance of time can effectively manage time and achieve success.

Thairu (1999) discussed the importance of time management in Africa, and the suggested strategies can apply to any organization in the world. Thairu provided a candid look at how Africa views time, but for purposes of the current study, definitions of time is not specific to any region. Although time management is not discriminatory toward any particular region of the world and the information in the current study is not country specific, Thairu’s writings about Africa were appealing because the continent’s population focuses on time management to improve top efficiency. Thairu suggested that time could be a tool to develop and empower individuals to manage time and implement strategies to become more effective. Before leaders can improve time efficiency, they must understand the meaning of time (Thairu, 1999).

Thairu (1999) presented many elements of time management, including quality time, time horizon, thinking time, flextime, and time keeping. Time exists so tasks can happen, and to experience time as a valuable source (Kearns & Gardiner, 2007), leaders need to know how to manage time resourcefully with the lowest costs. Time management, measured by numerous means, is a compilation of strategies to control time effectively. Quality time is the process of productively using time in a succinct manner to accomplish objectives. Future time is the basis for time horizon, and upper management
typically supervises with a focus on long-term organizational objectives. Thinking time is the opportunity to be creative and solve issues and incorporates into the workday or workweek. Flextime allows employees to design their schedules based on individual time constraints and generally results in higher productivity with the correct implementation (Thairu).

Ineffective time management results in lower task achievement and feelings of overburden (Thairu, 1999). Thairu posited that time management within organizations is sometimes problematic because of the demands involved and a lack of support. Individuals who ineffectively manage time experience stress as projects go undone, which results in a low capability of doing work, low efficiency, and ineffectiveness. Whether done consciously or not, many time wasters disrupt work efforts, whether internal or external to the organization. Common time wasters include poorly planned activities, miscommunication, poor information dissemination, and poor management (Thairu).

Thairu (1999) insisted that time management consists of three components: personal time management, organizational time management, and time management training for others within an organization. Time management improvement depends on the analysis, design, and implementation of an effective action plan to promote increased productivity and efficiency. The importance of leaders of categorizing organizational strengths and weaknesses as well as providing suggestions for improvement is crucial to determining efficiency of time. An analysis provides insight into the issues of current organizational time management use in addition to providing ways to improve time
management effectiveness. To achieve optimum quality improvement and efficacy in
time management, organizational cultures have to change (Thairu).

Thairu (1999) discussed motion and time studies, in which a motion study
involves an analysis of activities and removed or enhanced motions and time study
entails quantitative work measurements. Motion studies, typically designed to achieve
optimal efficiency with continual analysis, also involve a comparison of historical data.
Time studies determine how much time it takes to perform tasks, thereby attempting to
improve productivity and reducing the amount of time it takes to complete activities by
reviewing recorded motion studies and measuring the base time for each activity under
normal conditions. Other factors accounted for include equipment changes and issues,
delays, and fatigue impact analysis results. The studies work best on manual performance
observations rather than managerial functions such as planning. Another method of
observing time is to monitor random work samples based on particular tasks with no
definite outline of work routine (Thairu).

Whereas systems analysis focuses on how organizations spend time and other
intricacies as well as quality improvement and time reduction strategies, system design
concentrates on time management standards, improvement, and training. Based on the
results of the systems analysis, system design determines how to improve a system. Top
effective elements of system design include reduce time wasters; remove time wasting
activities; redesign work flow; and restate organizational mission, goals, objectives, and
vision. The last phase is implementing time management, which involves the
commitment of the leadership to ensure compliance through several methods such as
work plans, planners, charts, and calendars (Thairu). Thairu suggested several techniques
leaders could implement to gain the buy-in and empower employees including encouraging an exchange of ideas and providing the benefits of adopting effective new styles of new time management. Leaders can work cooperatively with employees to monitor and evaluate effectiveness of new time management styles and empower staff to devise a time scale implementation plan and includes allocation of resources and responsibilities of specific activities (Thairu). Leadership and organizational expert Covey’s (1989) philosophy aligns with the current literature and further insight is in the following discussion.

Covey (1989) emphasized that effective time managers “organize and execute around priorities” (p. 149), which resulted in the evolution of the four generations of time management. Covey postulated that the first generation of time management entailed checklists and notes. The second-generation workforce involved appointment books and calendars, and the third generation is reflective of the time management at the bottom end of the 20th century, which included prioritizing, planning, and accomplishing goals for important tasks and objectives. The fourth generation insinuated that “time management is a misnomer” (Covey, p. 150), indicating that individuals manage themselves rather than time. Covey believed that the fourth generation’s objectives were to build relationships and achieve results.

Covey (1989) best described the way people spend time in the *Time Management Matrix* (p. 150), describing four quadrants that signify urgency or not and important or not. Quadrant I include urgent activities important to organizational objectives, and Quadrant III includes urgent but unimportant activities that do not affect an organization’s bottom line. Quadrant II includes important but not urgent activities and
involves an ongoing process of maintenance, and Quadrant IV includes neither urgent nor important activities, which include time wasters and busywork. According to Covey, Quadrant II breeds effective management making for a less stressful workday. Many individuals spend 90% of their time in Quadrant I, which is unnecessary crisis mode, and the remaining 10% of time is spent in Quadrant IV. Effective managers accept manageable tasks that can work easily in Quadrant II (Covey). Although Covey’s time management insight is profound, Tierney and Collins expound by analyzing the organizational culture and the intricacies of managing organizations from *good to great*.

Tierney (1985) viewed the effective use of time from a cultural perspective in a collegiate setting in three dimensions, including (a) informal and formal uses of time, (b) historical, and (c) seasonal and ceremonial. Tierney suggested that administrators in higher education could make better use of their time not only by implementing effective time management strategies but also by closely examining the cultural aspect of the company. Tierney indicated that organizations are a “social construction” (p. 2) that consists of individual and organizational time and believed that “organizational time undoubtedly conditions the success of administrator’s time management practices” (p. 3).

The cultural context of time plays an important role in the way administrators manage time use effectively and does not necessarily depend on if a manager is good or bad because what works for one organization might not be a successful strategy in another company (Tierney, 1985). The way an organization views time is a cultural factor that affects how individuals within that institute adopt and react to its culture based on historical attributes and changing one’s behavior to acquiesce. Knowing the cultural...
history of an organization can affect change regarding how an individual acts to the social construct (Tierney).

Tierney (1985) discussed the mediation of time by organizations through social construction, which involved the implementation of three dimensions: informal (unplanned) and formal (planned), historical, and seasonal and ceremonial. The way individuals manage their own work time or workday is informal or formal depending on the event. Historical time is an individual’s reaction to organization dilemmas based on perceptions of the past. Tierney noted the implementation of historical time as a decision-making tool is the basis for institutional change. Seasonal and ceremonial time prompts individuals to manage projects based on their reality of time. Many organizations function in seasonal mode based on the calendar year, which includes budgeting. Ceremonial style dictates annual events that occur the same time of the year. Tierney believed that “time management influences decision making and implementation” (p. 7) through the three dimensions. If nonprofit leaders are to succeed in the technological age of the 21st century, success depends on not only skill levels, but also the ability to be an effective leader (Tierney).

Collins (2001) discussed five hierarchical levels of executive capabilities, with Level 1 as the lowest on the pyramid and Level 5 as the highest. Level 1 is not a demeaning role for leaders because leaders at this level are very capable of leading. Each succeeding level includes the previous level. According to Collins, the goal was to strive to be a Level 5 leader, which is not indicative of every leader and organization. Collins termed Level 1 leaders highly capable individuals who exhibit good work habits and possess knowledge, skills, and abilities, and indicated that Level 2 encompasses Level 1
and has the attribute of a contributing team member. As leaders move up the pyramid, they become more competent, and Level 3 managers are proficient in organizing individuals toward organizational objectives and goals. Collins posited that effective leaders dubbed under Level 4 pursue high performance standards aligned with the organizational vision. The final objective is to become a Level 5 executive who “builds enduring greatness through a paradoxical blend of personal humility and professional will” (p. 20). Collins (2001) dedicated an entire chapter to a discussion on the Level 5 leader, also known as the *good to great* leader.

Collins (2005) refused to accept that greatness for social sector organizations is run like a for-profit business. Collins (2005) believed that nonprofit organizations benefit by adopting the principles of good to great. The concept is similar to the flywheel applied to great businesses, except the framework focuses on nonprofit organizations by adopting the principles of good to great. Collins (2005) instituted a framework for social sector organizations to include the following:

- Defining “Great”—Calibrating Success without Business Metrics;
- Level 5 Leadership—Getting Things Done within a Diffuse Power Structure;
- First Who—Getting the Right People on the Bus within Social Sector Constraints;
- The Hedgehog Concept—Rethinking the Economic Engine without a Profit Motive; and
- Turning the Flywheel—Building Momentum by Building the Brand. (p. 3)
Collins (2001) noted a framework for the principles of transitioning from good to great are the processes to build up and break through. *Level 5 leadership* is the catalyst to ignite building an organization from good to great. Leaders must first determine whom they want on their team by replacing low performers and organizing the right people in the right areas of the organization. After the people are in place, an action plan is set to determine the vision. The next step toward breaking through is the ability of leaders to use the *Stockdale paradox* (p. 13), which involves the mind-set that failing is not an option no matter the difficulties encountered and facing reality is important to confronting the brutal facts. The *hedgehog concept* (p. 13) focused on improving competency levels to be the best in the world. Fourth, embracing a culture of discipline is vital to being a great company (Collins). The culture of discipline includes disciplined people, disciplined thought, and disciplined action (Collins). By adopting a combination of the three disciplines and an entrepreneurial spirit, greatness is sure to ensue.

Technology use is another stimulator for organizations to move from good to great. Leaders must circumspectly choose technology, and when coupled with forward thinking and pioneer-based transformation is good to great. The *flywheel* is the outer loop of building up and breaking through and fortunately, does not breed overnight transformations of good to great. Revolutionary changes are slow and continual toward the breakthrough and beyond point, resulting in the creation of a great company (Collins, 2005). Whereas Collins focused on ensuring organizations transition from good to great, other scholars focus on individuals’ perceptions of time and the impact this phenomena has on organizational culture and success.
Time Perception

Brown and Herring (1998) noted that people’s sense of time is either fast or slow. Time appears fast when times are good and fun, and slow when times are bad or boring. Brown and Herring indicated that cultural differences exist concerning perception of time and provided an example using the word tomorrow. Tomorrow has a connotation of the next day in England but in Spain, the indication is sometime (Brown & Herring). The next day is more precise than sometime, which gives a more lackadaisical sentiment (Brown & Herring).

Brown and Herring (1998) noted the “human mind does not treat time as an absolute, but as a highly variable phenomenon, dependent on a variety of internal and external factors” (p. 583). Conversely, Brown and Herring discussed the sentiments of Green (1975) and Gibson (1975), who both believed that perception of time does not exist. Green (1975) reported, “We do not experience time, per se, but only what goes on in time, and the experience of time has both quality and quantity” (p. 2). Gibson (1975) alleged “there is no such thing as the perception of time, but only the perception of events and locomotion” (p. 295).

Identifying perception promotes opportunities for organizational leaders to understand the importance of time management. The implications of how leaders of nonprofit organizations implement time management strategies to achieve optimum effort toward improvement are important as well. The following discussion focuses on historical time management studies and its progression.
**Historical Studies**

Investigators at the Institute of Management and DHL International conducted a research project in 1994 to explore how managers used time during the likelihood of organizational restructuring (Cole, 1995). The purpose of the qualitative patterns study was to ascertain how managers in the United Kingdom used and managed time in a flat organization in the wake of downsizing. The researchers focused on the best-known features of time management, including planning, prioritizing, delegation, and determining tasks urgent and important, are the least applied. The study also underlined work patterns and found that more than half the respondents wished they had more time to spend outside of work and more than two-thirds of the managers focused on job tasks (Cole).

Claessens et al. (2004) conducted a quantitative experimental study examining a mediation model that mediated control of time between planning behavior and outcome variables over time and tested an extension of the first mediation model that mediated perceived control of time between job characteristics, planning behavior, and outcome variables over time. Claessens et al. (2004) expected both models would improve after testing ensued. The assumption was that planning behavior could create a positive feeling of being in control of one’s time, productivity, job satisfaction, and health or a negative feeling of strain. Expectations from the two tested models was that at least partial mediation would improve the models, especially pertaining to direct links between planning behavior, work strain, job satisfaction, and job performance. The purpose of the study was to further research on planning behavior by checking earlier findings in a design in which gathered data were in two increments. Macan (as cited in Claessens et
al., 2004) concluded that control of time mediates the relationship between planning behavior and individual work strain, performance and satisfaction. Macan examined the validity of this part of the model and extend[ed] it by incorporating two variables derived from Karadek’s work on occupational stress, e.g., workload, job autonomy, which are likely to influence perceived control of time and outcome of variables. (Karadek as cited in Claessens et al., 2004, p. 942)

Claessens et al. (2004) suggested using multiple waves to establish the direction of the effects of time. The participants were research and development engineers in the Netherlands who were among leaders in the manufacturing of advanced technology systems to include 50 company sites in 16 countries. Ninety-nine of 124 surveyed engineers returned the first questionnaire, and 79 returned the second questionnaire. Claessens et al. collected data in two waves, with an interval of 3 months. The quantitative analysis of the study included descriptive statistics, coefficient alphas, and intercorrelations. The independent variables were measured at Time 1, and the dependent (mediating) variables were measured at Time 2. Claessens et al. could not prove that full mediation as suggested by Macan (as cited in Claessens et al., 2004) would lead to positive outcomes. The extended full mediation that included job characteristics did not significantly affect the data, either. Claessens et al. concluded that a combination of insights from the job demand-control model and time management perspectives would lead toward a better understanding of the processes involved in work strain, job satisfaction, and performance in highly autonomous jobs (Claessens et al.).

Hoyt (1983) noted that nonprofit administrators spend too much valuable time in meetings, which impacts organizational time and money. Hoyt suggested devising a cost
and benefit analysis to determine exactly how much time is spent in meetings. The typical categories of meetings are one-on-one meetings with internal staff, one-on-one meetings with someone external to the organization, group meetings with internal staff, and group meetings with someone external to the organization (Hoyt). The elimination of ineffective meetings saves organizations time and money.

Robinson (1973) undertook a study to maximize use of time through the implementation of an effective time management training sequence for school counselors. Robinson’s intent was to design a training sequence that allowed individuals to gain better control over their use of time through behavior change. Robinson anticipated that because of the training sequence, individuals would master problem-solving techniques and complete individual projects in a timely manner. The objective of the project was to decrease the time required to complete clerical and administrative tasks, increase measured task-orientation, and develop an internal orientation toward locus of control of reinforcement (Robinson). Robinson found that time management training did not influence behavior change.

Consistent with the literature, Sarp, Yarpuzlu, and Mostame’s (2005) results indicated that planning and prioritizing could be essential time management techniques, and leaders should be cognizant of the impact toward effectiveness. Sarp et al. concluded that the best method to overcome time management issues and to be an effective time manager is for leaders to identify priorities. Behavioral change is also important as leaders adopt better time management practices (Sarp et al.). Fitsimmons (2008c) posited that although behavior change is important, leaders should also be ready for unexpected circumstances that might require an unplanned action plan. The historical findings in time
the management literature yields similar results as the current literature. Managing time continues to be an issue as leaders strive for effectiveness, which the current literature reveals.

**Current Findings and Studies in Time Management**

Time management has plagued leaders and organizations since the early 1900s [as documented in scholarly journals], and the issue continues to stress some nonprofit leaders based on a 2007 survey conducted by Schreiter (2008). Schreiter focused on the stressors of 1,248 church administrators and revealed that time management was one of three primary issues encountered. Twelve percent of the respondents indicated that time management was an issue, especially relating to prioritizing, interruptions, and time constraints (Schreiter).

Robert Half Management Associates noted that 46% of 1,400 chief financial officers who responded to a survey focusing on key workplace challenges indicated that time management was their largest challenge (Pomeroy, 2006). This figure represented a 10% increase from the previous 5 years. The organization attributed the rise to increased responsibilities and functions (Pomeroy).

Cox (2006) suggested tackling time issues first by renaming the dilemma and giving the problem rooms or compartments to handle tasks. The essence of Cox’s strategy was to learn how to manage self and time, control which items goes into each room, take ownership of self-behavior, and provide new options to managing time. Cox noted that the problem with managing self is to recognize one’s response to others, not what the others are doing. Cox mentioned that determining the top priorities for the workweek and focusing on those main items would provide a sense of better time
management, especially if a person schedules high-energy projects during peak hours of
the day. Viewing each work shift as a container of time and prioritizing accordingly,
helps to manage time (Cox). Another strategy is to stay on track and focus on changeable
and manageable tasks and projects rather worrying about issues that one cannot control
(Cox). Cox suggested tackling larger projects in smaller steps to prevent feeling
overwhelmed. Managing self and time could cause resistance among colleagues, but to
avoid burnout, a person should find reinforcement in those who support the new ways
(Cox, 2006).

Hart-Hester (2003) discussed six time management strategies in an article
focusing on the secrets of effective leaders. Effective time management strategies
included establishing goals, developing to-do lists, establishing efficient routines,
delegating, setting timelines, and allowing down time. Identifying goals is important to
determine task completion objectives daily, weekly, or yearly (Hart-Hester). Setting
timelines, being specific, and prioritizing achievable objectives will allow success (Hart-
Hester). To-do lists are indispensable when determining daily tasks by priority of
importance (Hart-Hester). Tasks on to-do lists are often not achievable and daily
reassessment is necessary (Hart-Hester). A third strategy to saving time is to create
efficient, daily work routines which allows staff to analyze current efforts and task
practices as well as eliminate inefficient methods of working (Hart-Hester). Another
time-saving tactic is the delegation of tasks that others in the office can complete (Hart-
Hester). Setting sensible timelines to complete goals is an optimal way to save time,
which includes delegation. Last, scheduling down time is critical to becoming an
effective time manager (Hart-Hester). Time away from office stress is important to becoming efficient and more in control of one’s time (Hart-Hester).

Kleshinski’s (2005) qualitative study focused on time management strategies used by experienced medical clinicians. The focus of Kleshinski’s research was on for-profit medical practices, certain time management strategies could be applied to the nonprofit arena. Kleshinski’s main objective was to ascertain noticeable time management strategies and the learning and implementation processes of the strategies. The results of Kleshinski’s study revealed that experienced physicians encountered time management issues daily (Kleshinski).

Tracy (2004) reported that motivation is the key to creating time power. A person has to have the desire to be a successful time manager (Tracy). Ineffective decision-making is one of the prevalent culprits of robbing time (Tracy). Tracy discussed four types of decisions to improve decisions that affect time. Doing more in less time is the prevailing philosophy regarding time management scholars; although the practice does not demonstrate effective time management and leads to increased stress (Sawi, 2000). Making the best use of time is a challenge for all people, and identifying time wasters is fundamental to becoming a time efficient leader (Sawi).

Sawi (2000) discussed six techniques to balance work and life. As discussed in the literature, Sawi focused on prioritizing, delegating, simplifying, setting time limits, procrastinating, and eliminating. Two effective time savers are procrastination and elimination (Sawi). Procrastination is a strategy for delaying unimportant work, and elimination focuses on choosing not to do certain tasks (Sawi). Sawi posited that procrastination involves the postponement of low priorities that eventually become
unimportant to one person or important to another. Conversely, elimination is permanently deleting a task from a person’s to-do list (Sawi).

H. Smith (1994) discussed the importance of controlling life’s events and determining an individual’s reaction level to events that are uncontrollable. In providing a depiction of a control continuum, H. Smith indicated that the right side of events is controllable whereas the left side of events is uncontrollable, with anything in between controlled partially. According to H. Smith, after individuals discern that uncontrollable events require adaptation and less stress, people can have better control over not only their lives but also their time. H. Smith’s (1994) opinion about procrastination is different from Sawi’s (2000) in that H. Smith cited procrastination as a self-inflicted time robber that negatively impacts time management, whereas Sawi defined procrastination as an intentional strategy to save time by simply not completing tasks. Recognizing that planning, prioritizing, and setting achievable task goals are effective time management strategies, H. Smith (1994) concurred with other time management experts in this regard. H. Smith provided a different concept to prioritizing by coining the term laser thinking (p. 103), which is the ability to determine life’s highest personal and professional priorities and which commands the most value. Laser thinking begins in the planning stages, in which “time and energy is spent on daily activities through the lens of your governing values and goals” (H. Smith, p. 104). Instead of focusing on mundane tasks, H. Smith suggested concentrating on future goals and aspirations because prioritizing is the catalyst to effective time management.

Crosby (2004) indicated that compared to their counterparts, family physicians work longer hours; make less money; have less time off; and run frantically between
family, office, hospital, and patients. To improve time management efforts and achieve a happier and better lifestyle, Crosby suggested 10 time management strategies. Not all strategies may apply directly to non-physicians, but they could be helpful nonetheless.

The first strategy Crosby stressed was the importance of receiving help to assist with managing time. Scheduling a mini-retreat with office staff, and possibly management consultants, is essential to determining wasted time and developing strategies to improve work performance (Crosby). Using a master calendar for all staff can help eliminate conflicts with scheduling.

Another strategy is to analyze appointment patterns to help reduce overbooking and to determine the best times for acute and routine office visits (Crosby). Performing the same tasks in blocks of time is another opportunity to manage time efficiently (Crosby). People can minimize interruptions between appointments by scheduling time to speak to anyone other than colleagues and staff to prevent continual disturbances throughout the day (Crosby). Multitasking is a useful strategy to implement because the skill allows doctors to perform more than one task simultaneously such as reviewing medical records and on hold on the telephone (Crosby).

According to J. W. Smith (2005), multitasking is not a useful tool because it “diminishes the power and impact of information” (p. 56) and increases stress because individuals toggle between tasks. Using dictation is another time saver, as many physicians talk faster than they write (Crosby, 2004). Crosby suggested scheduling additional patients each week to offset the expense of hiring a dictation service. Another suggestion is to handle paperwork once; family physicians can streamline in-box overflow paperwork (Crosby). Distributing advice sheets on illnesses, diets, and other
medical advice saves time and money, as well eliminates unnecessary office visits (Crosby). Last, Crosby suggested that physicians should book private, quality time away from the office. Crosby stated that no single strategy is suitable for everyone, but any time management program can prove to be effective in the office. Weatherly (2004) suggested several strategies for optimizing workdays including work/life balance, setting priorities, managing technology, delegating and controlling interruptions.

Carroll (2007) suggested several time management tips for home-based businesses, including organizing tasks by significance, designing an efficient filing system, and controlling clutter. Urgent tasks require immediate attention but important tasks assist in achieving long-term objectives. The concept of time management stresses the importance of quality rather than quantity. Carroll clarified that spending time on what is important rather than working diligently produces efficacy. Carroll recommended applying five time management strategies to improve productivity. Prioritizing achievable goals and objectives is one way to manage time. Another way to save time and become more efficient is to develop realistic to-do lists, which are more effective when prioritized and achievable. Eliminating distractions is another time strategy that can improve a workday. Scheduling planning time is essential in time management. Carroll discussed the importance of an efficient filing system as an effective time management strategy. Organized files allow staff immediate access to documents and they should be able to retrieve documents within 30 seconds. Last, eliminating clutter will provide a more efficient workspace (Carroll, 2007).

In a study by Waterworth (2003), the primary objective was to determine what strategies nurses implemented to manage work time effectively. Waterworth chose to use
a qualitative method of study to collect data from 68 participants working in five health facilities in the United Kingdom through interviews, focus groups, and narratives as well as by audio tape-recording all participants’ responses to guarantee exactness. Waterworth found that many nurses executed various time management strategies, including prioritizing, routinization, task juggling, playing catch up, suppression, and broadening temporal restrictions. The primary strategies discussed in Waterworth’s study were prioritizing and routinization. The participants’ efforts to implement effective time management strategies were often impeded by other factors, such as determining which strategies to use based on the nurses’ abilities to apply a series of actions and interactions depending on the situation and influences (Waterworth).

The most challenging tasks often required nurses to employ a series of time strategies to maximize performance levels that could involve individuals, teams, and the organization (Waterworth, 2003). Problem resolution is either temporary or permanent and often involves prioritizing based on importance. The nurses in Waterworth’s study implemented provisional or indirect time strategies as a temporary fix to continual issues while employing permanent or direct time strategies to prevent the problem from occurring. Waterworth indicated that prioritizing is an anticipated strategy that nurses should use to provide effective work performance. Nurses in the study practiced routines that guided their workdays and provided a sense of order and time structure as well as reduced the use of time management strategies, yet unexpected disruptions could ensue that might increase the time required to determine time management strategies. Waterworth noted, “Prioritizing provides a structure for the temporal ordering of work” (p. 436) that could help improve work performance.
Pearce (2007) posited that to be effective in managing time, leaders should analyze how they work and the time expended to do work, which requires a methodical approach (p. 23). Pearce offered several tips to assist nursing leaders in becoming effective time managers including preparing and learning from activity logs, delegating, prioritizing, managing interruptions and meetings, and using technology. Pearce’s suggestions were similar to the works of other scholars reviewed in the current study and indicated that planning is essential to becoming effective and successful. Drucker (1967) suggested that planning is not as essential to managing time as other scholars noted. Much of the literature reviewed in the current study focused on planning as one of the key strategies to managing time and becoming more effective.

Drucker (1967) concluded that planning rarely works because effective executives begin by determining in which they are spending time and not how to plan work. Eliminating unproductive tasks and demands is the next step executives take toward effectiveness. Last, executives consolidate unrestricted time into long-lasting components. Drucker (1967) noted that effective executives record, manage, and consolidate time. Drucker (1967) elucidated that because time is a unique, unyielding, and inimitable resource, everything involves time, which people are not ready to manage (p. 26). Knowing where time goes is essential toward becoming an effective executive, and Drucker (1967) indicated that many top-level administrators waste time on tasks not organization driven but must be done because of his or her position in a company. The higher an executive is within an organization, the more demands on his or her time persist (Drucker, 1967).
Drucker’s (1967) philosophy dictated that executives in top positions waste time continually on tasks that have little bearing on organizational success. The first step toward effectiveness is recording time use. A log of time used is valuable if kept on a monthly basis throughout the year so that better efforts to managing time can take precedence. Managing time entails eliminating time wasters and unproductive tasks. Drucker (1967) suggested that executives should ask a series of problem-solving questions including “What would happen if this were not done at all” (p. 36)? “Which of the activities on my time log could be done by somebody else just as well, if not better” (p. 37)? “What do I do that wastes your time without contributing to your effectiveness” (p. 38)? By asking these questions, effective executives begin the process of recognizing time-consuming and unproductive activities and eliminating time wasters not only for the administrator, but also for others (Drucker, 1967).

After answering Drucker’s (1967) questions, time-waster reduction strategies can ensue, which are similar to Crosby’s (2004) 10 time management suggestions. Time wasters surface because of poor crisis management; overstaffing, mal-organization, and information malfunction and result from varying symptoms (Drucker, 1967). Poor management on reoccurring crises is a “symptom of slovenliness and laziness” (Drucker, p. 42). Drucker (1967) noted a large workforce is ineffective and people are often interacting and not working. To combat this issue, Drucker (1967) reported that organizations are more likely to be effective when a streamlined workforce is in place with the skills and knowledge required to manage the business daily. A third time waster is mal-organization and is a symptom of unnecessary meetings. Executives spending more than 25% of their time in meetings are wasting time (Drucker). Drucker (1967)
noted that too many meetings indicate poor job composition, communication issues, and diffused responsibility among staff. The best solution is not to include top administrators in every meeting, but keep them abreast of the strategic decisions that require their attention. A malfunction in information is the last time waster Drucker (1967) discussed the way disseminated information flows through organizational lines that prevents a person from receiving information. Time-wasting issues are simple to correct, but in those instances in which issues take longer to correct, the expended time and effort are well worth the gain of effective time management (Drucker, 1967).

Drucker (1967) stated that once executives record, analyze, and manage time, the final step to effective time management is to determine the allotted time available to implement large tasks. The technique in consolidating available time can begin with working from home one day a week or scheduling certain weekdays to work on major issues. The technique used to consolidate discretionary time is not as important as controlling the time. As time is the scarcest resource, Drucker (1967) noted that everyone could track the sanction “Know Thy Time” (p. 51), which is the catalyst toward time management effectiveness.

The literature on time management strategies appears to be prevalent among scholars and studies that determine leaders’ efficiency levels; consequently, an abundance of literature exists regarding suggested time management strategies that focus on the importance of prioritizing and planning. Effective time management viewpoints were similar among scholars in the past and in the present. Planning is important to time management execution because when strategies go awry, leaders could spend more time on fixing the issues rather implementing new plans (Fitsimmons, 2008a). When goals are
set, the planning process begins (Fitsimmons). The focus of the literature review is leaders’ ability to prioritize and plan, which makes them more effective time managers and seems to be the recurring strategy among much of the literature. Leaders’ perception of time is important to determine the level of managing time.

*Current Findings and Studies in Perceptions of Time*

Brown and Herring’s (1998) primary objective was to “discern a difference in temporal perception between directors, managers, and staff of an organization” (p. 585) focusing on decision making and strategic thinking. Brown and Herring opted to use an exploratory, qualitative method of study and separated the organizational participants into three groups with different directives. Group 1 consisted of the directors whose goal was to ensure the strategic direction of the organization (Brown & Herring). Group 2 contained the middle managers of the company whose objective was to handle medium-term operational goals (Brown & Herring). Group 3 included staff whose responsibility involved daily operations and nonstrategic decisions. The study’s population consisted of 35 employees, 17 men and 18 women, ranging between the ages of 22 and 65, with 39 as the mean age (Brown & Herring). Six other unquestioned employees were staff and did not want to participate, worked off-site or were salespeople, which would not have been a good representation of the study participants. The participants answered 10 questions in an informal questionnaire (Brown & Herring). By using a questionnaire, Brown and Herring had a better opportunity to gain participants’ trust, which tended to evoke honest responses (Brown & Herring).

The variables in Brown and Herring’s (1998) study were temporal relatedness (TR) and temporal dominance (TD), developed by Thomas Cottle who coined the term
circle tests (Cottle, 1967). Temporal relatedness is “how subjects visualize their past, present and future in relation to each other” (p. 587). Temporal dominance is “whether subjects attribute more significance to their past, present or future” (p. 587).

The circle test was the instrument used to measure the participants’ perception of time (Brown & Herring, 1998). The objective of the test was to allow participants to draw three circles, which represented the past, present, and future and analyze the circles based on their position and size, including the circles’ linked, internal, and atomistic arrangement (Brown & Herring). These factors, along with age, sex, organizational responsibility, and TR and TD indexes, gave the researchers an opportunity to analyze TD in relation to perception of time. Brown and Herring found that the circle test was a good representation of the objective of the study and established that a correlation existed between TD index and age, indicating that the older the participant, the higher the TD index. All age groups and participants revealed future dominance and people age 50 or younger showed present dominance. Past dominance increased with participants aged 40 or less. Brown and Herring found that a wide range of variance existed in temporal perception.

Neely (2007) discussed how an engineering plant manager’s perception of work time related to visual work performance and movement of employees. The more movement and activity shown by employees indicated to management that staff was productive, multitasking, and working toward organizational objectives, which was not always the case depending on each worker’s job responsibilities. From management’s point of view, seeing effectiveness was a gauge that the work was done and time was managed effectively signifying both work quality and quantity, which is not a good
indicator of whether or not employees were managing their time and multitasking. Multitasking is a skill most employers list in job advertisements, although no one person can work on projects simultaneously to be effective without creating issues. Neely posited that multitasking is not always the key to productivity, and it was not fair to employees to expect them to work on projects simultaneously because all work involves a shift from one way of thinking to another. If management requires staff to be busy all the time, employees’ perceptions of time centers on appearing busy to demonstrate productivity without doing the work. Neely noted improved productivity was a result of an effective action plan that aligned with operational objectives.

Ackerman and Gross (2003) studied students’ “perception of free time availability on time pressure and time deprivation, on student performance, and on perceptions of university work” (p. 21) in addition to other factors. Ackerman and Gross found that students who perceived they had less time performed better academically than those students who indicated they had more free time. The students who perceived they had less free time exuded more promise of future career success, and students who had less free time developed time management skills even though their schedules were busy (Ackerman & Gross).

Vinton (1992) insisted that varying perspectives of time exist among scholars who discuss influences among individual perceptions of time, including cultural perceptions, ethnic perceptions, and demographics. One’s beliefs, attitudes, and values gravely affect how productivity progresses among organizational lines (Vinton). The perception of past, present, and future has always been a factor in analyzing time horizons because of planning and anticipated results (Vinton). Leaders who have shorter horizons want to
yield quick results, whereas the adverse is true for managers with longer perspectives. Time pressure is a key factor that affects a person’s motivation and performance levels, thereby creating procrastination (Vinton). Vinton noted,

The effect of a speed criterion on performance might depend in part upon whether the employee sees the rate required as fast enough to provide a challenge but not so fast as to be impossible to achieve. In addition, the perceived consequences of working faster—e.g., the possibility of receiving individual or group recognition, of contributing to improved company profits and receiving increased wages, or of simply being assigned more of the same to do—can influence how a demand for speed is received and whether it results in improved productivity or some unanticipated (and potentially negative) effect. (p. 10)

The literature on temporal perspectives toward organizational planning and decision making appears to be prevalent among scholars and works of study that determine leaders’ time horizons, although limited information is available on the time perceptions of leaders of nonprofit organizations. The perception of time appears to be very similar among past and present scholars, with a few dissenters. Wearden (2008) indicated that previous time perception research failed to discuss fully the importance of “whether something is located in the past, present or future” (p. 150). The recurring factor among much of the literature is that perception of time seems to focus on individuals’ perceptions of past, present, and future. Demonstrating adequate temporal skills is important to completing work-related tasks and becoming successful (Thoms & Pinto, 1999). Determining how individuals perceive the past, present, and future
influences on decision-making capabilities and processes and on time management skills might be the key to improving organizational success.

Organizational Success and Effectiveness

The majority of the research reviewed centered on for-profit outcome measurements of applied time management principles but not on how the principles measure the organizational success of nonprofits. Drucker (2004) provided insight into the commitment of management within nonprofit organizations. Nonprofit leaders committed to organizational effectiveness adopt “higher organizational standards, leadership, accountability, performance, and results” are necessary (p. 198).

Stout (2001) purported using time to measure nonprofit organizations’ effectiveness and efficiency level is one of the best tools to determine organizational performance. Stout attributed organizational success by how nonprofit staff members use the 24 hours in a day. By analyzing time use, opportunities exist for leaders of nonprofit organizations to ascertain any inefficiencies in ensuring mission attainment and improved results. Stout suggested applying an evaluation technique termed Activity-Based Time Management (ABTM) to nonprofit organizations to measure success. The goal of ABTM is to relay the amount of time used by organizations to accomplish desired results. Applying ABTM to nonprofit organizations provides a snapshot of allocations of time for important outcomes. Leaders can evaluate the time spent on activities and implement useful tools to maximize organizational success as well as provide a guideline on how nonprofit staff members use time (Stout).

Green and Skinner (2005) conducted a quantitative and qualitative study to determine the effectiveness of time management training. Green’s (as cited in Green &
Skinner, 2005) Key Skills Questionnaire was the measurement instrument and was “linked to key time management skills” (p. 128). The instrument was adopted to use on five types of time management training: executive time management, time tips, managing priorities, sales time management, and time management (Green & Skinner). All the time management trainings were applied to 20 courses, including charity and public (Green & Skinner). As a result of participants rating their time management skills against the training objectives, findings indicated that 89% of respondents reported an improvement in behavior as a result of the training (Green & Skinner, 2005, p. 132). The significant outcome indicates that time management training could be effective for leaders of nonprofit organizations.

Although Green and Skinner (2005) found positive results on the impact of time management training on behavior effectiveness, Kearns and Gardiner (2007) concurred with Green and Skinner’s initial hypothesis of limited existing data that confirmed if time management implementation behavior improves effectiveness. Conversely, Kearns and Gardiner focused on “relationships between time management behaviors and perceptions of effectiveness, work-related morale and work-related distress in a university environment” (p. 237). Kearns and Gardiner determined which time management behavior is the most effective in achieving success. Based on their experience, Kearns and Gardiner chose to focus on the following behaviors:

1. Developing clear purposes in careers.
2. Planning and prioritizing.
3. Avoiding interruptions and distractions.
4. Improving organization skills (p. 237).
Kearns and Gardiner (2007) found that participants perceived themselves to be more productive and effective when using the above time management behaviors. Based on the order of the behaviors listed above, Kearns and Gardiner found that respondents who had a clear purpose were most effective, and organized participants were the least effectiveness. Kearns and Gardiner’s findings showed that “some time management behaviors are able to predict perceived effectiveness and work-related morale and stress better than others” (p. 246).

The literature review does not represent all time management resources; however, in the absence of time and available current literature, assumptions prevailed to discern that ample information was available to conduct the current study. Leaders of nonprofit organizations continue to bridge the gap between perception of time use and the implementation of practical time management strategies within nonprofit organizations.

**Gaps in Theory of Time Management**

Historical study and current research regarding the perception of time and the implementation of effective time management strategies focus on various aspects of factors that influence yesterdays and today’s time issues. The majority of the research has centered on for-profit organizations that demand increased productivity to improve the bottom line. Based on research obtained from the literature review, measuring organizational success could stem from the productivity levels of staff. The literature indicates that perceptions of time based on how leaders perceive the past, present, and future depend on their cultural background. Time management strategies effective in one organization might not be successful in another.
In the current study, the problem was that leaders of nonprofit organizations not completing job assignments in a timely manner may cause a loss of funding that impacts organizational success. The lack of an effective time management plan could negatively affect nonprofit organizations’ budgets and organizational success. This mixed methods study explored leaders’ of nonprofit organizations perceptions of time use and effective use of time management strategies impact on organizational success. The conjecture was learning how administrators of nonprofit organizations perceive time, which yielded some insight into how organizational leaders can improve use of time and organizational success.

Historical and current research regarding time management strategies are universal and can apply to all types of companies, although research continues to focus more on for-profit businesses that demand increased productivity to improve the bottom line rather than mission-based nonprofit organizations. Drucker (2004) noted that nonprofit leaders did not focus on the bottom line historically, although over the past 20 years many nonprofit leaders recognize the importance of the bottom line but lack the discipline to control it. Hence, measuring organizational success could result from recognizing productivity levels of staff. The literature indicated that the use of effective time management strategies is the most efficient method of managing one’s time.

Draper (2006) posited that the current trend in philanthropy based on business models influences the efficiency and goal achievement of nonprofit leaders and organizations, which adds more pressure and increases expectations for nonprofits to succeed. Foundation assets have increased and funders are donating more funds with limited staff members, which indicate that nonprofit staff members have additional duties
with no increase in human resources. Draper interviewed eight nonprofit leaders and found that all had experienced increased workloads to meet the growing demands of grant making. Even with increased workloads, grant makers were adamant about meeting high standards in reviewing and granting proposals. With more work and limited time, nonprofit leaders work longer hours. The trend in nonprofit management has been to manage the office after normal business hours from home to spend time with family and friends. With the increased workload, nonprofit grant makers, funders, and leaders are less able to schedule regular site visits and participate in exploratory conversations with grantees (Draper).

Draper (2006) discussed such time wasters as unplanned interruptions, inefficient meetings, clutter and disorganized data, procrastination and indecision, and lack of priorities. To improve time management, Draper suggested the use of technology, which includes personal digital assistants, online grant applications, cell phones, e-mail, and electronic grant management systems. To be effective time managers, Draper indicated that individuals with busy workloads must exercise, eat regularly and drink plenty of water, exercise the right brain, rest, maintain associations with friends and family, and participate in hobbies and other non-work activities. Work–life balance is essential to success (Draper). Jenson (1998) posited that leaders can gain a balanced life by becoming “open, relaxed and confident” (p. 48), which leads to more creativity and attentiveness. Exemplifying a balanced life could impact how leaders manage organizations and time.

Claessens et al. (2007, p. 256) posited time is unmanageable, inaccessible, and subjective. Although the literature review provided valuable time management insight, none provided a detailed evaluation of time management studies specifically geared for

Claessens et al. (2007) reviewed time management literature from 1982 to 2004. Claessens et al. (2007) asserted that their review was significant as no other empirical assessment of time management had been published in over 20 years since Richards (p. 256). Kearns and Gardiner (2007) concluded that even though vast data exist on time management practices, studies testing the empirical validity of time management principles is minimal (p. 236).

The literature review showed that individual time management behavior relates to several factors including perceived control of time. From the literature review, many of the scholars determined that although time management training is effective, improved performance is not an immediate consequence. Much of the literature focused on the typical strategies discussed in this research investigation such as documenting planning efforts and devising to-do lists (Claessens et al., 2007).

Claessens et al.’s (2007) time management literature review and analysis represented compiled data that substantiated the need for the current study. Of the 32 studies analyzed, no time management data presented strategies specifically for nonprofit organizations. After reviewing past studies, Claessens et al. could not discern an agreeable and collective definition of time management and therefore, offered the following definition of time management: “behaviors that aim at achieving an effective use of time while performing certain goal-directed activities” (p. 262). Behaviors include time assessment, planning, and monitoring (Claessens et al.).
Claessens et al.’s (2007) time management review failed to answer the question “how does time management work and why?” (p. 264). No time management theory resulted. The study that came closest to providing a time management theory was by Macan (as cited in Claessens et al., 2007).

Claessens et al.’s (2007) review of the time management literature between 1982 and 2004 revealed that past studies in the field indicated “positive effects of time management on perceived control of time” (p. 272). Claessens et al. (2007) gave no indication of studies conducted on nonprofit organizations. The lack of such studies confirmed the gap between for-profit and nonprofit organizations regarding the effective use of time management strategies.

Conclusion

Chapter 2 included a discussion of the perception of time use and the application of an effective time management program to improve organizational success and funding efforts. Prevalent in nonprofit organizations is the need to learn effective time management strategies to create a balance between work and personal life. To determine if the adoption of effective time management strategies is beneficial for leaders of nonprofit organizations, a mixed methods study is the most effective method to ascertain leaders’ perceptions of time use and the impact effective time management strategies will have on organizational success.

Experts in the field of time management agree on the importance of implementing time management techniques to become more efficient and organized. Time management is essential to work productivity. As many researchers indicated, the effective use of basic time management strategies could ensure that tasks completed in a timely manner
might add little additional stress. This premise is the basis of this research investigation. The data derived from the current study provided much needed information on how some leaders of nonprofit organizations manage time and present strategies for becoming better time managers. The concern for a lack of effective time management in nonprofit organizations is the basis for the explored problem. Determining perceptions of time use and recognizing one’s impact on decision-making capabilities and processes is crucial to managing time and executing strategies toward improving organizational success. Those who manage time effectively have more time because they exhibit skills in time management (Hoover, 2007).

Based on the literature discussion, managing time is critical to managing self and the work–life balance while simultaneously affecting organizational success through effective time management. The literature review in chapter 2 provided the foundation for this mixed methods research study. Nonprofit leaders faced with issues of financial and human resources work diligently to ensure mission implementation. To understand the daily time dilemmas faced by administrators of nonprofit organizations, reviewing valuable time management strategies and the triumph of effective leaders could be a pivotal and crucial element toward organizational success. Drucker’s (1967) time management strategies are important to this project because of the relevancy to the problem of administrators of nonprofit organizations not implementing valuable time management strategies and will provide insight to effective leadership.

Summary

Time management strategies aimed solely at nonprofit leaders and organizations remain limited. The literature supports the lack of knowledge available regarding the
effective use of time management strategies in nonprofit organizations. Nonprofit organizations are unique, in that most of the allocated funding is for programs and projects, with limited funding available for administrative costs to manage the operational outlays of the organizations. With the growing demands of program-related tasks, administrators of nonprofit organizations provide additional services with limited funds, which is often a challenge.

Chapter 2 included a discussion regarding the various time management strategies to be effective leaders and the development of effective time management skills to improve organizational success. Chapter 2 provided background information on participants linked to the problem statement and subsequent findings for each of the variables. Chapter 3 contains a discussion on the current study’s methodology supported by the literature presented in chapter 2. As suggested by the literature, adoption of time management strategies impacts organizational success, thereby leading to the development of better time management skills and resulting in the development of effective leaders. Leaders determining the most effective use of learned time management strategies are the key toward improving organizational success.
CHAPTER 3: METHOD

Critical components identified within the methodology include design appropriateness, unit of analysis, population under investigation, sample criteria, data collection, and data analysis. The purpose of the current study was to explore nonprofit administrators’ perceptions of time use and discover effective time management strategies suitable for administrators of nonprofit organizations. Chapter 3 includes a description of the methodology of the research study to support the research questions, a description of the survey instrument, an explanation for each research question, and an explanation of the statistical approach.

The research study involved the use of a mixed methods research methodology to explore nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use and the use of effective time-management strategies by administering the *Time Management Practices Inventory* (TMPI) online survey instrument, and by interviewing nonprofit administrators working in technical college foundations across the state of Georgia.

Research Design

The primary objective in undertaking this mixed methods research study was to discover nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use and ascertain suitable effective time management strategies for these individuals. When conducting a mixed methods study, integrating both qualitative and quantitative approaches is necessary to explore the problem (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007). From a qualitative perspective, phenomenological designs allow understanding of themes related to personal responses and experiences rather than face-value answers (Blum, 2006). Qualitative designs involve an attempt to discover why, how, and what is occurring (Yin, 1993). Blum indicated that
phenomenological designs help researchers answer questions based on “themes from the experiences of the subjects” (¶ 1). Participants’ personal experiences help researchers evaluate and solve problems and determine emerging themes (Blum). Phenomenological designs help to clarify problem resolution and reveal themes to solve the issue (Blum). Discovering patterns of leaders’ use of time will be helpful in analyzing which activities are dominating (Weatherly, 2004).

In the current study, quantitative scores triangulated with qualitative data resulted in emerging themes from participants’ experiences to help solve problems of time management. Creswell (1994) discussed the triangulation theory, which stated that “any bias inherent in particular data sources, investigator, and method would be neutralized when used in conjunction with other data sources, investigators, and methods” (p. 174).

Pfaff and Associates’ TMPI survey instrument was administered to a sample selected from 33 nonprofit technical college foundations. The TMPI survey is a norm-based instrument that assesses an individual’s time management skills. The instrument has 31 statements on a 7-point scale and helps leaders recognize strengths and weaknesses regarding task orientation, planning, and prioritizing. Pfaff and Associates have used the TMPI hundreds of times for training programs and individual development (L. A. Pfaff, personal communication, November 14, 2009).

TMPI measures time management skills, paperwork, initiatives, resistance, planning, self-confidence, priority setting, and deadlines (Pfaff and Associates/PAN, 2008). The TMPI categories discussed above were employed. In support of this effort, follow-up questions (see Appendix G) facilitated the discussions that took place during the interviews. A key element in the design of the follow-up interview questions was to
follow the same statements first explored in the quantitative instrument, but also to
obviate the limitations of quantitative statements by allowing participants to expand on
their responses and to probe responses for explicit or implicit meanings.

Letters were sent both electronically and via U.S. Postal Service to the selected
population requesting involvement from technical college foundation leaders working
within the Technical College System of Georgia. Participants were informed that no risks
existed with the research study, and participation was voluntary. Participants’ names
remained confidential and all data were secured. Participants could have withdrawn from
the research study at any time without penalty.

An initial proposition to conduct a quantitative survey solely was under
consideration, but to discover the root problem, qualitative questions were added to
intensify the current study. A mixed methods study was conducted that involved
analyzing both qualitative and quantitative data. Qualitative designs explore patterns or
themes in data not necessarily in numerical format to answer the driving research
questions and fill in the gap in knowledge that is the problem (Creswell, 2004).
Quantitative designs test theories and examine relationships between two or more
variables (Simon & Francis, 2001). Quantitative research determines if one or more
variables impact another variable, which depicts if relationships exist among the variables
(Creswell, 2005, p. 45). The quantitative aspect of the current study was to determine if
the Time Management Practices Inventory scores related to respondent demographics.
The data obtained from the study provided preliminary research into why leaders of
nonprofit organizations might not use effective time management strategies to improve
organizational success.
The anticipated timeline of the research study to collect data was dependent upon the ARB and IRB committees’ approvals. Upon approval of this research, an 8 month time frame was needed to conduct the current study and analyze the data. This timeframe also included initial written and verbal communications, follow-up electronic communication and interviews, which depended on the availability of the participants.

Design Appropriateness

Based on the research, vast amounts of literature exist on the effective use of time management practices; however, according to Briddel (1986) strategies strictly developed for nonprofit staff are lacking. The need for effective time management strategies research is insurmountable in the nonprofit arena because it seems that most current research accentuates other professions including medicine (Hader, 2006) and education (O’Donovan, 2006). To gain a better perspective on time management issues faced by leaders of nonprofit organizations, a mixed methods design guided the current study. Mixed methods designs involve gathering and analyzing both quantitative and qualitative data.

Bielefeld (2006) posited that quantitative studies “test a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers, and analyzed with statistical procedures to determine if the predictive generalizations of the theory hold true” (p. 398). Qualitative designs explore patterns or themes in data not necessarily in numerical format to answer the driving research questions and fill in the gap in knowledge that is the problem (Creswell, 2004). Bielefeld also noted qualitative studies “build a complex, holistic picture, formed with words, reporting detailed views of informants, and conducted in a natural setting” (p. 398). This mixed methods study was appropriate because the results provided insight
into why leaders of nonprofit organizations might not use effective time management strategies to improve organizational success. Creswell (2005) affirmed that mixed methods studies present better opportunities to comprehend research problems.

Triangulation

Triangulation is a data analysis strategy used to compare qualitative and multi-method research studies (Briller, Meert, Schim, Thurston & Kabel, 2008). Various types of triangulation methods exist, including “methodological, data, investigator, interdisciplinary, theoretical, unit of analysis, communication, conceptual and collaborative” (p. 247). The current study used three types of triangulation, including methodological, unit of analysis, and conceptual.

The methodological method involves collecting and analyzing data multiple types of data. Methodological triangulation aided the study’s data collection process through administering an online survey and conducting individual interviews. The unit of analysis in this research involved using the SPSS and NVivo 8 software to analyze the data. Both instruments proved efficient and provided detailed results of the collected data. The conceptual triangulation involved an integration of both qualitative and quantitative data in the NVivo 8 software to obtain results. Inquiry writing, literature review research, and knowledge of the topic aided in the current study. Triangulation validates results and substantiates the evidence (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis refers to “the type of unit a researcher uses when measuring” (Neuman, 2003, p. 153). Neuman posited that the unit of analysis is typically the individual in research using surveys. The unit of analysis in the study was the nonprofit
The vital objective of the study was to determine if nonprofit administrators’ perceptions of time influenced organizational funding opportunities. Content analysis measured the themes in each nonprofit administrator’s responses. The content analysis technique involves “gathering and analyzing the content of text” (Neuman, 2003, p. 310).

Population and Sample Under Investigation

The population was selected from the Technical College System of Georgia’s 33 technical college foundations located across the state of Georgia. This mixed methods research study involved an exploration into leaders’ perceptions of time use and implementation of effective time management strategies by interviewing administrators of nonprofit organizations working in technical colleges across the state of Georgia. The total population of these subgroups consisted of 33 nonprofit leaders. The population was limited to nonprofit administrators who work in the Technical College System of Georgia because the population is easily accessible and the likelihood of receiving a greater response rate was probable. A goal of the current study was to investigate the best time management practices available to assist leaders in completing assignments. Triangulation of the findings compared survey and interview responses to secondary data from the literature.

Sampling Frame

The sample criteria in the current study included the following characteristics: (a) serve as a nonprofit leader in a technical college foundation in the state of Georgia, (b) manage a minimum of one person which can include the leader, (c) possess a minimum of 6 months of work experience, and (d) experience issues with time management. The
selected population was contacted via e-mail and the U.S. Postal Service to provide
details of the study and request each leader’s willingness to participate.

The sampling strategy was selected purposely because the chosen population
could best provide an understanding of the problem. Creswell (2005) noted that
purposeful sampling requires selecting a population that can provide detailed information
about a phenomenon that could be useful and informative. Purposeful sampling should
include 5 to 25 respondents (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). The current study included 20
participants. Stratified sampling was used to divide the population’s gender
characteristics. Creswell suggested using stratified sampling in cases in which the
population denotes an imbalance. In the current study, the female population
outnumbered their male counterparts. Stratification “ensures that the stratum desired will
be presented in the sample in the proportion to that existence in the population”
(Creswell, p. 148). The stratum desired in this research probe was males.

Research Questions

Cooper and Schindler (2003) defined the research question as the hypothesis that
states a study’s objective. Cooper and Schindler stated that research questions are the
essential tools to find facts and gather information. The current study explored nonprofit
administrators’ perceptions of time use by disseminating the TMPI survey instrument to
technical college foundation leaders who provided informed consent. The following
research questions guided the current study:

Research Question #1: How do the Time Management Practices Inventory
(TMPI) scores relate to respondent demographics?

Research Question #2: What is effective time management?
Research Question #3: Is there a need for a time management program for administrators of nonprofit organizations?

Research Question #4: Are leaders and staff of nonprofit organizations currently using any form of time management?

Research Question #5: Who would benefit from the use of time management strategies? How can each leader develop his or her own time management techniques?

The research questions aimed to deduce the perspective of administrators of nonprofit organizations fully, and investigate a profound discernment of leaders’ perceptions of time use and discovering effective time management strategies to promote continuous improvement.

Dependent and Independent Variables

This project's research questions presented relationships between the dependent and independent variables. The dependent variable examined in the mixed methods research study was nonprofit administrators’ perceptions of time. The independent variables were respondents’ demographic characteristics and their strategies and attitudes elicited from the qualitative interviewing. The dependent variable was measured by each participant’s admission of current time management practices conducted in the follow-up interviews. Leaders’ perceptions of time are important to the research study, as the dependent variable was the determining factor on the future of nonprofit organizational success. Spearman correlations were used to relate the time management scale scores with selected demographic variables.
Informed Consent

Electronic mail was the initial communication tool. The Executive Director of Stewardship and Development, under the auspices of the Technical College System of Georgia, was contacted and informed of the nature of the study to gain permission to solicit individuals for participation in the study. Upon approval of this research investigation, solicitation of participants ensued via e-mail, U.S. mail, and telephone. Participants were informed that no anticipated risks existed within the study and the results will be shared with the Technical College System of Georgia and the technical college foundations that opted to participate in this research. The participants were informed that their names will remain confidential. A brief explanation of the survey’s purpose was disclosed and a short statement given indicating that the survey will be kept anonymous and confidential (Creswell, 2002).

Confidentiality

Confidentiality of all participants was insured by not revealing any identifying data including names, surveys, or responses. The survey was anonymous, participants’ participation will be voluntary, and no known risks were apparent. Participants could have withdrawn from taking the survey at any time prior to or during the survey. All responses were held in strict confidence and were not shared. As suggested by Creswell (2005), precautions to ensure ethical research efforts remain confidential. The collected data will be kept for a minimum of 3 years on a secure database and a hard-copy backup, as required by the Common Rule (2007).
Geographic Location

Study participants resided throughout the state of Georgia. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) noted that participants could provide more honest survey answers when geography was not an issue. Honest answers proved critical in determining time management and best practices for nonprofit leadership success.

Instrumentation

Participants were informed that the purpose of the research study was to explore nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use and discover effective time management strategies and best practices suitable for administrators of nonprofit organizations.

Data for the current study were collected using two questionnaire instruments and telephone interviews. The first questionnaire contained questions that established background and demographic information. The second instrument, the Time Management Practices Inventory (TMPI) developed by Pfaff and Associates, was designed to assess time management skills (Pfaff and Associates/PAN, 2008, ¶1).

The TMPI online survey tool was used to analyze each leader’s perception of time use and allowed a detailed evaluation of survey results (Pfaff and Associates/PAN). Pfaff and Associates TMPI instrument is a 31-item, 7-point scale designed to help leaders recognize strengths and weaknesses regarding task orientation, planning, and prioritizing. The scales are presented as follows:

“1” means that the statement is true to an extremely small extent, never, or not at all.

“3” and “2” means that the statement represents varying degrees between half of the time and never.
“4” means that the statement is true about half of the time, an average extent or sometimes.

“5” and “6” means that the statement represents varying degrees between half of the time and always.

“7” means that the statement is true to an extremely high extent, always, or without fail. (Pfaff, 2002, p. 2)

The 31 statements are clustered under eight factors that determine effective time management including “setting priorities, planning, taking action, resisting involvement, paperwork, deadlines, self-confidence and overall time management skills” (Pfaff and Associates/PAN, 2008, ¶1). For analysis, the TMPI 7-point scale could be construed as interval scoring because it measures a continuum of scores (Creswell, 2005). In the current study, respondents’ selection scale ranged from always, sometimes and never to show ratings of time management.

The TMPI provided insight on nonprofit leaders’ perceptions time use and task completion through careful analysis. For purposes of this research, pilot testing was expendable. Cone and Foster (1993) posited that pilot testing is crucial when researchers desire to ensure instructions are clear, discover unforeseen issues and verify equipment. Because the previously validated TMPI online instrument was used hundreds of times by Pfaff and Associates, pilot testing was not necessary.

Data Collection

The current study endeavored to meet the research questions by collecting data from 20 nonprofit leaders. The basis of the problem addressed in this inquiry is the lack of knowledge available on the effective use of time management strategies in nonprofit
organizations. Twenty leaders of nonprofit organizations participated in this mixed methods research approach. For the current study, data were collected from leaders of nonprofit organizations in the form of a previously validated online survey and a telephone interview.

Interviews allow complete examination of an issue (Salkind, 2003). Open-ended questions were selected for the current study, which is common (Salkind). According to Creswell (1994), interviews are one of four ways to collect data in qualitative studies. The other three types of data collection are documentation, observation, and audiovisual materials. Data collection helps researchers gain answers to research questions and hypotheses (Creswell, 2005). Collecting qualitative data involves a five-step process: identifying participants, obtaining permission, determining types of data collection, developing data collection forms, and administering the process in an ethical manner (Creswell). This process was adhered to under this research inquiry. The telephone interviews established more insight on nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use, revealing leadership themes relevant to transformational leadership.

Data Sources

Leaders of technical college foundations were ideal because they work in an environment that is part of a strict state budget and often do more with less because many leaders perform dual roles. Because of budget restrictions and dual roles, the central phenomenon could be better understood. Permission to use a recording device as an aid to document responses was requested (Salkind, 2003) and granted by all respondents. The data were collected via a quantitative online questionnaire followed by an in-depth qualitative interview with each participant’s identity remaining anonymous. However,
general background demographics were collected from each participant including age, gender and levels of experience in the technical college foundation.

Demographics

The demographic survey was created to document survey respondents’ gender, age, race/ethnicity, education, organizational tenure, and position. Survey participants selected a response from a range of choices listed under each demographic component category of the survey. A frequency summary data chart revealing demographic results will be discussed further in chapter 4.

Upon return of each leader’s demographic survey and completion of the online Time Management Practices Inventory (TMPI) survey, scores were manually entered in an Excel worksheet (see Appendix H). Data were documented for future analysis with SPSS software. The demographic survey contained six questions and the TMPI survey contained 31 time management statements. The TMPI survey results were abridged via survey tool instructions into eight categories that determined strength and weaknesses regarding leaders’ task orientation, planning and priority. The Time Management Practices Inventory categories included (a) setting priorities, (b) planning, (c), taking action, (d) resisting involvement, (e) paperwork, (f) deadlines, (g) self-confidence, and (h) overall time management skills.

Qualitative research typically does not require the use of another researcher’s instrument (Creswell, 2005), but for the current study, an online survey was disseminated, followed by a telephone interview to obtain more detailed information and personal thoughts. The goal was to encourage leaders of nonprofit organizations to think
deeply about time management issues. The telephone interview investigated other points
the survey did not uncover, and explained and clarified data results.

Data Analysis

Leaders of the state of Georgia’s technical college nonprofit foundations
participated willingly in the in-depth interview process. The intent was to explore
nonprofit administrators’ perceptions of time use as well as to discover appropriate
effective time management strategies. According to Neuman (2003), the interviewer
should be nonjudgmental and not reveal personal opinions verbally or nonverbally. Each
participant was asked to participate in a 45-60 minute telephone or face-to-face interview
in the privacy of each nonprofit leader’s office, which provides a neutral and familiar
setting. This participation was in addition to taking the online survey. All interviews were
conducted via the telephone and were recorded and transcribed verbatim (see Appendix I)
with the permission of respondents, and processed in NVivo 8 data management software
to explore emerging themes. Collected data were analyzed through Microsoft Excel, the
Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) predictive analytical software, and the
NVivo 8 data management qualitative research software and extrapolated to explore and
analyze valuable insight on the time management practices of leaders of nonprofit
organizations. SPSS constituted a valid testing tool for the descriptive and correlation
analyses in the quantitative segment of this research. The Spearman rank-order
correlation coefficient was performed for eight selected scales with demographic
variables gender, race/ethnicity and position. Correlations were also performed for the
eight scales with age group, highest education, and years in the organization.
Bazeley (2003) posited that data management software such as NVivo 8 enhances data analysis, the research progression, and serves as a valid testing instrument for statistical data obtained in qualitative analyses. To add clarity and transparency to the analysis of the current study, the following discussion focuses on the qualitative methodology and is detailed to provide a clear audit trail of the processes conducted to determine the findings.

Qualitative Methods Review

Database Rationale and Compilation

This section provides the justification for using an electronic means for storing and retrieving qualitative data. The collected data were imported into NVivo 8, a data management software tool developed solely as a computer aided qualitative data analysis system (CAQDAS) and is recognized globally as a reputable tool for managing and supporting this type of analytical work. Developed by Lyn Richards (2005) and her software development company, QSR International, NVivo 8 has two principal benefits, which are efficiency and transparency.

Efficiency. NVivo 8 offers efficiency because it affords researchers the ability to explore avenues of inquiry which would otherwise be impossible to conduct in a manual system. Such efficiencies allow researchers not only to exclude but also to consider emerging themes garnered from participants’ contributions throughout the analytical process. NVivo 8 allocates the automation of administrative tasks associated with qualitative data analysis which reduces researchers’ time; thereby, facilitating more opportunities for reflection on data interpretation (Richards, 2005).
Transparency. Qualitative researchers are sometimes accused of being “empirically soft and highly subjective” (Godwin & Horowitz, 2002, p. 33) in their approach to analyzing data. Database deployment permits maintaining a clear audit trail to dispel such innuendos. All processes and stages of coding are tracked to facilitate a clear demonstration of the rigorous approach taken in conducting the analysis (Richards, 2005).

Database Design

The database was designed and created to optimize the data robustly, facilitating a thorough interrogation of the information. The design allowed examination of any unforeseen questions that arose during the analytical process. The database design incorporated not only each participant’s profile through recorded demographics but also the outputs from the quantitative data analysis which were fully integrated with the qualitative coded data.

Data Importation

All data sources were transcribed verbatim and imported into NVivo 8, including audio files so that qualitative aspects of the interviews, such as irony or humor would not be lost and would be fully evident during the analysis (See Appendix J). Without conducting this process, vital information would have been omitted if research analysis efforts relied entirely on written transcripts. Data were organized into a folder hierarchy by data type. Data included audio files, in-depth interviews, field notes, observations, and the literature review to track each source (see Appendix K).

NVivo 8 stores data in nodes which are repositories for themes and categories of people, organizations, and institutions (QSR International, 2008). One such node is a case
node. A case node is a single file that stores each entity or participant’s contribution from any source including demographics, audio, or interview contributions. The case nodes, once populated, were physically linked to the demographics tables, which facilitated integration between the qualitative and quantitative aspects of this research data. Nodes will be discussed in further detail later in this chapter. Thus, intangibles such as attitude and beliefs; for example, data coded in a node that hosts all references to setting priorities were intersected with tangibles such as the quantitative field labeled position held in nonprofit organization or number of years working for nonprofit organization to ascertain a relationship, if any, between a participant’s level of management experience, nonprofit work experience, and their attitudes and abilities to set priorities.

This important integration between the quantitative and qualitative data generated during the current study facilitated comprehensive analysis to help understand the phenomena under scrutiny. Appendix L shows the relationship in the database between the contents of a case node; that is, what participants said; and the case properties/demographic tables; that is, who participants are. This system also integrated summarized tables exported from the quantitative data analysis database (SPSS) so that when the current study refers to a mixed methods approach to data analysis, the result is separate data sets of analyzed data.

Linking

The database deployed during this research project was a relational database (Edhlund, 2008). This type of database facilitates linking all relevant data generated during the data gathering and importation process. Sources, field notes and observations, and memos were the types of data linked in the database.
Field Notes and Observations

Observations from the field were fully integrated with the main data set. For example, during one interview, a participant’s interview response did not coincide with the TMPI taking action scale score. This same respondent declared a different response based on a similar inquiry. A visual sample observation is shown in Appendix M.

Memos and Annotations

Memos are comments and observation notes that researchers record while interviewing participants to keep track of data. Memos can be coded and searched within NVivo 8. Conversely, annotations, which are similar to “notes scribbled in a margin” (p. 45), are not directly coded in NVivo 8 but can be searched. Although annotations are important and appear as a theme of coded text, memos were instrumental in this inquiry. Memos served three purposes in the current study. They were these:

1. Giving context to sources.
2. Generating proposition statements.
3. Recording and sharing researcher’s thoughts.

Giving Context to Sources

Memos gave context to an entire source such as an audio or interview transcript. The memos provided background information on each participant/source. Appendix N demonstrates that the relationship between key observations and field notes were linked by memos. These memos referred to the source rather than a specific moment in the interview.
*Generating Proposition Statements*

Memos raised and tracked summary statements as part of the analytical process. This process was a prelude to results and viewed as preliminary findings. This process is explained under phase 5 of the coding framework, which is discussed later in chapter 3.

*Recording and Sharing Researcher’s Thoughts*

This process allows numerous interpretations of participants’ responses. Further analysis revealed that in an effort to respond in accordance with the interview questions, many participants confused tasks and objectives and could not discern one from the other. Revelations continued to develop and are discussed in chapter 4.

*Literature Review*

Relevant sections of the literature review were imported and linked to the interview transcripts as a means of setting the primary data in dialogue with the wider arenas of literature (see Appendix O). Published data, such as journal reviews and other academic information, were imported into the database and segments from these publications were coded against the seven major categories of themes of the current study.

*Defining Nodes*

Nodes hold data, which have been coded from sources. Nodes are a collection of themes extracted from data analysis. Appendix P shows that nodes created in the current study were defined to clarify data, to aid the research supervision process, and to test for coding consistency. Five types of nodes were used to analyze the data (a) free nodes, (b) tree nodes, (c) case nodes, (d) relationship nodes, and (e) matrix nodes (QSR International).
Free nodes are stand alone repositories used for broad, participant driven coding and are essential to initial coding process. Tree nodes are similar to free nodes but also are grouped in categories of themes and can have children. This hierarchical structure is demonstrated in Appendix Q. Case Nodes were used to generate case files, which hold all data related to an individual participant and is physically linked to each respondent’s demographic details. The case node is designed for tracking participants throughout a study (QSR International). Relationship nodes were used to log relationships formally across and between disparate themes and categories (QSR International). Such conceptual relationships were tracked throughout the analytical processes and served to inosculate apparent diverse themes and categories of themes.

Matrix nodes “compare results among different themes” (p. 104) and count already qualitative coded data. Matrix nodes were used to intersect discrete nodes with cases and demographics. They were also used to analyze qualitative coding. For example, how often something was raised prompted or unprompted (number of coding references) or how animated a person was about something (number of words coded). Appendix R shows how matrices were used to analyze data and support findings presented in chapter 4.

Application of Nodes/Themes

A coding framework was used to apply the five types of nodes as discussed above. The guidelines for this coding methodology were drawn from Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Maykut and Morehouse’s (1994) adoption of a phenomenological approach. The coding framework involved seven stages of coding:
1. Phase 1: Broad coding is coding by category/question, which was automated through NVivo 8. This phase was broad and included all the data.

2. Phase 2: Cross-coding allowed participant responses to be coded to more than one question.

3. Phase 3: Coding-on imposed a hierarchy or breaking down of themes into subthemes, discerning if each participant's responses could be aligned with the same question. Basically, the literal response was coded and interpretation of what was said was coded.

4. Phase 4: Reordering and distilling the data aligned with the research questions. The goal was to discern what the participant told interviewer in the follow-up interview and how it related to the research questions.

5. Phase 5: Generating summary or proposition statements using memos. This phase wrote proposition statements which were essentially memos. A written summary of the contents of the data that provided proposed findings and assumptions about the data.

6. Phase 6: This was the "testing the proposition statements" phase and sought evidence in the data to support proposed findings and was the most important phase. This phase presented a draft of the findings although still in the data. This phase alleviated subjectivity. In essence, this phase tested summary statements using queries and distilling the data.

7. Phase 7: This phase synthesized the proposition statements into a coherent and well supported outcome statement resulting in a clear set of findings and showed
any duplication across themes. Hence, the goal was to synthesize summary statements and generate an outcome.

*Phase 1: Broad Coding.* Broad coding involved using automated processes to preorder the data according to the interview question guide. Gathering all the responses to a question regardless of what order or length of time the question took up in each in-depth interview (see Appendix S).

*Phase 2: Cross-coding.* Cross-coding involved taking all the text coded to a question and coding the data against other relevant questions. For example, if a person in responding to category 1, *(Setting Priorities)* made a comment, which also was relevant to category 3, *(Taking Action)*, this text segment or unit of meaning would also be coded against category 3. Thus, any comment offered in the in-depth interviews was systematically considered against each of the other seven categories for relevance during the cross-coding phase of analysis (see Appendix T).

*Phase 3: Coding-on – Imposing a Hierarchy.* Coding-on involved breaking down all the contents of the themes generated in phases 1 and 2 by means of line-by-line manual interpretive coding based on content. Subthemes emerged under each of the seven categories, which, in turn, had several subcategories of their own. These child nodes were often further coded into ‘grandchild’ nodes until all views were represented and all themes and subthemes, no matter how small, were explored completely. The major themes developed and populated in phases 2 and 3 were coded-on into their constituent parts.

*Phase 4: Reordering and Distilling Data.* Phase 4 involved reordering and distilling the data in line with the four qualitative research questions. This process
included collapsing theme categories, emerging themes, joining categories, and integrating the results of queries to provide a clearer and more holistic view of participants’ contributions.

**Phase 5: Generating Proposition Statements Using Memos.** This phase of analysis involved generating memos designed to summarize interpretations, at that point of the analytical process, believed to be a true representation of the combined attitudes and beliefs of study participants under each of the research questions coded to date. Thus, findings in discussed in chapter 4 were drawn from and supported by the data (see Appendix U).

**Phase 6: Testing Summary Statements Using Queries.** Phase 6 involved testing the summary statements against the data for supporting evidence which backs up the empirical findings recorded in the memos. Some of the supporting data lay in existing themes and several involved further interrogation of the data complexities. Some findings that are discussed in chapter 4 required raising questions by means of database queries (cross tabular) in which the supporting evidence lay across and between themes in the coding tree. Frequently, such queries resulted in generating new themes as data were gathered from disparate existing themes to test a stated belief in a given summary statement. This process was developed to serve as a rule for inclusion to distill data down to the relevant supporting themes, and to validate each finding supported in the data.

**Phase 7: Synthesizing Summary Statements and Generating an Outcome Statement.** Phase 8 involved synthesizing the data into a coherent, well supported outcome statement.
As some findings transcend or intersect with other major emergent themes, a synthesizing process rather than a simple merging of the summary statements generated in phase 6 was used to produce a clear and well-supported outcome statement.

Additional Tools

In support of the coding framework as outlined above, other database tools were used to enhance understanding of the data during the various stages of analysis. Standard database tools including queries and reports were deployed during the study. The benefits of deploying queries and reports during the data analysis were to permit sophisticated inquiring of the data and to obtain immediate responses. This process enriched the inquiry process by increasing the depth and extent of the data interrogation and within a significantly narrower time frame than manual analysis. Database queries allow rapid retrieval of information in a format and timeliness pertinent to the researcher's needs. Appendices V and W are examples of the various queries and reports used during the study.

Validity and Reliability

The research study involved exploring leaders’ perceptions of time use and determining which effective time management strategies will prove beneficial. Results proved useful to administrators of nonprofit organizations and their understanding of the importance of implementing effective time management strategies that could improve organizational success and effectiveness. Results might be used by leaders of nonprofit organizations who are ready to affect change organization wide. Maintaining trustworthiness is a priority to maximize the current study’s contributions.
Reliability and validity are forms of generalizations and necessary measurements in research studies and are essential to any instrument (Cone & Foster, 1993). Creswell (2005) defined reliability as the consistency of scores used several times from the same instrument, which are crucial to the results. Validity indicates that “scores from an instrument make sense, are meaningful, and enable you, as the researcher, to draw good conclusions from the sample” (Cone & Foster, p. 162). Validity denotes if a test performs as expected (Salkind, 2003). Salkind declared that three aspects of validity exist during research:

1. Results of test indicate researcher measurement intentions.
2. Varying degrees of validity exist from low to high.
3. Interpretation of results’ validity is measured within context of test occurrence. (p. 115)

Reliability and validity are “good measurement practices” (Salkind, p. 107) that allow the rejection or acceptance of the research hypothesis.

Internal and External Validity

Several types of validity exist but for purposes of the current study, discussions about external and internal validity follow. The external validity of research findings refers to the “data’s ability to be generalized across persons, settings, and times” (Cooper & Schindler, 2003, p. 231). Conversely, internal validity refers to the research instruments and whether or not the tool measures what it was designed to quantify.

Internal validity in the current study was accomplished through the use of the TMPI instrument, designed to measure individual time management skills. The internal validity determines if the research design can answer the research question. An objective
of internal validity is to establish credibility and ensure a close relationship exists from the concentrated environment to theorize and question trustworthiness of the research (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Objectivity can be established by acknowledging that personal beliefs and assumptions are assessed and deduced throughout the research (Miles & Huberman).

External validity is established by dissecting the analysis for contextualization and generalization (Miles & Huberman). The external validity in the current study was to determine if the data can be generalized outside of the sample. Although many factors and threats (Cooper & Schindler, 2003) impeded validation success in the current study, evidence to the contrary was not determined until the study was conducted and the results were analyzed.

Summary

Experts in the field of time management agreed on the importance of implementing time management techniques to become more efficient and organized. Time management is essential to work productivity. Many scholars have indicated the effective use of basic time management strategies could ensure that tasks completed in a timely manner might add minimal stress. This premise was the basis of the current study. The data gathered from the present study provided information on how some leaders of nonprofit organizations manage time and present strategies for becoming better managers of time. The concern for a lack of effective time management programs focusing on nonprofit organizations was the basis for the problem explored in the current study. Determining perceptions of time use and learning how a person’s impact on decision-making capabilities and processes is crucial to managing time and executing strategies
toward improving organizational success and leadership governance. Chapter 4 will present the research results through data analysis in the format of tables, figures, and a written summary. Chapter 5 will offer conclusions, implications and recommendations for future research.
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The purpose of this mixed methods research study was to explore leaders’ perceptions of time use by interviewing a sample of 20 nonprofit administrators, and discovering effective time management strategies that leaders could employ to affect the growth and success of nonprofit organizations. The goal of the study was to evaluate the quantitative survey results and qualitative interview responses of leaders of nonprofit organizations regarding the effectiveness of time management strategies and organizational success. Chapter 4 presents the research results through data analysis in the format of tables, figures, and a written summary.

The decision to implement this triangulated mixed-methods study was based on validating both the quantitative and qualitative data results. The current study’s research questions posed a relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The dependent variable in this mixed methods research study was nonprofit administrators’ perceptions of time. The current study’s independent variables were the respondents’ demographic characteristics and their strategies and attitudes elicited from the qualitative interviewing. The quantitative variable was measured by the use of the Time Management Practices Inventory (TMPI) survey instrument. The qualitative variables were measured by NVivo 8 software. Previous studies on time management are abundant, but few studies focused on nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use and effective time management strategies.

Research Questions

Five questions guided the study: (a) How do the Time Management Practices Inventory (TMPI) scores relate to respondent demographics? (b) Is there a need for a time
management program for nonprofit administrative staff? (c) Are leaders of nonprofit organizations and staff currently using any form of time management? (d) Who would benefit from the use of time management strategies? How can each leader develop his or her own time management techniques? (e) What is effective time management? To provide answers to these questions, close- and open-ended instruments were used to collect data.

The study tested one quantitative research question based on scores obtained from the TMPI survey instrument which were analyzed with SPSS software. The categories were setting priorities, planning, taking action, resisting involvement, paperwork, deadlines, and self-confidence. To address the four qualitative research questions, the same seven categories were identified and used during the interview process. Because the current study’s qualitative research is comprehensive and to establish reliability and validity a review of the methods is provided below. Results of both the quantitative and qualitative segments of the study will commence immediately following the qualitative methods review.

Population Demographics

The population was selected from the Technical College System of Georgia’s technical college foundations located across the state of Georgia. The total population of these subgroups consisted of 33 nonprofit leaders; however, challenges persisted in gaining the support of all nonprofit leaders targeted for the current study. However, after a five-month span, a total of 20 interviews were obtained from participating leaders. Twenty of the 33 leaders of nonprofit organizations participated in the study and each provided demographic information based on the following elements: gender, age group,
race/ethnicity, education level, organizational tenure and organizational position. Survey participants selected from a range of choices in each question category. Participant demographics are detailed in Appendix X.

Data Analysis Procedures

Respondents participated in the current study via recorded telephone interviews with permission provided by each participant. Collected data were analyzed through the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) predictive analytical software, Microsoft Excel and NVivo 8 data management qualitative research software, which was used to discover and examine valuable insight and themes regarding time management practices of leaders of nonprofit organizations. A total of 14,676 units of meaning or text segments were coded and each category had a linked summary statement expressing the views held in that particular group of themes.

A close-ended instrument was administered based on Pfaff’s (2002) TMPI survey to amass quantitative data and seek answers to the quantitative research question. The instrument is a 31-item, 7-point scale designed to help leaders recognize strengths and weaknesses regarding task orientation, planning, and prioritizing (Pfaff and Associates/PAN, 2008). Interviews were conducted to collect qualitative data and to seek answers to the remaining four qualitative research questions. This method allowed respondents to offer experiences, views, and perceptions of time use. During the data collection and analysis phases, emerged themes were triangulated through methodological, unit of analysis, and conceptual triangulation methods.
Findings

Study participants were administrators of nonprofit organizations employed by technical colleges within the Technical College System of Georgia. The sample comprised leaders with nonprofit experiences and time management issues working in technical college foundations across the state of Georgia. Less than one-third of the respondents completed the TMPI survey within the first 4 weeks of the data collection period. Over the next four months, electronic reminders were sent to leaders who had yet to complete the online survey. The data collection period ranged from March 2009 through August 2009 and the data analysis ranged from August 2009 to October 2009. Twenty responses were received and all responses included ample data for scoring. With no missing case data of the 20 responses received, all data were deemed valid. The findings are presented from a quantitative and qualitative perspective, respectively.

Summary of Quantitative Findings

Summary of Demographic Survey Scoring

Twenty leaders employed with 20 different nonprofit organizations completed the demographic segment of the research study survey. Each leader responded to all six questions on the demographic survey. Study participation was limited to administrators/leaders of nonprofit technical college foundations of the Technical College System of Georgia. The objective was to explore the experiences of administrators of nonprofit organizations relative to: how nonprofit leaders perceive time use, how nonprofit leaders implement time management, and to what extent nonprofit leaders’ experiences, attitudes and beliefs impact leaders and their organizations.
Table 1 illustrates summated frequency counts for selected demographic variables including gender, age group, race/ethnicity, highest grade completed, years in organization, and position. Of the six variables provided in the demographic survey, three demonstrated statistical significance with six of the eight scores. Significant relationships existed between gender, race and position when analyzed with setting priorities, deadlines, paperwork, taking action, resisting involvement and overall score (see Table 2). Furthermore, the eight time management mean scores are presented in Table 2.
Table 1

*Frequency Counts for Selected Variables (n = 20)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable and category</th>
<th>$n$</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>85.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 to 34</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 to 45</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 to 50</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 50</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race/ethnicity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest level completed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable and category</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Years in organization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 5 years</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 to 10 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 to 14 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 to 20 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 20 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower management</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper management</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary of Time Management Survey Scoring

Table 2 displays the descriptive statistics for the eight summated scale scores sorted high to low by mean. These scores represent the overall scores for time management. The highest scores are overall score ($M = 75.35$) and self-confidence ($M = 72.15$). The lowest scores are planning ($M = 61.70$) and taking action ($M = 62.15$). Other scores presented are setting priorities ($M = 68.15$), paperwork ($M = 66.65$), deadlines ($M = 66.65$), and resisting involvement ($M = 64.20$; see Table 2).
Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Summated Scores Sorted by Highest Mean (n = 20)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall score</td>
<td>75.35</td>
<td>24.25</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
<td>72.15</td>
<td>25.85</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting priorities</td>
<td>68.15</td>
<td>20.48</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paperwork</td>
<td>67.00</td>
<td>26.22</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deadlines</td>
<td>66.65</td>
<td>21.67</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resisting involvement</td>
<td>64.20</td>
<td>32.41</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking action</td>
<td>62.15</td>
<td>23.07</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>61.70</td>
<td>25.51</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 displays the Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient for eight selected scales with demographic variables gender, race/ethnicity and position. Correlations were also performed for the eight scales with age group, highest education, and years in the organization. However, since none of the resulting 24 correlations were statistically significant, those coefficients were not displayed in Table 3. Hence, only three of the six demographic variables had significance. Because the current study is exploratory, comparisons were made against all available demographics whether the literature supported it or not. The Spearman rank order procedure was performed because of the small sample size (N = 20). For the same reason, the alpha level was set at p < .10 (see Table 3).

Due to the exploratory nature of the study, a decision was made to inflate the potential of a Type I error to find possible avenues for future research. The rationale was
that the risk of false positive findings (over interpreting the data) was less of a concern than risking false negative findings (missing interesting findings). As noted in Table 3, given the sample of 20 respondents, the correlation between the setting priorities scale and gender was $r_s = .39 \ (p < .10)$. The related coefficient of determination being $r_s^2 = .15$ accounting for about 15% of the shared variance.

Cohen (1988) suggested some guidelines for interpreting the strength of linear correlations. Cohen suggested that a weak correlation typically had an absolute value of $r = .10$ (about 1% of the variance explained), a moderate correlation typically had an absolute value of $r = .30$ (about 9% of the variance explained) and a strong correlation typically had an absolute value of $r = .50$ (about 25% of the variance explained). With this sample size of $N = 20$, the correlation of $r_s = .39$ would be considered to be of moderate strength using the Cohen (1988) criteria. The correlation between gender and the setting priorities scale was performed appropriately by using a point-biserial correlation (Cone & Foster, 1993) which is the correlation between a dichotomous variable and a continuous variable.

Gender was significantly correlated with two of eight variables at the $p < .10$ and $p < .05$, specifically setting priorities ($r_s = .39, \ p < .10$) and deadlines ($r_s = .49, \ p < .05$). Because a positive correlation exists between setting priorities and deadlines, the women in the sample gave significantly higher responses than men but for the other six scales, no relationship with gender was found (see Table 3).

Race/ethnicity was significantly correlated with three of eight variables at the $p < .05$, specifically overall score ($r_s = -.49, \ p = .01$), taking action ($r_s = -.52, \ p < .10$) and resisting involvement ($r_s = -.45, \ p = .05$). Because negative correlations exist, the African
American respondents gave significantly higher ratings. For three of the eight variables, significant relationships were found based on race but not for the other five scales (see Table 3).

Table 3

*Spearman Correlations for Time Management Scores With Selected Demographics*

*Scales (n = 20)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Gender&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Race/ethnicity&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall score</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>-.49&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting priorities</td>
<td>.39&lt;sup&gt;*&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>-.28</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>-.31</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking action</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.52&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resisting involvement</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>-.45&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paperwork</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>.45&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deadlines</td>
<td>.49&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>-.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.32</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Gender: 1 = Male 2 = Female.  
<sup>b</sup> Race: 1 = African American 2 = Caucasian.  
<sup>c</sup> Position: 1 = Staff, 2 = Lower Management, 3 = Upper Management.

* * p < .10. ** p < .05.

Position was significantly correlated with one of eight variables at the *p* < .05, specifically paperwork (*r* <sub>s</sub> = -.45, *p* < .05). Because a positive correlation exists for paperwork, the people at the upper management level gave themselves higher ratings for their ability to handle paperwork than did the lower level staff members. A significant relationship was found between position and the paperwork scale score. Executives gave
higher ratings and staffers gave lower ratings. But for the other seven scales no significant relationships materialized with position (see Table 3).

Testing of Quantitative Research Question

One research question guided the quantitative segment of the current study. Results revealed leaders’ strengths and weaknesses regarding task orientation, planning, and prioritizing. The results of the quantitative analysis substantiated Research Question 1.

Research Question #1: How do the Time Management Practices Inventory (TMPI) scores relate to respondent demographics?

Three of the six variables presented in the demographic survey revealed a statistical significance with six of the eight scores. The variables gender, race/ethnicity and position were related to TMPI scores setting priorities, deadlines, overall scores, taking action, resisting involvement and paperwork. Leaders’ Time Management Practices Inventory (TMPI) scores are related to respondent demographics. Gender was related to two of the eight variables. Race/ethnicity was related to three of the eight variables. Position was related to one of eight variables. Respondents’ scores ranged from high to low and general recommendations for each category was provided upon conclusion of each survey (see Appendix Y).

The two highest descriptive scores were overall score and self-confidence. The overall score and self-confidence scores both ranged from 12 to 97 points with a mean of 75.35 and 72.15, respectively. The two lowest descriptive scores were planning and taking action. The planning scores ranged from 23 to 95 points with a mean of 61.70. The taking action score ranged from 21 to 96 points, with a mean of 62.15. The other
variables included setting priorities, paperwork, deadlines, and resisting involvement. The setting priorities scores ranged from 23 to 92 points with a mean of 68.15. The paperwork scores ranged from 15 to 98 points with a mean of 67.00. The deadlines scores ranged from 15 to 89 points with a mean of 66.65. The resisting involvement scores ranged from 6 to 95 points with a mean of 64.20. The highest possible score in all categories was 100.

Leaders’ gender was related to TMPI scores setting priorities and deadlines. Leaders’ race/ethnicity was related to overall score, taking action and resisting involvement. Leaders’ position was related to paperwork. All leaders’ scores were assessed by the TMPI instrument regarding time management skills. These results suggested a relationship between TMPI scores and selected demographics. There is sufficient evidence at the alpha level of significance to support the claim that leaders’ Time Management Practices Inventory (TMPI) scores will be related to respondent demographics.

The significant findings at $p < .10$ included the following:

1. Women had higher responses than men in setting priorities and deadlines.
2. African American respondents had higher response rates in overall score, taking action and resisting involvement.
3. Upper management respondents had higher response rates for handling paperwork.

Tables 5, 6, and 7 presented summaries of demographic frequencies, descriptive statistics scores sorted by highest mean, and time management scores with select variables, respectively.
Summary of Qualitative Findings

The concluding portion of the current study culminated with telephone interviews. Twenty nonprofit leaders were asked to answer 67 qualitative questions and 31 quantitative statements honestly. The 31 quantitative statements were repeated from the TMPI survey instrument to help respondents recall the online assessment. All respondents provided responses to every question.

The findings for the qualitative segment of the current study are presented and aligned with the final four research questions. Qualitative data are presented under seven thematic categories which include setting priorities, planning, taking action, resisting involvement, paperwork, deadlines, and self-confidence.

**Thematic Category One: Setting Priorities**

The thematic category “setting priorities” was probed under four subheadings that included tackling tasks of importance and priority, knowing long-term job objectives, knowing critical activities, and prioritizing objectives and activities. This thematic category measured respondents’ abilities to prioritize. Theme 1 findings were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Questions 10, 16, 20 and 31.

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q10: I tackle tasks on the basis of importance and priority. Participants articulated that they tackled tasks on the basis of priority and importance. The majority of participants indicated that they schedule and prioritize tasks and reassess priorities frequently. When probed regarding frequency of setting priorities, participants were once again singular in their responses. Respondent 4 stated,
If there is a deadline you have to meet that is obviously something that is going to take priority. If the president has a request that obviously takes priority. You know those sorts of things. Sometimes one task is going to have a higher chance of being more successful than another one.

More than 50% of respondents prioritized at the beginning of a work day, although many insisted that they performed this task several times during the day as needed. However, when probed concerning how they decided which responsibilities took precedence, participants listed the following means for prioritizing tasks: easiest first (2%), identifying mission critical tasks (2%), distinguishing boss's needs (27%), relating tasks to strategic objectives (18%), setting deadlines (41%), and to-do lists (10%).

Very few nonprofit administrators cited written lists and significantly 1 in 4 participants made no connection with strategic objectives, mission, or any written plans. Respondent 13 stated, “Depending on if there is a set deadline on something or if I have to get something done by a certain time, that would go first, and then the lesser important things all to the bottom of the list.” Deeper probing revealed that most nonprofit administrators were more reactive than proactive regarding prioritizing tasks (see Figure Z1). Respondents were more likely to set priorities based on the bosses’ requests and failed to link strategic objectives with written plans (see Figure Z2).

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q16: I know the long-term objectives of my job. Participants perceived themselves as very good at knowing long-term job objectives. Respondent 6 stated, “Yes, I know the long-term objectives.” When further probed regarding what those objectives might be, participants offered a range of responses including board development (8%), raising money (30%),
marketing (5%), forging relationships (13%), and organizational advancement (8%). Participants believed they knew their long-term objectives and listed them. Further inquisition revealed that most respondents do not follow formulated plans that guide activity scheduling toward achieving stated objectives (see Figure Z3). Almost half of participants relied on external forces such as imposed deadlines as the key impetus of activity scheduling (see Figure Z4).

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q20: I know the critical activities in my job. Ninety percent of participants perceived themselves as very good at knowing critical activities in their jobs. Respondent 20 stated, “Very important! These activities are critical to achieving the college’s goals because if I drop the ball on anyone of these activities, then the foundation is really not accomplishing its mission.” When probed further regarding critical activities, participants offered a range of responses including fundraising (30%), building relationships (17%), helping students, (8%) and administration and governance (8%).

Participants perceived themselves as exceptional at knowing critical activities (see Figure Z5). Further probing revealed respondents were nearly unanimous in their assertions concerning the importance of critical activities to achieving organizational goals. Participants were less articulate regarding devising time frames to complete critical tasks. Most participants had not linked completion of critical activities as central to successes or any timelines (see Figure Z6). Participants cited use of calendars and deadlines as the principal means of prioritizing objectives and activities. Half of senior managers displayed poor competencies when probed about delegating tasks or
responsibilities for objectives being met. One-third of respondents have the opportunity to delegate (see Figure Z7).

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q31: I prioritize my daily objectives and activities. Ninety percent of participants perceived themselves as very good at prioritizing daily objectives and activities. Respondent 12 stated, “by doing the important things first and those that have a time sensitive due date, things given to me by my boss, time and money.” When probed further regarding how respondents prioritized daily objectives and activities, participants offered a range of responses including calendars (25%), to-do lists (25%), setting deadlines (19%), and bosses’ needs (13%). Additional prodding revealed that 47% of respondents who do not have subordinates saw themselves as lacking an opportunity to delegate activities whereas 32% delegated often.

*Thematic Category Two: Planning*

The thematic category “planning” was probed under five subheadings that included defining list of objectives in writing, writing out objectives and accomplishments, planning time on both a weekly and daily basis, following daily to-do lists, and updating to-do lists daily. This thematic category measured respondents’ abilities to plan. The findings below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Questions 1, 4, 7, 24 and 29. When asked if plans were followed on a weekly and daily basis, Respondent 14 said,

*Definitely try. Again, situations come up and you cannot always follow the plan. You try to but once the day starts, you think you are going to do this, but something else happens and it is thrown out the window until the next day.*
The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q1: I have a clearly defined list of objectives in writing. Seventy-eight percent of participants were obvious in their beliefs that they had clearly defined objectives. However, when respondents were probed regarding how many of these clearly defined objectives they had, it became obvious from their responses that many participants confused objectives and tasks. Allowances were made for the fact that some participants may have meant short-term objectives or even daily objectives, but also the frequency in which this phenomenon occurred provided unambiguous evidence that this confusion was genuine in the minds of many respondents.

Albeit some participants demonstrated their clearly defined objectives (see Figure Z8), almost half of participants did not show such management competence (see Figure Z9). Of the managers coded to the subtheme “demonstrated lack of understanding of what an objective is,” five of these respondents were senior managers and two were middle managers. Nearly half of study participants did not record their stated objectives in writing. Many participants confused tasks and objectives including those who stated that they had written their objectives when they really meant tasks. This was determined by participants’ “frequency of writing objectives” (see Figure Z10).

Leaders’ responses ranged from 3 to 30 objectives per day. Respondent 8 stated, “Fifty percent of my objectives are urgent and by the end of the week, all objectives are completed.” Nearly half of participants did not have clearly defined objectives. When further probed regarding how many of their objectives they had completed, nearly 31% of participants demonstrated a lack of understanding of what a clearly defined objective
was, and many referred to tasks in their range of responses including 1 to 7 done to 50% - 85% completed.

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q4: I write out objectives and things I need to accomplish. Study participants were asked to discuss if they had recorded their objectives in writing. Participants offered the following range of responses: it is all in my head (3%), yes I write my objectives (15%), demonstrated lack of understanding of what an objective is (41%), confuses tasks and objectives (37%), and not always (4%).

Forty-one percent of participants demonstrated a lack of understanding of the definition of an objective. Respondent 13 declared, “I kind of keep a mental note. I do not always write it down but you know, it is always written in my mind.” Alternatively, Respondent 12 stated, “every day I write out at least some objectives. I may not always finalize the objective list that needs to be done for that day.”

Ten of the 20 participants acknowledged that they had recorded their objectives in writing at various levels of documentation including informal notes to business plans. Among those that did have written objectives, confusion resulted between long- and short-term objectives, and even further confusion between tasks which underpinned stated objectives. Among the 10 participants that wrote objectives, there was a lack of understanding of what constituted a clearly defined objective, in which such objectives fit in terms of strategic importance to their organization and what items should be considered as tasks versus objectives.

Participants were further probed about how often they reviewed written objectives. Their responses were classified into grouped subthemes including 40% of
respondents indicating objectives are written daily, 25% write objectives weekly, and 15% never write objectives. Participants were further probed regarding the extent to which they linked objectives to timelines. Respondents offered the following range of responses: 41% indicated objectives were not linked to timelines; 37% demonstrated tasks orientation; and 22% linked objectives to timelines.

Respondent 10 indicated, “It depends on what the objective is. Some of them are restrained by a certain time limit.” Six managers, five of which were upper management, linked their objectives to timelines. Little recognition resulted in participants’ responses of differences between short- and long-term objectives and widespread confusion between tasks and objectives. In addition, many managers were coded as task oriented meaning that the thread of their discussions always focused on short-term tasks and not on objectives, especially when responding to a probe directly related to objectives rather than tasks.

Many participants displayed a lack of understanding of the importance of strategic objectives and organizational success. Respondents displayed poor ability to link strategic objectives to short- and long-term task planning. Reviewing objectives was haphazard for most managers, and in some cases could not be ascertained because of participants’ confusion between tasks and objectives. Twenty-two percent of nonprofit leaders demonstrated their abilities to link strategic objectives to timelines (see Figure Z11).

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q7: I try to plan my time on both a weekly and daily basis. Participants perceived themselves as very good at planning their time. When asked directly, participants
offered the following range of responses: no I am not a good planner (5%), weekly only (10%), more ad-hoc (3%), and yes my time is planned daily and weekly (82%). Respondent 13 declared, “Every week and every day! You know there are things that have to be done on this day and you have to get those done.” However, participants were less clear when further probed regarding what extent they followed their plans once made. Respondent 1 stated,

For the most part, I would like to say I do but we have a real social environment up here. You almost have to excuse yourself. Our president is very social. So, I do not want to say to the president that I cannot talk to you right now; I have to go back into my office. (Laughter) You have to play it by ear but for the most part, if it is happening and I haven’t already been sucked into it [conversation], it is good that I am already in my office.

Respondent 15 posited, “Yes. Not always, but the plan is there to go back to once you put out the fire. There are a lot of fires that come up do not get me wrong.” Further, 50% of respondents followed the plan whereas 35% sometimes followed the plan. Only 10% of respondents indicated that plans were always followed.

Participants considered themselves accomplished regarding planning. Further probing revealed that respondents were ambiguous regarding what extent they followed their prepared plans. Half of participants were reasonably disciplined concerning their ability to follow plans and deviated only in the face of unforeseen emergencies. Fifty percent of respondents endeavored to follow their plans, but also were frequently unsuccessful in this regard (see Figure Z12).
The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q24: I have a to-do list that I follow throughout the day. Participants were questioned concerning their use of to-do lists as a means of managing tasks and managing time. They offered the following range of responses: it is all in my head (11%), yes I deploy a to-do list (50%), I do not follow it (8%), sometimes (12%), and no I do not use a to-do list (19%). Half of participants used to-do lists. When further probed regarding how many days in a given week they followed to-do lists, the top three responses were grouped under the following classifications: 55% indicated every day, 14% stated 4 out of 5 days, and 10% professed 1 out of 5 days.

Respondent 5 indicated, “Every day! It is either the sticky note of the stack that is on my desk every day. There is a stack here and this is what I have to do.” Respondent 9 stated, “No, it is because you run out of time or you have delegated something to somebody and they have not gotten back to you or something of that nature.” Respondent 7 replied, “On average, usually the items that I have put on the list usually get marked off that day.”

Participants were split 11 to 9 with the slight majority believing they did not always complete their tasks whereas almost as many articulating that they always complete tasks on their to-do list even if not on the day scheduled. Respondent 5 disclosed, “Yes. Maybe not all in one day but they are all done.” When further probed regarding the process of translating to-do lists tasks accomplishments from daily to weekly performance, participants were divided along similar lines indicating that tasks are recorded against daily performance. Fifty-five percent of respondents indicated that they do not follow to-do lists but 45% do.
Half of participants reported using to-do lists. When further probed regarding how many days per week respondents followed to-do lists to achieve tasks, a slight minority indicated that they followed their lists daily (see Figure Z13). A similar minority acknowledged that they would perform better over a week. Equally, half of respondents did not use to-do lists, periodically deployed lists, or did not follow lists. Twenty-five percent of participants indicated they updated their lists every day (see Figure Z14).

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q29: I update my to-do list every day. Participants were questioned regarding the frequency of reviewing and updating to-do lists. Their responses were classified under three areas: those that do (65%), those that do not (15%), and those that sometimes or usually do (20%).

Those respondents that updated or reviewed their lists daily were further probed regarding the frequency of this task. Their responses were classified as follows: frequently (25%), infrequently (30%), rarely (40%), and never (5%). Respondent 18 divulged, “Not daily, probably every week or every other week, or something like that.” A third of participants updated or reviewed their lists daily whereas two-thirds did not or rarely did.

Participants were further probed regarding performance against the most important tasks on lists and offered the following classifications of responses: yes I do (55%), does not use daily list (5%), I think so (10%), and not always (30%). Respondent 2 indicated, “Yes. I accomplish what has to be done for sure that day.”

Slightly over half of participants stated that they completed the most important tasks on their list with the remainder not always succeeding in this regard. When further
probed concerning how much time it took each day to evaluate and update to-do lists, the top three time frames provided by respondents were 5 minutes or less per day (68%), 30 minutes per day (11%), and I am scattered (11%). A majority of participants believed that it took little time to assess to-do lists. Respondent 13 stated, “Just as things come in, you add it and if it is something that has to be done right away, you put that at the top of the list and take care of that first. So, just about 5 minutes.”

Most participants acknowledged that they deploy to-do lists and professed that they do not review them again that day. More than half of the participants that use to-do lists asserted that they completed important tasks on their lists but the remainder frequently did not (see Figure Z15). Two-thirds of participants said that using a to-do list did not impact negatively on their time as it requires only 5 minutes per day (see Figure Z16). Nearly half of participants used to-do lists in an effective manner.

**Thematic Category Three: Taking Action**

The thematic category “taking action” was probed under five subheadings that included finding large blocks of uninterrupted time, eliminating time wasters, eliminating crises, organizing and accomplishing more, and using travel and waiting time productively. This thematic category measured respondents’ abilities to take action. The findings below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Questions 5, 9, 14, 23 and 25.

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q5: I can find large blocks of uninterrupted time when I need it. Participants were equally divided on their abilities to create large blocks of uninterrupted time. These divisions were these: I cannot do it (45%), only when out of the office (9%), and yes I can create time (46%).
When weighted by concerns, participants were equally split between those who could and those who could not create large blocks of uninterrupted time. Respondent 7 stated, “No, I cannot do it!” Respondent 9 disclosed, “Yeah, I can do that. I can. I am pretty good at compartmentalizing so I can set something aside and find blocks of time if I need to.”

Respondents were proportionately equally divided on their ability to create blocks of uninterrupted time, with half responding affirmatively, and the remainder negatively (see Figure Z17).

Participants were further probed concerning how often they believed they needed blocks of uninterrupted time eliciting a wide range of responses as classified by the top three responses: twice a week (23%), every day (41%), 4 times per year, and once per week (9%) respectively. Most participants believed they needed to block uninterrupted time every day or at least twice a week. Participants were further probed regarding how often they succeeded in meeting their previously discussed needs for uninterrupted time. The top three ranges of responses were coded to the following classifications: never (50%), big projects only (15%), and daily (15%). Most nonprofit administrators admitted that they needed uninterrupted time daily or minimally twice weekly. The majority of leaders stated that they were unsuccessful in achieving this desire. Half of participants never succeeded whereas the remaining respondents were below their own aspired threshold (see Figure Z18).

No differences resulted between participants desire to have a block of uninterrupted time every day or at least twice per week, and their success in fulfilling their own stated needs in this regard. Half of participants never succeeded whereas the remaining respondents were well below their own aspired threshold. Of the 10 nonprofit
administrators who said they never achieved their desire for uninterrupted time, seven were upper management, one was lower management, and two were staff (see Figure Z19).

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q9: I eliminate time wasters in my job. Participants offered a range of opinions when asked to discuss their abilities to eliminate time wasters from their work day. The responses were grouped and coded by the top three replies to the following subthemes: I try to (48%), yes I do (14%), and I cannot (21%). Respondent 10 stated, “I wish I could, they hang around.”

Most administrators attempted to eliminate time wasters in their work days. Some leaders admitted experiencing frustration at their inability to eliminate time wasters. Participants offered a range of items that waste their time as indicated by the key three responses: unnecessary conversations or meetings (36%), having to be social (14%), and people (9%). Participants cited other people as the biggest time wasters in the work day which includes conversations and being social (see Figure Z20). All principal areas of concern came directly under the control of study participants. Seven of the 14 senior managers in the current study cited unnecessary conversations and meetings as their biggest time wasters. Participants were asked to discuss which strategies were implemented to avoid the time wasters expressed. Nearly half of respondents cited that main strategies were ranked by frequency of reference including setting priorities (20%), looking busy (16%), declining invitations (13%), and closing office doors (13%). Figure Z21 displays the above-mentioned strategies.

Five managers linked strategies for dealing with time wasters to their own priorities. The remaining respondents used less honest tactics such as using several e-mail
accounts, diverting calls, or putting in extra hours because they believed that could not be as up front with time wasters. Respondent 8 stated, “To make up for lost time, I often eat lunch at my desk or come in to work earlier or stay later.” Respondent 7 posited,

I wish that I could resist more but I feel like I get pulled in a little bit and I do not ever like to tell people no. It is hard for me if people come to be about things. I feel I need to hear them out. I wish that I can say, “I’m sorry.” I feel compelled to help.

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q14: I try to eliminate frequently-occurring crises in my job. Participants discussed their abilities to foresee and forestall frequently occurring crises. They offered a diverse range of responses: yes I try (38%), follow-up and allocate time (13%), and just handle it (9%).

Many participants said they tried diligently to eliminate crises but indicated that control was an issue, and sometimes they could control situations that led to crises. When pressed regarding if they were proactive at foreseeing potential crises or reactive and more likely to move after the event, participants were evenly divided. Being proactive or reactive in times of crisis was not related to age or experiences in the nonprofit sector as participants were equally divided across age and experience.

When further probed regarding how they endeavored to eliminate crises within their organizations, participants offered a range of responses: follow-up and allocate time (28%), through good preparation and planning (16%), try to foresee them (12%), and learn from past mistakes (12%). Respondent 12 stated, “That’s preparation and planning I think. I try to keep my eyes on things that can could come up and create a crisis or a
problem. If you attend to all of the things you need to attend to, you prevent crises most of the time.”

Other respondents used less proactive strategies such as following directions, just handling it or believing that some crises were simply unavoidable. Respondent 13 disclosed, “Just do what you are supposed to do and try to follow directions.” Respondent 2 revealed, “I do not think in our type of environment we will ever eliminate some crisis thing just because of the nature and the environment we are facing today. So the thing I try to do is find the best way to work through those crises.” Respondent 1 stated, “This one is a tough one because I am looking at it from the perspective of something I can control. The crisis in my job right now would be the economy. Not something I cannot control.”

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q23: I am better organized and accomplishing more than I was six months ago. When asked directly, many participants believed that they had improved their organizational skills in the previous six months. Participants offered the following range of responses: yes I am (58%), no I am not (17%), not sure (12%), and no change (13%). Participants who believed they had improved were further probed regarding why this change had occurred. They offered a wide range of reasons but the main commonalities were classified and coded as follows: longer in the job (22%), through technological tools (21%), through setting priorities (21%), and to-do lists deployment (6%). Those who believed they had improved were exclusively senior managers.

For those who believed they had not improved, further probing about why elicited the following replies: not enough staff (27%), poor task management (13%), and poor
priorities setting (13%). Participants appeared willing to take responsibility for their own learning with many reasons cited as self reflective/critical. Respondent 16 revealed,

I probably need to work on the things that I mentioned earlier including write down my tasks, making a daily priority list instead of letting things carry over automatically. I probably need to do that in the mornings and prioritize my day so I can get started a lot sooner in my day.

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q25: I use travel time and waiting time productively. Most participants believed they used waiting and travel time productively (see Figure Z22). When asked directly, participants offered the following main responses: yes I do (79%), I try to (5%), no I do not (11%), and sometimes (5%).

However, not all participants traveled regularly or spent significant time away from their offices. Participants were further pressed regarding travel frequency to ascertain how many of the group was in the yes I do make efficient use of travel time group. Participants who traveled regularly in a given week or month were ranked as ‘high’ or frequent travelers (45%) whereas participants who never traveled or who only left the office a few times in a given quarter were ranked as ‘low’ or infrequent travelers (55%).

Nonprofit leaders were further probed regarding how they make use of this waiting time. The three main replies were these: taking work with me (34%), through technology/mobile office (28%), and efficient scheduling to double up on tasks (16%). Half of senior managers were represented in the group who made efficient use of waiting time and six deployed technologies such as Blackberrys, iPhones or laptops to work
remotely and to make more efficient use of their travelling time (see Figure Z23). Respondent 19 divulged, “I do not travel. I do not do things in a car of things like that. The Blackberrys and things like that, those drive me crazy.” Respondent 7 stated, “This is probably dangerous but I find myself using the Blackberry and answering e-mails while I am tooling down the road. Of course, if I am waiting for someone, I am doing the same thing. I am responding to emails and calling people back.”

*Thematic Category Four: Resisting Involvement*

The thematic category “resisting involvement” was probed under four subheadings that included getting overly involved in people’s activities, resisting helping others, controlling interruptions, and handling interruptions. This category measured senior managers’ abilities not to be diverted from their strategic objectives and remain focused on delivering organizational goals and mission. The findings below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Questions 13, 18, 22, and 30.

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q13: I resist getting overly involved in other people’s activities. Participants were very honest and a majority of them did get overly involved in other people’s activities. When asked directly, participants’ responses were grouped into the following classifications: yes I resist getting involved (17%), I sometimes get involved (34%), I do get involved on other peoples activities (38%), and I try to resist getting involved (11%). Respondent 2 stated, “I do those things very often because they come up very often. I just take my own time and do not get a lot of sleep.”

Most participants agreed that they frequently get overly involved in other people’s activities (see Figure Z24). Only eight participants actively resisted getting diverted from
the organizational mission. Five of these participants were senior managers, one was middle management and two were staff. Nine senior managers were in the remaining categories who got overly involved to varying extents. When pressed regarding how often they allowed themselves to be diverted in this way, participants offered the following range of responses: as needed (58%), every other day (11%), and weekly (21%).

The majority of participants became involved in other people’s activities daily and weekly, and was available on demand to colleagues. Participants were further probed regarding where the boundaries lay in regard to being available to colleagues and why would they refuse to become involved in other people’s activities. Half of participants suggested reasons for not becoming involved. These included I have got my own job to do (65%), I do not have the time (23%), some people take advantage (6%), and I need to manage time better (6%). Pressures to deliver on their own responsibilities and time constraints were the main barriers that half of participants cited as the reasons they resisted getting involved in other people’s activities (see Figure Z25). Respondent 6 declared, “I try not to get involved unless asked.”

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q18: I resist doing things for others that they should be doing for themselves. Participants’ responses to helping others were entirely consistent with becoming overly involved in others’ activities. Participants were asked directly if they resisted helping others. Their responses were grouped and classified as follows: no I do not resist helping others (50%), yes I do resist helping others (23%), and I sometimes resist (27%). Three-quarters of all participants could not resist helping others or could only resist sometimes. Further
probing revealed that a substantial majority (17) considered themselves team players but a low minority (3) were not team players.

When further probed, some participants discussed resisting helping others when they believed the person requesting assistance was capable of doing more for themselves. Other responses for turning down a colleague seeking help included I do not resist (35%), I have my own job to do (22%), I do not have time (17%), so that they can learn (13%), they need to take responsibility (9%), and they are capable of doing it for themselves (4%).

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q22: I effectively control interruptions. Participants were asked to discuss how they managed day-to-day interruptions that occurred in their work environments. Their responses were coded under four classifications: I try to control interruptions (50%), I do not have interruptions (5%), I am not good at controlling interruptions (18%), and I definitely control interruptions (27%).

A quarter of all participants were clear that they definitely controlled interruptions. Three-quarters tried to control interruptions (see Figure Z26). When further probed regarding what strategies they used in this regard, participants articulated the following main three responses: looking busy (27%), using a gatekeeper (23%), and communicating that I am busy (19%).

Half of participants used strategies which were self-initiated, and proactively communicated to others that the attempted interruption was inappropriate, such as communicating verbally and nonverbally that they were too busy to be interrupted. The remaining respondents used strategies that did not rely on themselves but on another
person such as using a gatekeeper, not providing a chair, or simply failing to eliminate the interruption. Participants said that interruptions were a frequent event and set out the following range of frequencies in which they occurred: hourly (45%), seldom (11%), and daily (44%). Respondent 12 stated, “Sometimes you do and sometimes you do not.”

[Subject was interrupted as she was responding to this question.]

Participants allowed interruptions to disrupt their work daily and weekly. Almost all participants often believed obliged to allow interruptions because of social interactions. Two senior managers said that they effectively controlled interruptions but the majority admitted difficulty in this regard. Respondent 16 stated with laughter, “I could get better at that. It depends who it is. If it is a colleague at work it is not as easy, if it was a sales person then definitely. I have gotten really good at cutting that down.”

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q30: I handle telephone interruptions so they do not keep me from finishing my work. Participants were asked to discuss interruptions in which control was more limited such as telephone interruptions. Participants’ responses fell under two broad classifications including yes I do (78%), and no I do not (22%).

Participants were more confident regarding handling telephone interruptions as opposed to more general interruptions. Three-quarters of all participants believed they were effective in controlling telephone interruptions. They were further probed regarding what strategies they used to handle telephone interruptions. Responses were classified into the following areas: by being brief (23%), by using a gatekeeper (41%), I do not control telephone interruptions (18%), and I am not good at controlling telephone interruptions (18%). Over 50% of participants controlled telephone interruptions by being
brief or using a gatekeeper. People who used electronic gatekeepers such as switching on voicemail were also coded to this theme. A significant minority could not or did not even try to control telephone interruptions.

Respondent 15 stated,

I will let someone else answer my phone if I am busy. We have caller ID so I can see whose calling and if I do not have time to talk to that person, then I less it go to voice mail.

Respondent 6 stated,

I have had about four different phone calls since we have been on this conference call. I said to myself why not turn the phone off? I finally turned it off. I will return those calls as soon as we finish if time will allow.

Participants were further pressed regarding the scale of telephone interruptions. They were unanimous that this was a daily problem with half believing an hourly issue existed. Six of the 14 senior managers in the study could not or would not take control of telephone interruptions (see Figure Z27).

Thematic Category Five: Paperwork

The thematic category “paperwork” was probed under five subheadings that included throwing out unnecessary papers, handling paperwork once, finding things without sifting through paper, reducing paperwork time, and throwing out and dealing with junk mail. This thematic category measured respondents’ ability to manage paperwork. The findings below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Questions 2, 8, 15, 21 and 26.
The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q2: I immediately throw out all unnecessary papers. Participants were asked if they get rid of unnecessary papers and they responded under three broad headings: yes I do (43%), no I do not (43%), and I try to (14%). Just under half of participants were clear that they systematically disposed of unnecessary paperwork. The remaining respondents tried, with varying success or were openly unable to introduce a system for dealing with unnecessary paper.

Participants who did, or tried to throw out unnecessary paperwork, were further probed regarding what criteria they used for deciding what stayed and what went (see Figure Z28). Responses were classified under the following headings: I decide using my own judgment (31%), only relating to my direct responsibility (48%), by date (17%), and only keep financial papers (4%). Participants who were proactive in throwing out unnecessary paper used their own judgment in their direct area of responsibility as the key criteria for disposing of unnecessary paperwork. Participants who did not throw out unnecessary paperwork cited their own disciplinary failures and insecurity (being able to produce evidence if questioned on something). Respondent 4 stated,

And I probably should, but I am one of these people that like having a paper trail so that later if something comes back at me, and I have a paper there and a note that says when I did whatever it was.

Respondent 10 stated with laughter, “No, I am a pack rat. You never know!” Participants who did throw out unnecessary paperwork were probed regarding how much of their time was spent disposing of unnecessary paper. They offered the following range of top three responses: as I work (12%), 30 minutes per week (23%), and 1 hour per week
(35%). The majority of those who organized and disposed of unnecessary paper took an hour less to do so each week.

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q8: I handle each piece of paperwork only once. Participants were asked if they handled paperwork more than once and they responded under three broad headings: no I do not (59%), yes I do (8%), and I try (33%). The vast majority of participants did not handle paperwork just once. Participants were probed regarding the volumes of paper work generated and offered the following responses: a great deal (87%), and a third of all my time (13%).

Participants did not believe handling paperwork once was feasible because handling paper was a significant part of their daily work. Respondents were further probed regarding how they managed large volumes of paper and responded under the following broad headings: gets filed (42%), different processes (5%), gets trashed (32%), moved to the right person (10%), and some stays on my desk (11%). Respondent 1 stated, “A lot! About much of my time is paperwork, about 80%.” Respondent 20 stated, “The majority of what I do is paper work because you have to document everything whether you are talking about scholarships or donations or whatever. There is a lot of paper work linked to it. I would venture to say that 90% of what I do is paperwork. I know they tell us that we are supposed to be out and about in the community but we cannot because of all the paperwork.

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q15: I can find things I want without sifting through stacks of paper. Participants were asked to discuss finding things in the context of organizing paperwork, stacking and filing paperwork, and how much time it took to find things. Participants organized paperwork as follows: into
piles (37%), by category or subject folders (30%), I do not, it is all on my desk (15%), and electronically (18%). Respondent 13 stated,

Ha! Ha! I am sorry. It is just that I made this comment to somebody today, “it looks like the paper fairy threw up on my desk.” A lot of what I do is paperwork. So the majority of my job is probably 85-90% is paperwork.

Participants worked with large volumes of paper and for two-thirds of participants, most paper was organized into piles and left on the desk for current documents to be filed last. A quarter of participants adopted an electronic environment but a small number openly admitted being ineffective at organizing paperwork. Three of the four participants who were poor managers of paper were in management and two were in upper management.

Most participants worked with large piles of paper on their desk and considered this fundamental to their work (see Figure Z29). Eighty-seven percent of respondents stated they work with large stacks of paper on desks. Participants were further probed regarding any difficulties they encountered retrieving items of paper. Their responses were coded into two classifications of responses: not long (55%) and sometimes it takes a while (45%). Respondent 15 stated, “If it is something I have been working on then not that long. If it is something I worked about six months ago, then it may take me a little while. Hopefully, I will know exactly where I put it.” Half of participants said that it sometimes takes a while to find items, especially if they are not current and by extension, not in a pile on their desk at the time items are needed.

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q21: I have been able to reduce the time I spend on paperwork. Participants were asked to discuss
ways that they had or believed they could reduce the time they spent on paperwork. Participants offered a range of responses which were classified as follows: no I cannot (33%), yes I have (48%), and small reduction (19%). Half of participants said that they had reduced time spent on paperwork. The remaining participants had made little progress in introducing efficiencies.

Respondent 14 stated, “Not really, it is still the same. I am not as tech savvy.”

Respondent 20 stated,

Yes. Before I told you that 90% of what I do is paperwork is true, but I am accomplishing so much more. When I first got with the foundation, we had five scholarships. Now, we have had so many more. We help students so much more than what we did before. We have added two huge fundraisers. We make 10 times more money than when I first started. It is still not a whole lot but we are accomplishing so much more. Part of that is because I do have somebody else in this office even though this office is public relations and advancement and the fact that part when I came into it, I had no background, no training and now I have learned so much more. Even though I still have tons of paper work I have a lot more experience. It is as if you have a template for things. You have done them now. Now you do not have to create everything. You can go to your template and it makes it 10 times faster than before.

Participants were further probed regarding how they had or think they could achieve a reduction in their paperwork. They offered the following range of responses: it is not possible (24%), through technology (43%), through better organizational skills (24%), and through delegation (9%). Participants identified: technology, better
organizational skills, and delegation as ways they had or believed they could reduce paperwork (see Figure Z30). A small percentage believed that reducing paperwork could not be achieved (see Figure Z31). None of these were upper managers. Given the degree with which technological solutions were cited as ways of bringing efficiencies to paper based operations, participants were pressed regarding how much of their filing is currently electronic and how much is manual (see Figure Z32). Participants offered the following range of responses: both (47%), paper only (3%), mostly electronic (33%), half of each (14%), and electronic only (3%).

Despite recognition by almost all participants that paperwork could be reduced through technological solutions, and the fact that almost all participants were doing some electronic filing through e-mail, surprisingly half of participants cannot make significant, or indeed in most cases, any reduction in paperwork. One participant cited training in document management systems as a key success in reducing paperwork whereas the vast majority of those that could not make progress on reducing paperwork did not raise their own skills deficit or were actively seeking training in this regard. Respondent 11 stated,

I have taken a few development administrative type classes or courses that kind of help you go through being organized. We have special software that we have that is excellent. It is digital organizational software that is called Paper Tiger. It is awesome and we had a consultant come in and help us get started. Of course, it is up to us to keep it up. But has been a huge asset and I have only come in contact with that in the last year. So, it is a great program. Anyway, those type things help and honestly, I have an undiagnosed little bit of OCD so it helps with organization to really stay on top of things.
The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q26: I throw out junk mail as soon as I get it. Participants were asked to discuss how they handled electronic and paper-based junk mail. Participants offered a range of responses about if they disposed of junk mail immediately which were classified as follows: yes (85%), no (5%), and not always (10%). Most participants did not hesitate in trashing junk mail. Ninety percent of participants did not rely on or have an assistant that filtered junk mail for them as demonstrated. Sixty-seven percent of participants received junk mail daily, 16% weekly, and 17% infrequently.

Thematic Category Six: Deadlines

The thematic category “deadlines” was probed under four subheadings that included making sure things are done on time, finishing tasks on time, meeting deadlines, and getting to meetings on time. This thematic category measured respondents’ abilities to meet deadlines. The findings below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Questions 6, 12, 19, and 27.

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q6: I make sure things are done on time. Participants considered themselves to be very competent when it came to getting things completed on time. When asked directly, participants were almost unanimous in their assertions which were coded under the following classifications: yes things are done on time (87%), not always (9%), and I try (4%). Participants were further probed regarding how they managed to be so efficient at getting things done on time and what strategies they used to ensure such a high standard (see Figure Z33). Participants offered the following responses: by using deadlines (94%) and by delegation (6%).
The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q12: I finish tasks on time. Participants were further probed in relation to finishing tasks in a timely fashion in the context of defining what being late means, how often they were late, and how late they may be. Participants again considered themselves very efficient in this area and responded under the following classified themes: yes I do (75%), if a deadline exists (4%), and if possible (26%). Almost three-quarters of participants remained consistent to their earlier position of always delivering on time, whereas six senior managers and upper managers introduced the possibility of tardiness (see Figure Z34). Respondent 20 stated, “I would have to go back and say maybe 90%.”

Nineteen of 20 participants cited “before a specified deadline” as the definition of being late. When further probed regarding occasions when they may have missed a deadline, participants conceded that “rare occasions” occurred (see Figure Z35). These responses were coded to three broad responses: never (25%), only if it is not a priority (5%), and rarely (70%). Respondent 3 stated, “I do not think I am late that often and if I am late, it is usually because someone else has not given me what they were supposed to.” Participants were further probed regarding typical project lifecycles and 94% responded that this was a variable underpinned by the nature of the project itself. The other 6% indicated that the task would be completed within a week’s time.

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q19: I meet deadlines. Participants discussed meeting deadlines in the context of success or failure in meeting deadlines. Participants distinguished between tasks and deadlines, and unlike the ambiguity recognized in respondents’ articulation of always completing tasks on time; there was more readiness to admit that sometimes deadlines were not met. When asked
directly, participants offered the following responses: always meet deadlines (64%), and almost always (36%). A third of all participants admitted they sometimes missed deadlines. When further probed regarding how often this might happen, participants offered the following responses: never (30%), only non-critical deadlines (5%), rarely (50%), and sometimes (15%). Given that most participants have demonstrated in previous categories that they are deadline and task-orientated and led, unremarkably participants rarely missed deadlines (see Figure Z36).

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q27: I get to meetings on time. Participants were probed regarding their timeliness while interacting with people as well as tasks. Differences were noted in participants’ requirements to attend meetings (see Figure Z37). The top three variables include 4 to 6 per week (39%), 2 to 3 per week (39%), and 7 to 10 per week (11%). Most participants were required to attend between two and six meetings per week or an average of one per day. Participants were probed regarding their ability to attend meetings timely. Responses were grouped into three broad areas: usually on time (45%), I am always late (5%), and always on time (50%). Participants were efficient when it came to punctuality with regard to attending meetings (see Figure Z38).

Thematic Category Seven: Self-confidence

The thematic category “self-confidence” was probed under four subheadings that included doing anything put mind to, being more cable than the average person, being confident, and being positive about the future. This thematic category measured respondents’ abilities to believe in self. The findings below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Questions 3, 11, 17, and 28.
The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q3: I can do anything I put my mind to. Participants were probed regarding their self-belief and ‘can do’ attitude. They answered these prompts under the following top three general categories: sometimes (10%), yes I can (55%), and usually (15%). Respondent 9 stated, “Not 100%. I would say about 90 to 95%.” Just over half of participants were confident that they could achieve their objectives and the remainder, although more reserved, were still optimistic in their outlooks (see Figure Z39).

Respondent 11 stated,

I agree with that completely, and there are some things that at times that we feel like are unobtainable goals but with a little bit of foresight and just keeping an open mind, I feel like we can reach those.

Participants were further probed regarding what they believed they had achieved regarding time management strategies specific to tactics they currently deployed. Participants offered a wide range of responses which were classified and grouped as follows: setting daily goals, ad hoc, to-do lists, calendar driven, good housekeeping, training, technology solutions, fire fighting, strategically driven, and using project management skills. These responses were weighted by frequency of reference as demonstrated in Figure 5.

Participants were consistent with thematic category 6 in substantiating being driven by deadlines and calendar events. Six of the 14 senior managers out of 20 participants cited technological solutions as current tools in their time management strategy. Some managers were still openly ad-hoc regarding time management. Although
some managers cited to-do lists as part of their time management strategy just as many were unsystematic in their planning. Respondent 7 stated,

I start out weekly on a plan where I am suppose to be on a given day as far as time; however, that seems to be changing daily, hourly. So right now, it is a little chaotic so my time management has been better in the past but I am trying to do what I can do to assist everyone and meeting in all the new counties that we are including right now with the recent technical college mergers. Right now, it is a little chaotic.

![Participants' Time Management Strategies](image)

*Figure 1.* Participants’ weighted deployed time management strategies.

When probed regarding how participants implement strategies, respondents cited action plans as means of keeping themselves on task. The following range of responses
was coded under this theme: no plan, reactive, I use project management techniques, and yes I use action plans. The weighting of these responses is recorded in Figure 5.

Most study participants stated they used action plans although the findings from thematic category 2 suggested otherwise. Half of participants were highly disorganized in their planning, did not effectively deploy organizational tools such as to-do lists, did not have clearly defined objectives or have those objectives recorded in a written strategic plan. Many of their daily activities were ad-hoc and reactive to immediate needs or events rather than measured steps underpinned by tasks, which were managed daily and linked to clear, identifiable written objectives, which in turn, were linked to a timeline.

**Figure 2.** Participants’ weighed strategy implementation process.

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q11: I am more capable than the average person. Participants were probed to test their beliefs in their own capabilities. They were asked directly if they believed they were more capable than the average person. They answered this probe under the following general categories: no I am not (13%), I do not know (18%), yes I am (61%), I am more willing (4%), and I am
more organized (4%). Just over half of participants believed they were more capable than the average person.

When probed, participants offered a range of attributes that they believed made them more capable (see Figure Z40). The top four responses were categorized as follows: my organizational skills (16%), my experience (13%), I go above and beyond (13%), and my personality (10%). Participants were quite fragmented in their beliefs regarding why they were more capable than the average person. Half of participants cited: organizational skills, experience, dedication to duty and personality as the key attributes that made them more capable than the average person.

Participants were further pressed to describe their capabilities and what made them effective (see Figure Z41). They responded under the following the top three coded themes: organizational skills (13%), people skills (13%), and communication skills (8%). The other varied responses ranged from multitasking capabilities to delegating with varied frequency weights between 6% and 2%.

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q17: I am confident about almost everything I do. Participants were probed to test their self-confidence. They were asked directly if they were confident in almost everything they did. Respondents answered this probe under the following general categories: I can do anything (36%), more capable than average person (32%), and confident (32%). Respondent 2 stated, “Most of the time I am confident about almost everything I do!”

Participants were extremely confident and believed they could do anything and were more capable than the average person in equal measure. Respondents were further probed regarding why they believed such confidence (see Figure Z42). The main four
responses were classified as follows: I give 100% (15%), my experience (23%), my track record (11%), and my colleagues (11%). Participants cited experience, commitment, track record and colleagues as the key reasons for feeling confident about almost everything they accomplished (see Figure Z43).

They were further pressed to describe their track record on accomplishing objectives. Participants cited the following top three accomplishments: I have a very good record (39%), I complete my tasks (26%), and I met all my objectives (17%). Possessing a good record and completing tasks were cited as the biggest accomplishments which underpinned participants’ confidence. Respondent 20 stated, “My confidence is not because I feel like I can do anything but I guess because of past successes.” Respondent 13 stated, “I would say it is good. I complete my tasks as defined and do what I need to do. Having a good record and completing tasks were cited as the biggest accomplishments, which underpinned participants’ confidence.”

The themes below were based on participants’ responses to TMPI Q28: I am positive about my future. Participants were asked if they were positive about the future. They responded under two main classifications: yes I am positive about the future (80%) and I am not positive about the future (20%). Participants were very positive about their futures. Participants were further probed regarding why they were so positive about their future (see Figure Z44). Their responses were coded under the following subthemes: I love my job, I have good relationships with key people, and I am doing my best. Participants cited loving their jobs, enjoying a good relationship with key people and doing their best as central to feeling positive about the future. Respondent 18 stated, “I
am happy in my job, I am happy where I am, hoping that I can see the end of my career. So, I just enjoy what I do.”

Participants were asked if they intended to stay in their current job. Their responses were classified as follows: yes I will (79%), for two years (6%), not indefinitely (5%), possibly (5%), and only out of necessity (5%). Most participants intended to remain with the organization and viewed their work as a career rather than a job.

The results of the data analysis revealed the following central time management issues faced by half of the nonprofit administrators participating in this exploration. These issues indicated that a lack of time management training makes these leaders incapable of:

1. Thinking strategically
2. Defining objectives clearly
3. Setting priorities
4. Preparing appropriately
5. Linking short- and long-term goals
6. Remaining focus
7. Implementing technology
8. Maintaining timelines other than those imposed by others
9. Explaining high self-confidence levels
Testing of the Qualitative Research Questions

Qualitative Research Question #2: What is effective time management?

Time management is the ability to achieve stated outcomes efficiently and effectively (Kleinmann & Koch, 2002). Leaders’ management practices determine effectiveness (Herman & Renz, 2004). Employing successful time management skills are critical for nonprofit leaders whose goal is to improve financial efforts, thus impacting organizational success (Fitsimmons, 2008a). Recognizing that time management problems exists within organizations is an impediment that many leaders face. Implementing an effective time management system in nonprofit organizations requires leaders to increase the awareness of the value of time management organization wide (Lucco, 1994). Effective time management strategies are abundant; however, not all approaches are suitable for all leaders (Ostrowski, 2005). Ostrowski’s creative procrastination theory suggests that people do the likeable tasks firsts, and prioritize the daunting tasks second. This premise allows leaders to manage tasks differently from better and still meet organizational missions.

As indicated by the time management literature and the focus of the current study, this phenomenon requires leaders to set priorities, plan, take action, resist involvement, manage paperwork, meet deadlines and build self-confidence levels to be more effective and impact organizational success. Organizational accomplishments are measured through effective time management (MacKenzie, 1997) and progress stems from the use of effective time management strategies (Stack, 2000).

A list of priorities should contain seven or less crucial tasks and issues that will influence the organization’s missions (Lemberg, 2008). Each item should be completed
before moving down the list. Other suggestions included refreshing to-do lists daily, reprioritizing meetings and daily rituals that steal time by delegating or omitting them from essential to-do lists. Leaders should evaluate progress of priority lists by reviewing accomplishments against tasks. Leaders gain a better perspective on time management when priorities are managed (Lemberg). This research question is supported by the literature research definitions of effective time management and beneficial strategies toward success.

**Qualitative Research Question #3:** Is there a need for a time management program for administrators of nonprofit organizations?

As evidenced by the current study’s results, there is a critical need to implement effective time management programs. Of the respondents who demonstrated effective use of time management strategies, it is evident that such techniques are beneficial to the organization. The data is inundated with corroboration of the benefits.

Some leaders were ad-hoc regarding time management which could negatively impact organizations. Respondent 14 stated, “I avoid situations that take time” but no examples were given to show this action’s results. Respondent 13 declared, “Just trying to organize myself so that I can get everything done that needs to be done that day; just taking things in the order of how they need to be done, what is most important, what is least important.” This respondent may believe a plan to tackle daily tasks is primed, but based on scale scores under the planning categorical theme both respondents scored very low.

A time management program is essential for leaders of nonprofit organizations. Nonprofit leaders should significantly benefit from the implementation of a time
management program. This research question supports the results of the data analysis indicating those participants who have demonstrated their use of time management strategies and the recommended benefits.

Qualitative Research Question #4: Are leaders and staff of nonprofit organizations currently using any form of time management?

Half of the leaders participating in the current study currently use some form of time management. The key time management strategies indicated by many nonprofit leaders included using calendars, technology, and to-do lists. Some leaders were able to articulate time management strategies that positively impact success.

Respondent 9 disclosed,

I use a calendar that is basically a dairy. I devise that calendar a year in advance. I put things on the calendar that are required on a daily, weekly, monthly basis so I can have those issues out of the way. I color code the calendar based on the things that I have to do. Red are things that I have to do for business and out of town travel that are out of the office. Blue are items that are away from the office but do not require overnight stay. Green are things that are on campus. I use it and plan it well based on the events of the day. I keep it in a binder where I list tasks so I will remember. I also have a small digital camera that I keep with me when I see things around campus or when I am travelling. If I see things and want to remember it, I take a picture of it and forward it to whomever needs to have it with a description of what I think needs to be done.
Respondent 17 postulated,

I do organize and keep to-do lists, one for the day and one for the year. I keep two different lists which are constantly changing. I mark off those theses that get done on the daily list and added to the next day. The yearly lists are marked off as they are completed throughout the year.

These two leaders’ responses indicated that consideration for organizational objectives exists by implementing effective time management strategies to remain organize on a yearly basis. In a study conducted by Kyriazis (2007) results revealed that 80% of patrons saved nearly an hour each day through the implementation of effective time management strategies. More than half of the nonprofit leaders in the current study revealed no strategies to save time. This research question is supported by the results of the study indicating that 50% of the leaders and staff currently use some form of time management techniques.

*Qualitative Research Question #5*: Who would benefit from the use of time management strategies? How can each leader develop his or her own time management techniques?

Almost half of study participants do not use time management strategies which also impact their organizations. If time management strategies are implemented successfully, nonprofit leaders would achieve more, enjoy their work more, be less stressed, and have additional time to participant in other activities relative to their jobs. This transformation will have an impact on improving leaders’ skill sets, enhancing career opportunities, and organizational success.

Time management requires time to make time (Wild & Neville, 2008) which half of the leaders in this survey failed to recognize. By effectively managing time, leaders
have the opportunity to achieve organizational goals, improve efficiency and success. Wild and Neville posited that time cannot be replaced or increased; ineffective time management often results in costly mistakes.

The current study’s findings revealed that half of participants do not practice effective time management and could not articulate the importance of time management and the relationship to achieving their organization’s strategic endeavors. These same respondents are uneducated in implementing and incorporating time management techniques to become more effective in attaining organizational success. This research question is supported by the results of the current study indicating that all nonprofit administrators could benefit from the use of time management strategies by adopting techniques discovered in the study’s literature research and approaches discussed in the findings.

Summary

The current study involved comparing survey and interview responses to secondary data from a literature review to triangulate the findings. The goal of the study was to explore nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use and discover effective time management strategies suitable for administrators of nonprofit organizations. The study was guided by the following research questions: What is effective time management? Is there a need for a time management program for administrators of nonprofit organizations? Are leaders and staff of nonprofit organizations currently using any form of time management? Who would benefit from the use of time management strategies? How can each leader develop his or her own time management techniques?
Good nonprofit leaders have the competency and the propensity to direct and manage individuals toward accomplishing organizational objectives and ensuring organizational missions are achieved. To attain success, nonprofit leaders serve as the catalysts of frameworks designed to promote continuous improvement within the nonprofit organization. Nonprofit leaders committed to organizational effectiveness prompt the implementation of “higher organizational standards, leadership, accountability, performance, and results” (Drucker, 2004, p. 198) including adopting effective time management techniques.

The purpose of this mixed methods study was to explore nonprofit administrators’ perceptions of time use and discover effective time management strategies suitable for leaders of nonprofit organizations. Analyzing survey and interview results of the current study revealed that this inquiry was necessary and further confirmed the importance of assessing nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use. The study examined the relationship of nonprofit leaders’ use of time/time management skills and effective time management strategies that impact organizational success. Adopting effective time management strategies that promote improved organizational performance is essential to organizational success.

The current study’s findings add to the existing literature and establish a framework for leaders of nonprofit organizations to embrace positively time management strategies that will enhance funding research efforts and improve organizational success. The results of this mixed methods research study revealed that 50% of administrators of nonprofit organizations do not use effective time management strategies to improve organizational success based on an examination of the qualitative and quantitative aspects
of the problem. Chapter 4 presented a qualitative methods review, results and findings through data analysis in the format of tables, figures, summaries of quantitative and qualitative data, testing of quantitative and qualitative research questions, and a written summary. Chapter 5 will offer literature review conclusions, findings and interpretations, limitations, data interpretations, assumptions, ethical dimensions, implications, recommendations for future research, and summary and conclusion.
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

“Time management involves working on the right things and doing them the best way” (Duncan, 2008, p. xi). As the literature revealed and the current study’s results corroborated, managing time is the quintessential challenge faced by all leaders including administrators of nonprofit organizations. The dilemma of managing time is determining which time management strategies are effective to achieve organizational success.

The problem investigated in the research study was the ineffective use of time management in nonprofit organizations. The purpose of this research was to explore nonprofit administrators’ perceptions of time use and discover effective time management strategies suitable for leaders of nonprofit organizations. The research study involved the use of a mixed methods research methodology to investigate nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use by administering the *Time Management Practices Inventory* (TMPI) online survey instrument and interviewing these same nonprofit leaders working in technical college foundations across the state of Georgia.

The primary research questions for the current study asked (a) “How do the *Time Management Practices Inventory* scores relate to respondent demographics?” (b) “Is there a need for a time management program for administrators of nonprofit organizations?” (c) “Are leaders and staff of nonprofit organizations currently using any form of time management?” (d) “Who would benefit from the use of time management strategies?” and (e) What is effective time management? Answers to these questions revealed that a time management program is necessary for leaders of nonprofit organizations to succeed.
Chapter 5 culminates this extensive research effort to reveal the perceptions of time use of nonprofit leaders working in technical college foundations across the state of Georgia. This final chapter presents literature review conclusions, findings and interpretations, limitations, data interpretations, assumptions, ethical dimensions, implications and recommendations for future research, and summary and conclusion.

Literature Review Conclusions

An abundance of time management literature exists but the lack of data essential to nonprofit leaders is limited. Time is a scarce resource among many organizations (Berman, 2007; Thairu, 1999; Williams, 1996) but managing time is challenging and requires self-discipline if success is to be achieved. As evidenced by the literature, time management strategies are prevalent, but techniques geared toward the nonprofit organization are rarely addressed. Essential to the significance of the current study is the need for nonprofit leaders to be prepared to use effective time management tools that promote organizational success. If nonprofit leaders are committed to becoming more effective in achieving missions and attaining goals, leaders should recognize that managing time is critical to organizational success and the implementation of effective time management strategies is essential. Claessens et al. (2007) maintained that limited literature is accessible for leaders of nonprofit organizations regarding the use of effective time management techniques and finishing tasks within deadlines.

The comprehensive literature search conducted in the current study provided valuable insight, yet the issue of leaders of nonprofit organizations devoid of a practical model to enhance not only time management proficiency, but also leadership skills still afflicts the nonprofit sector. In examining the literature, challenges persisted in
discovering viable time management strategies designed for nonprofit leaders. This section will compare the seven categorical themes discussed in chapter 4 with the literature findings. The thematic categories are setting priorities, planning, taking action, resisting involvement, paperwork, deadlines and self-confidence.

As the literature suggested, leaders are expected to do more with less (Sherlock & Nathan, 2007; Koch, 2003; Harung, 1998) resources even though time management is a crucial component of effectiveness and requires leaders to set priorities and goals (Kearns & Gardiner, 2007; Lakein, 1973; O’Brien, 2003).

Planning is a severe time issue encountered by nonprofit leaders participating in the current study. Carroll (2007) concurred with Lakein’s strategies, but also posited that scheduling a time to plan is important in time management. H. Smith (1994) agreed with other time management experts that planning and prioritizing are effective time management strategies. To-do lists are another critical aspect of efficient time management but also should be prioritized and achievable (Carroll, 2007; O’Brien, 2003). Creating measurable tasks increases leaders’ abilities to accomplish responsibilities timely.

Taking action is an issue encountered by nonprofit leaders participating in the current study. The review of literature surmised that action planning is beneficial to realizing organizational success. Achieving organizational goals entails leaders creating written action plans (Fitsimmons, 2008b; Kearns & Gardiner, 2007; Koch, 2003) that align with organizational objectives (Neely, 2007). Unplanned interruptions (Lucco, 1994; Pearce, 2007; Schreiter, 2008; Stack, 2000) inefficient meetings and lack of
priorities (Draper, 2006) and distractions (Kearns & Gardiner, 2007) are time wasters that
the current study’s respondents experience regularly.

Handling paper is an issue experienced by nonprofit leaders participating in the
current study. Paperwork is another time management issue nonprofit leaders face.
Handling paperwork once is a strategy that can prove to be effective in the office
(Crosby, 2004). Being capable of leading others successfully requires self-confidence.
Study participants perceived themselves as self-confident. The results indicated otherwise
for more than half of participants. Thairu (1999) indicated that individuals who
unsuccessfully manage time experience stress as tasks go undone, which results in a low
capability of doing work, low efficiency, and ineffectiveness.

Measuring organizational success is unproblematic when applying the evaluation
technique Activity-Based Time Management (ABTM) to nonprofit organizations (Stout,
2001). The goal of ABTM is to relay the amount of time used by organizations to
accomplish desired results. This tool offers a snapshot of allocations of time for
significant outcomes. Leaders can assess the time spent on tasks and implement useful
tools to maximize organizational success and determine time use (Stout, 2001).

As evidenced by review of the literature, successfully implementing
organizational goals and objectives require leaders to implement effective time
management strategies and leadership skills that result in success. The literature
supported the reality of insufficient data available concerning the use of effective time
management techniques adopted by nonprofit organizations. Based on a review of
literature through 2004, Claessens et al. (2007) asserted that their review was significant
as no other empirical assessment of time management had been published since the 1980s
The current study’s results indicated that half of participants manage time effectively but the other half are ineffective time managers. Once leaders train, identify and implement learned time management strategies and management skills, opportunities exist to improve organizational success.

Findings and Interpretation

The focus of this research is the lack of knowledge available on the effective use of time management strategies in nonprofit organizations. The current study attempted to provide a realistic analysis of leaders of nonprofit organizations’ perceptions of time use and effective time management strategies that impact organizational success. Focusing on not-for-profit groups could be the missing link to assist leaders of nonprofit organizations in improving organizational effectiveness.

The rationale for conducting the current study was to determine effective time management strategies helpful for leaders of nonprofit organizations. The problem is the implications of leaders of nonprofit organizations not completing job assignments in a timely manner might cause a loss of funding that impacts organizational success and effectiveness. A significant gap exists between for-profit and nonprofit organizations in relation to available resources to improve organizational development and success with the effective use of time management strategies.

Continuous improvement is essential to achieving organizational goals and attaining success. Transformational leadership is recognized as one of the leadership styles that creates a “culture high-performance working” (Daunton & Moss, 2006, p. 50) environment. Transformational leadership is the classic style that embraces innovation and change initiatives. By transforming leaders’ perceptions of time to meet
organizational objectives, opportunities exist for leaders to execute time management strategies effectively to benefit the entire organization.

The results of the current study may be beneficial to leaders of nonprofit organizations by suggesting effective time management strategies to improve organizational success, ultimately increasing funding objectives. Nonprofit leaders may be interested in assessing the results of the current study because it provides a foundation from which the phenomenon of time and time management may impact nonprofit organizational development and effectiveness. Study results may present a viable option for leaders of nonprofit organizations to adopt a successful time management program that could influence funding efforts positively and assess leaders and staff perceptions of time use. Results of the current study could help determine the reasons leaders of nonprofit organizations do not implement effective time management strategies. Below is a summary of the findings of the study as presented in chapter 4.

Summary of Quantitative Findings

Research Question #1: How do the Time Management Practices Inventory (TMPI) scores relate to respondent demographics?

Leaders’ Time Management Practices Inventory scores were related to respondent demographics. The variables gender, race/ethnicity and position were related to TMPI scores setting priorities, deadlines, overall scores, taking action, resisting involvement and paperwork. Six of the eight scores presented a statistical significance among leaders demographics. Gender was significantly related to setting priorities and deadlines. Race/ethnicity was significantly related to overall score, taking action and resisting involvement. Position was significantly related to paperwork.
Leaders’ gender was related to TMPI scores setting priorities and deadlines. The setting priorities scores ranged from 23 to 92 points with a mean of 68.15. The deadlines scores ranged from 15 to 89 points with a mean of 66.65.

Leaders’ race/ethnicity was related to overall score, taking action and resisting involvement. The overall score ranged from 12 to 97 points with a mean of 75.35. The resisting involvement scores ranged from 6 to 95 points with a mean of 64.20. The taking action score ranged from 21 to 96 points, with a mean of 62.15.

Leaders’ position was related to paperwork. The paperwork scores ranged from 15 to 98 points with a mean of 67.00. The highest possible score in all thematic categories was 100.

Summaries of demographic frequencies, descriptive statistics scores sorted by highest mean, and time management scores with select variables were presented in Tables 1, 2 and 3. All leaders’ scores were assessed by the TMPI instrument regarding time management skills. Results indicated three significant findings at $p < .10$ including:

1. Women leaders had higher responses than men in setting priorities and deadlines.
2. African American leaders had higher response rates in overall score, taking action and resisting involvement.
3. Upper management leaders had higher response rates for handling paperwork.

These results suggested a relationship between TMPI scores and selected demographics. There is sufficient evidence at the alpha level of significance to support
the claim that leaders’ *Time Management Practices Inventory* (TMPI) scores will be related to respondent demographics.

Summary of Qualitative Findings

*Research Question #1:* How do the *Time Management Practices Inventory* (TMPI) scores relate to respondent demographics?

*Research Question #2:* What is effective time management?

*Research Question #3:* Is there a need for a time management program for administrators of nonprofit organizations?

*Research Question #4:* Are leaders and staff of nonprofit organizations currently using any form of time management?

*Research Question #5:* Who would benefit from the use of time management strategies? How can each leader develop his or her own time management techniques?

Leaders’ perception of themselves regarding setting priorities, planning, taking action, resisting involvement, managing paperwork, meeting deadlines and self-confidence are different from the reality. More than half of leaders’ responses suggested that they perceived themselves as efficient time managers, yet the results proved that they are not effective at managing time. The current study’s results revealed nine key time management issues faced by 50% of nonprofit administrators who have no effective time management training suggests these leaders are incapable of:

1. Determining concepts of strategic thinking
2. Discerning clearly defined objectives underpinning vague strategy
3. Setting priorities
4. Planning properly
5. Relating short- and long-term goals
6. Staying focus
7. Using technology efficiently
8. Sustaining timelines other than those imposed by others
9. Clarifying high self-confidence levels

Because the results of the data analysis revealed that leaders’ perceptions are different from their reality, 50% of nonprofit leaders participating in the study failed to seek time management training. The evidence also supports those nonprofit leaders who improved their time management abilities because they perceived a need to obtain additional training. Leaders’ perception of time use and the implementation of effective time management strategies techniques could be a factor to improve organizational success and effectiveness because half of respondents in the study have received time management training and 50% those who have not:

1. Fifty percent of the nonprofit leaders perceived themselves to be effective time managers.

2. The results of the study revealed that a deficiency in time management skills is an issue, but also stems from insufficient skills of a wider problem; lack of leadership management training.

3. Results of the study revealed that half of the leaders in this exploration should seek effective time management training to improve efficiency and impact overall organizational success.
Major Themes From Qualitative Analysis

Thematic Category One: Setting Priorities

Nonprofit leaders discussed setting priorities in the context of tackling tasks on the basis of importance and priority, awareness of long-term objectives, identifying critical activities, and prioritizing objectives and daily activities.

Thematic Category Two: Planning

Nonprofit leaders discussed planning in the context of the following: clearly defined objectives, written objectives, daily and weekly task planning, and using and managing to-do lists.

Thematic Category Three: Taking Action

Nonprofit leaders discussed taking action under the context of participants’ abilities to create large blocks of time, eliminate time wasters, eliminate crises, use travel time productively, and continuous improvement of organizational skills.

Thematic Category Four: Resisting Involvement

Nonprofit leaders discussed resisting involvement under the context of participants’ abilities to control their decisions and actions regarding the extent to which they may be overly involved in other people’s activities including resisting helping others, controlling general interruptions, and controlling specific interruptions such as telephone interruptions.

Thematic Category Five: Paperwork

Participants’ managing capabilities regarding paperwork was discussed in the context of the following broad areas: throwing out all unnecessary papers, handling
paperwork once, finding things without sifting through paper, reducing paperwork time, and throwing out and dealing with junk mail.

*Thematic Category Six: Deadlines*

Participants’ competencies regarding meeting deadlines were discussed in the following context: completing tasks on time, finishing tasks in a timely fashion, meeting deadlines, and arriving to meetings in a timely manner.

*Thematic Category Seven: Self-confidence*

Participants’ self-belief and general confidence was discussed in the context of believing: I can do anything, being more capable than average person, being confident and being positive about the future.

The study’s results revealed that a gap existed between participants’ aptitudes to distinguish the implication of setting priorities and their understanding of the importance of written objectives. This knowledge gap directly influences leaders’ abilities to plan and execute actions driven by priorities. These findings proved that the nonprofit leaders who participated in the study oriented time similar to the time allocation theory. The theory that drove the current study was predicated on the time allocation theory (Rojas-Méndez & Davies, 2005) which bases time orientation on the past, present, or future. Based on a phenomenological philosophy, the time allocation theory “holds that individuals allocate their discretionary time purposively, depending upon their time orientation: to the past, present, or future” (Rojas-Méndez & Davies, 2005, p. 34). The foundation of the theoretical framework for the current study was the concept of time management as set forth in the time allocation theory.
Fifty percent of the nonprofit leaders participating in the current study perceived themselves to be effectual time managers and use effective time management strategies to be more efficient, but the study’s results suggested otherwise. No leader introduced efficiencies such as reducing manual paperwork which all culminate in appropriate linkages to timelines, and setting of deadlines, nor made references to continuous learning and improvement through a commitment by participants to seek on-going training.

The current study’s theoretical framework was based on the relationship between nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use and task completion. The time allocation theory would only benefit the current study if Rojas-Méndez and Davies’ theory was based on the framework of mandatory job-related time rather than unrestricted time. As evidenced by the current study, a substantial gap exists between nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time and use of effective time management strategies to complete tasks.

Limitations and Data Interpretation

Limitations exist in the current study and are acknowledged as follows:

1. The study was specific to leaders of nonprofit organizations and limited to participants who agreed to participate voluntarily.
2. The study was limited to the number of participants surveyed and the amount of time available to conduct the survey.
3. The truthfulness of the participants limited this research effort. The population to be studied comprised technical college foundation nonprofit leaders throughout the state of Georgia governed by the Technical College System of Georgia.
4. The validity of the study was limited to the reliability of the TMPI instrument. The sample, drawn from nonprofit leaders, might not provide findings that apply to leaders working within other areas of the Technical College System of Georgia.

5. The term “other” presented in the Table 1, Frequency Counts for Selected Variables, represented an education level not included in the selection options, such as a leader who has taken courses toward a master’s degree but has not earned it yet.

6. The results from this small sample cannot be used for the population, but provides a general basis for making assumptions about leaders’ of nonprofit organizations abilities to manage time effectively. However, reminiscent of other qualitative studies, numbers of participants are small because qualitative data analysis seeks to consider numerical conditions or statistical examination.

7. Time was another limitation of the research study. Because this research examination is not longitudinal, which requires a longer period, findings could vary with the limited time constraints.

8. The sample in the research study was not specific to all nonprofit organizations; however, the findings are applicable to the issues encountered by all types of nonprofit organizations.

9. As a former employee of both a technical college foundation and a grassroots nonprofit organization, research interpretations may have impacted generated and reported results of the study.

10. The accuracy of participants’ interview responses could impact the interpretation of data analysis since participants’ perceptions and expressions were central to the
study’s results and conclusions. Erroneous expressions of participants’ personal
and professional experiences could limit the study’s interpretations and
conclusions.

11. Because of technical college mergers throughout the state of Georgia, nine
technical college nonprofit foundations were combined into four nonprofit
foundations effective July 1, 2009. These mergers reduced the number of
technical colleges from 33 to 28 after informed consent was obtained from all
study participants. For purposes of the study, 33 leaders were solicited. These
mergers may have impacted the study’s individual participation levels.

12. A critical limitation of the study was the availability of nonprofit leaders to
participate in the study. Because of demanding schedules and limited time, many
of the leaders were not readily accessible and did not participate in the study.
Consequently, this issue delayed the data collection process.

Assumptions

Each leader’s responses suggested that effective time management is crucial to
meet organizational goals and objectives of each technical college’s nonprofit foundation.
The conjecture is that learning how administrators of nonprofit organizations perceive
time might yield some insight into how organizational leaders can improve use of time
and enhance organizational success. Half of the study’s participants seem to be quite
competent in the many areas, which were probed during the research. The other half of
respondents require time management and leadership training. The participants are split
virtually down the middle with respects to time management abilities. The worst failing is
practically no concept of lifelong learning and no competency models from the nonprofit
sector to base continuous learning. The results of the study revealed that a deficiency in
time management skills is an issue, but also stems from insufficient skills of a wider
problem; lack of leadership training. Hence, leaders’ perception of time use could be a
factor in implementing effective time management strategies techniques to improve
organizational success and effectiveness.

Change is inevitable if organizations desire to grow. Most often change with
existing environments and structures is sufficient if processes are improving; replacing
entire procedures with new implementations or programs are taxing but beneficial if the
program does not appear to be viable. Continuous improvement is the catalyst that
transforms organizations to achieve excellence through effective management system
designs. Results of the study revealed that half of the leaders in this exploration should
seek effective time management programs to improve efficiency and organizational
success.

Ethical Dimensions

Shared values and integrity are essential to leadership competency. Values and
integrity are an important component of the leadership behaviors of transformational
leaders. These ethical characteristics influence leaders’ propensity to impact
organizational success and effectiveness through continuous improvement, innovation,
and building relationships within the organization to achieve goals and objectives.
Leadership roles encompass much more than managing an organization and building
wealth, but also developing risk awareness analysis that help leaders make the best
business decisions and establish and implement best practices (Gandossy & Sonnenfeld,
2004) that impact ethics.
By designing an ethical framework that focuses on organizational identify and responsibility, leaders can eliminate the guess work on the roles and obligations of leaders. Aligning practice with principles helps leaders become more committed to organizational objectives especially with proper training. By reducing cynicism, leaders present an opportunity to promote acceptance of ethical values; thereby, projecting realistic ethical behavior. The process for resolving ethical conflicts involves leadership's ability to solve problems as they develop. A significant gap exists between ethical values and behavior; however, effective leaders attempt to close the gap by continually applying best practices that promote organizational success.

Effective leadership is essential to organizational success. Cashman’s (2003) discussion on leadership composition revealed obvious characteristics of effective leadership including:

1. Being a visionary;
2. Possessing integrity;
3. Being effective;
4. Having compassion; and
5. Having the courage to act sensibly under any conditions. (p. 4)

Based on the research, leaders who are visionaries, possess integrity, effective, compassionate, courageous and team players tend to be more effective. Without a leader’s vision and guidance, subordinates are left to mishandle daily tasks and assignments, which could ultimately yield a negative impact on an organization.
Implications

The purpose of the current study was to explore nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time use and discover effective time management strategies suitable for administrators of nonprofit organizations. This investigation explored the problem of limited knowledge available on the effective use of time management strategies in nonprofit organizations. The implications of the study is specific to leaders of nonprofit organizations and the inability to complete job assignments in a timely manner because of limited staff, which could result in loss of funding that ultimately impacts organizational success and effectiveness.

The research conducted and reported herein has implications for enabling leaders to provide logical explanations to present to funders for not always adhering to guidelines on a regular basis because of insufficient funds and lack of staff. The study’s results revealed that 50% of leaders of nonprofit organizations housed in Georgia’s technical college foundations need to seek and implement an effective time management training program that also incorporates leadership training. The significance of the study’s results may also enable leaders of nonprofit organizations to design effective time management programs that will enhance leadership and management skills.

The information ascertained from the research study will not only help leaders of nonprofit organizations but also all leaders implement change initiatives that affect organizational success and promote continuous improvement. With the commitment of leadership and a viable leadership competency model, organizations have an opportunity for success and to embrace innovation and performance excellence through alignment and integration of best practices and effective leadership.
Recommendations for Nonprofit Leaders

Based on the study’s results, recommendations have been devised to benefit all nonprofit administrators and staff working in a technical college foundation because implementing effective time management strategies impacts the entire organization. Working toward organizational success is a continual process and requires leaders of nonprofit organizations to be the catalyst that sets the standards to achieve success. The following is recommended:

1. The nonprofit administrators should make time management a high priority and communicate the importance of its affects to achieve organizational success for all stakeholders.

2. The nonprofit administrators should solicit input from all stakeholders regarding effective time management strategies that will lead to organizational success.

3. The nonprofit administrators should adopt effective time management programs that benefit all stakeholders within organizations. The results of implementing an effective time management system could improve funding efforts and timely task completion.

4. The nonprofit administrators should reinforce and support continual professional development that focuses on improving organizational change.

5. The nonprofit administrators should adopt a nonprofit leadership competency model (see Appendix AA) that allows leaders to identify and assess behavior deficiencies, promote continuous improvement, provide training opportunities, implement new training knowledge, and assess training success. This proposed model will facilitate administrators of nonprofit organizations to examine skills
and identify weaknesses which can be addressed through training opportunities; and serve as a tool to aid nonprofit leaders in implementing effective time management techniques through continuous improvement and becoming effective time managers.

**Nonprofit Leadership Competency Model**

In order for the proposed *Nonprofit Leadership Competency Model* to be effective, it is important that the design be appropriate to the culture, stakeholders support the innovation, the system-wide process is understood, processes are diversified, and resources are properly allocated (Wycoff, 2003). Appendix Z best outlines the new paradigm design in which professional development is a continuous process that benefits nonprofit leaders and results in organizational success. The goal is to for nonprofit leaders to commit to continuous improvement and embrace creative and innovative initiatives that promote organizational success.

**Rationale for Change**

Change suggestions are the outcome of this research effort. Leaders of nonprofit organizations invest time and resources to becoming more effective leaders in providing quality, valued service. Nonprofit respondents in the current study work in organizations that suggest continuous growth but no progressive leadership and management design system is implemented that focuses on development of self, thus positively impacting organizational success. By improving self and adding value to the organization, nonprofit leaders could convey the organization’s commitment to performance excellence by proposing new strategies for improvement. As the results of the study revealed, changed is necessary for nonprofit leadership and organizational success. Understanding an
organization’s strengths and weaknesses during assessments for improvement is crucial for change to occur (Wiley & Campbell, 1986, p. 8). Once all organizational stakeholders understand the rationale for change, effective improvement opportunities can result.

Below are the steps of the proposed *Nonprofit Leadership Competency Model* system design.

The first step is to identify and assess behavior deficiencies in time management and leadership skills based on current organizational challenges. Nonprofit leaders’ behaviors should be balanced and aligned with the organization. The second step is to propose new strategies for time management and leadership management improvement. Evaluating and determining training opportunities is the third step toward achieving organizational success. The training opportunities include time management and leadership training. The fourth step is implementation of new training. Once leaders determine the effectiveness of the training, assessment can commence. Assessing the effectiveness of new training is the fifth step in this proposed model. The assessment phase is used to validate and evaluate training methods and determine if organizational goals are met. This step is an essential component to monitoring and auditing the process for improvement. This cyclical process promotes continuous improvement and opportunities for nonprofit leaders to complete job assignments in a time mannerly, thus improving opportunities to increase funding resources. Organizational leaders who embrace change ultimately are leaders of creativity and innovation.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

Because the current study focused on nonprofit leaders working in technical college foundations across the state of Georgia, further research to include other
collegiate foundations and various types of nonprofit organizations in Georgia may provide beneficial to all nonprofit organizations. A significant gap exists between for-profit and nonprofit organizations in relation to available resources to improve organizational development and success with the effective use of time management strategies. Establishing a focus on nonprofit organizations could be the missing link to aid leaders of nonprofit organizations in improving organizational effectiveness.

Results helped determine why nonprofit administrators do not implement effective time management strategies to augment funding opportunities and improve individual and organizational growth and success. The benefit of the current study exists in future research to examine:

1. Other Georgia technical college foundation leaders’ perceptions of time use.
2. Other time management strategies for administrators of nonprofit organizations.
3. A more detailed assessment of nonprofit leaders’ missing demographics such as respondents’ prior work histories, careers and background experiences in the nonprofit sector because it is beyond the scope of the study to consider these factors.
4. Diversity among the study’s participants was limited. Future research to include a more varied population could prove beneficial in determining if race/ethnicity is a factor in time management perceptions of nonprofit leaders.
5. Designing a unique time management model for leaders of nonprofit organizations.
6. Other time management strategies for nonprofit leaders to ensure the success and effectiveness of nonprofit organizations.
Ascertaining different perspectives and suggestions on time management issues that influence nonprofit organizations statewide could prove beneficial as these organizations work diligently to prosper. This information could prove helpful to nonprofit leaders as they continue to seek knowledge and strategies to raise funds and adhere to mission statements.

Summary and Conclusion

This mixed methods study explored leaders’ of nonprofit organizations perceptions of time use and effective use of time management strategies that impact organizational success. The theoretical framework for the current study proposed that perception of time use was linked to task completion success. As revealed in the literature review, leaders who successfully implement effective time management strategies have the propensity to achieve organizational goals and objectives. The responses of 20 nonprofit leaders suggested that perception of time is not aligned with work reality. Many themes emerged throughout the current study revealing that a gap exists between nonprofit leaders’ perceptions of time and use of effective time management strategies to complete tasks.

The primary research questions for the study asked (a) “How do the Time Management Practices Inventory scores relate to respondent demographics?” (b) “Is there a need for a time management program for administrators of nonprofit organizations?” (c) “Are leaders and staff of nonprofit organizations currently using any form of time management?” (d) “Who would benefit from the use of time management strategies?” and (e) what is effective time management? These questions were addressed indicating that a time management program is necessary for organizational success.
The quantitative results substantiated a relationship between leaders’ *Time Management Practices Inventory* (TMPI) scores and respondent demographics. The variables included gender, age group, race/ethnicity, highest grade completed, years in organization and position. The TMPI scores included setting priorities, planning, taking action, resisting involvement, paperwork, deadlines and self-confidence.

Three of the six variables presented in the demographic survey revealed a statistical significance with six of the eight scores. The variables gender, race/ethnicity and position were related to TMPI scores setting priorities, deadlines, overall scores, taking action, resisting involvement and paperwork. Gender was related to two of the eight variables. Race/ethnicity was related to three of the eight variables. Position was related to one of eight variables. These results indicated a relationship between TMPI scores and selected demographics. There is sufficient evidence at the alpha level of significance to support the claim that leaders’ *Time Management Practices Inventory* (TMPI) scores will be related to respondent demographics.

The qualitative results confirmed a necessity for a time management program for administrators of nonprofit organizations. The qualitative data revealed that half of administrators of nonprofit organizations are using some forms of time management which indicates that a serious issue exists. The qualitative findings corroborated that all respondents will benefit from the implementation of time management strategies. Fifty percent of respondents’ perceived themselves to be effective time managers but their interview responses indicated otherwise. Each nonprofit administrator could develop his or her own time management techniques through the use of the leadership competency model developed for the current study. Effective time management was not defined by
study participants but the findings showed that half of participants do not employ time management strategies.

The lack of such studies confirmed the gap between for-profit and nonprofit organizations regarding the effective use of time management strategies. With increasing competition for funding, nonprofit organizational leadership, similar to their for-profit counterparts, expect staff to be productive and reduce costs (Green & Skinner, 2005). Neuhoff and Searle (2008) noted that if nonprofit organizations experience an increase in productivity, greater opportunity exists to enhance the impact of their work.

The current study is an asset to the existing time management literature and nonprofit leaders; and could be a continual process of improving time management skills and achieving organizational goals. Knowledgeable, experienced, indispensable nonprofit leaders working in today’s competitive environments must never see themselves as the finished product. The pace of economic and technological changes requires continuous improvement, training, and self-development. Without the implementation of effective time management strategies, leaders of nonprofit organizations have the propensity to forfeit funding that impacts organizational success and efficiency. By adopting successful time management strategies, leaders of nonprofit organizations can improve bursary efforts, achieve missions, and enhance success. Leaders who determine the most effective use of learned time management strategies are the key toward improving organizational success.

Chapter 5 concludes the research study. The findings resulted in seven thematic categories that impacted perception of time; a) setting priorities, b) planning, c) taking action, c) resisting involvement, d) paperwork, e) deadlines, and f) self-confidence. As
recommended, effective time management requires the effort of all stakeholders to continuously improve. Future research regarding time management and task completion in nonprofit organizations is essential to determining the impact of the work and productivity levels (Neuhoff & Searle, 2008) in efforts to attain organizational success.
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UNIVERSITY OF PHOENIX

APPENDIX A: PERMISSION

PERMISSION TO USE PREMISES, NAME, AND/OR SUBJECTS
(Facility, Organization, University, Institution, or Association)

Technical College System of Georgia-System, Office
Name of Facility, Organization, University, Institution, or Association

Check any that apply:
☐ I hereby authorize ____ student of University of Phoenix, to use the premises (facility identified below) to conduct a study entitled (insert title of research study or a brief description of research study)

☒ I hereby authorize Deborah Johnson-Blake, student of University of Phoenix, to recruit subjects for participation in a study entitled, Nonprofit Administrators' Perception of Time and Effective Time Management Strategies that Impact Organizational Success.

☒ I hereby authorize Deborah Johnson-Blake, student of University of Phoenix, to use the name of the facility, organization, university, institution, or association identified above when publishing results from the study entitled, Nonprofit Administrators' Perception of Time and Effective Time Management Strategies that Impact Organizational Success.

[Signature]

[Date]

Beverly E. Smith
Executive Director, Stewardship & Development
1800 Century N.E., Suite 575
Atlanta GA 30345
APPENDIX B: SIGNED PERMISSION TO USE AN EXISTING SURVEY

UNIVERSITY OF PHOENIX

UNIVERSITY OF PHOENIX
PERMISSION TO USE AN EXISTING SURVEY

Date 01/20/09

Ms. Deborah Johnson-Blake
8429 Cyprus Ridge Way
Douglasville, Georgia 30134

Thank you for your request for permission to use Pfaff & Associates' Time Management Practices Inventory instrument (TMPI) in your research study which is managed by pantesting.com. We are willing to allow you to reproduce the instrument as outlined in your letter at no charge with the following understanding:

• You will use this survey only for your research study and will not sell or use it with any compensated management/curriculum development activities.
• You will include the copyright statement on all copies of the instrument.
• You will send your research study and one copy of reports, articles, and the like that make use of this survey data promptly to our attention.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by signing one copy of this letter and returning it to us.

Best wishes with your study.

Sincerely,

Signature

I understand these conditions and agree to abide by these terms and conditions.

Signed ___________________________ Date 01/21/09

Expected date of completion 12/2009
APPENDIX C: COPY OF SURVEY INSTRUMENT

TIME MANAGEMENT PRACTICES INVENTORY

by

Lawrence A. Pfaff, Ed.D.

NAME ________________________________________

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© 2002 Lawrence A. Pfaff. All rights reserved. Permission granted by the author for use in the study.
TIME MANAGEMENT PRACTICES INVENTORY (Authorized by Dr. Lawrence A. Pfaff)

Instructions:

Each of the following statements is designed to help you identify your typical time use patterns. There are thirty-one items to be completed. For each item you are to write a number from "1" to "7" that best describes your normal practice.

To guide you:

"1" means that the statement is true to an extremely small extent, never, or not at all.
"4" means that the statement is true to an average extent or sometimes.
"7" means that the statement is true to an extremely high extent, always, or without fail.

Of course, you may use the other numbers:

"3" and "2" to represent varying degrees between sometimes and never.
"5" and "6" to represent varying degrees between sometimes and always.

Try to complete all statements. There is no time limit. There are no right or wrong answers. Answer as accurately and honestly as you can. The results will help you understand how you manage your time.
Remember: Rate each statement "1" to "7" based on how accurately you feel it describes what you do.

1. I have a clearly defined list of objectives in writing
2. I immediately throw out all unnecessary papers
3. I can do anything I put my mind to
4. I write down objectives and things I need to accomplish
5. I can find large blocks of uninterrupted time when I need it
6. I make sure things are done on time
7. I try to plan my time on both a weekly and daily basis
8. I handle each piece of paperwork only once
9. I eliminate time wasters in my job
10. I tackle tasks on the basis of importance and priority
11. I am more capable than the average person
12. I finish tasks on time
13. I resist getting overly involved in other people's activities
14. I try to eliminate frequently-occurring crises in my job
15. I can find things I want without sifting through stacks of paper
16. I know the long term objectives of my job
17. I am confident about almost everything I do
18. I resist doing things for others that they should be doing for themselves
19. I meet deadlines
20. I know the critical activities in my job
21. I have been able to reduce the time I spend on paperwork
22. I effectively control interruptions
23. I am better organized and accomplishing more than I was six months ago
24. I have a "To Do" list that I follow throughout the day
25. I use travel time and waiting time productively
26. I throw out junk mail as soon as I get it
27. I get to meetings on time
28. I am positive about my future
29. I update my "To Do" list every day
30. I handle telephone interruptions so they don't keep me from finishing my work
31. I prioritize my daily objectives and activities

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Dear Nonprofit Leader,

My name is Deborah Johnson-Blake and I am a student at the University of Phoenix working on a Doctor of Management in Organizational Leadership degree. I am conducting a research study entitled Nonprofit Administrators’ Perception of Time Use and Effective Time Management Strategies that Impact Organizational Success. The purpose of the research study is to explore nonprofit administrators’ perceptions of time use and time management skills.

You are being solicited to participate in this research study because prior permission was given by the Technical College System of Georgia to contact your office. Your participation will involve taking a 15-minute web-based survey at http://www.pantesting.com, which is a secure site and only accessible by the researcher. Each participant will be given a tester ID and administrator ID to access survey and to collect data generated by the survey. Your participation in this study is voluntary. In addition, a follow-up 45- minute telephone or in-person interview will be conducted to gain further insight regarding your perception of time. This interview will be taped with your permission. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, you can do so without penalty or loss of benefit to yourself. The results of the research study may be published but your identity will remain confidential and your name will not be disclosed to any outside party.

In this research, there are no foreseeable risks to you. The potential direct benefit of your participation is learning and implementing an effective framework for nonprofit administrators to embrace time management strategies that will enhance not only funding research efforts, but also improve organizational success and effectiveness, thus positively impacting your technical college foundation.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please contact me. Your participation is appreciated.

As a participant in this study, you should understand the following:

1. You may decline to participate or withdraw from participation at any time without consequences.
2. Your identity will be kept anonymous.
3. Deborah Johnson-Blake, the researcher, has thoroughly explained the parameters of the research study and all of my questions and concerns have been addressed.
4. If the interviews are recorded, you must grant permission for the researcher, Deborah Johnson-Blake to digitally record the interview. You understand that the information from the recorded interviews may be transcribed. The researcher will structure a coding process to assure that anonymity of your name is protected.

5. Data will be stored in a secure and locked area. The data will be held for a period of three years, and then destroyed.

“By signing this form you acknowledge that you understand the nature of the study, the potential risks to you as a participant, and the means by which your identity will be kept confidential. Your signature on this form also indicates that you are 18 years old or older and that you give your permission to voluntarily serve as a participant in the study described.” Please return this signed form by mailing the document directly to the researcher in the sealed, self-addressed, stamped envelope provided herein.

Signature of the interviewee ______________________ Date ______________

Signature of the researcher _______________________ Date ______________
APPENDIX E: RECRUITMENT LETTER

Dear Nonprofit Administrator,

I invite you to participate in my proposed study entitled, *Nonprofit Administrators’ Perception of Time Use and Effective Time Management Strategies that Impact Organizational Success* by completing an electronic survey in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Management in Organizational Leadership through the University of Phoenix, School of Advanced Studies.

This study will examine which effective time management strategies nonprofit administrators could employ to influence the success and effectiveness of the organization. In an effort to gauge time use patterns that could lead to success and effectiveness, you are asked to complete this 31-item electronic survey that will test your use of time. Next to each statement, indicate how true the statement reflects your time management pattern by marking a number between 1 and 7 for each corresponding item:

- “1” indicates statement is true to an extremely small extent, never, or not at all
- “2 and 3” indicate statement half of the time and never
- “4” indicates that the statement is true about half of the time, an average extent or sometimes
- “5 and 6” indicate that the statement represents varying degrees between half of the time and always
- “7” indicates that the statement is true to an extremely high extent, always, or without fail (Pfaff, 2002, p. 2)

In addition, an interview will be conducted to gain additional insight about your time use and may be recorded with your permission. This survey and interview are anonymous and any identifying information will be eliminated. Your participation is voluntary and no known risk is apparent. You may withdraw from taking this survey or interview at any time prior to or during the survey or interview. Your responses will be held in the strictest confidence and will not be publicly shared except as a general categorical statement in the final dissertation.

Kindly review and sign the attached informed consent if you agree to participate in this proposed research study. Please return the form in the sealed, self-addressed, stamped envelope provided herein. Your participation is greatly appreciated. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me. Thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

[Signature]

Deborah A. Johnson-Blake
Doctoral Candidate
APPENDIX F: DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

Name ____________________________ Date ________
Organization ____________________________

Please answer these additional questions and information truthfully.

1. Please indicate your gender.
   - Male   - Female

2. Please select your age group.
   - 18-25   - 26-34   - 35-45   - 46-50   - over 50

3. Please indicate your race.
   - African American   - Caucasian   - Hispanic   - Asian   - Other

4. Please indicate your highest grade completed.
   - High School   - Bachelor’s   - Master’s   - Doctorate   - Other

5. How long have you worked for this nonprofit organization?
   - 0-5 years   - 6-10 years   - 7-14 years   - 15-20 years   - over 20 years

6. What is your position within this nonprofit organization?
   - Staff   - Lower Management   - Upper Management
APPENDIX G: FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

(Copyrighted TMPI instrument questions are numbered)

1. I have a clearly defined list of objectives in writing.
   a. How many items are on your list of objectives?
   b. How many items from your list of objectives are completed?
2. I immediately throw out all unnecessary papers.
   a. How do you determine which papers are unnecessary?
   b. How much time do you spend throwing out unnecessary papers?
3. I can do anything I put my mind to.
   a. What are some of the things you have done relative to this study? When I
      say this study, I am referring to time management strategies.
   b. How long does it take to develop an action plan for those things you put
      your mind to?
4. I write out objectives and things I need to accomplish.
   a. How often do you write out objectives and things you need to accomplish?
   b. How long does it take you to complete the objectives?
5. I can find large blocks of uninterrupted time when I need it.
   a. How often do you need uninterrupted time?
   b. Do you block uninterrupted time daily?
6. I make sure things are done on time.
   a. How do you make sure things are done on time?
   b. How often do you make sure things are done on time?
7. I try to plan my time on both a weekly and daily basis.
   a. How often do you plan your time on both a weekly and daily basis?
   b. When you plan your time on both a weekly and daily basis, do you follow
      the plan?
8. I handle each piece of paperwork only once.
   a. How much paperwork do you handle on a weekly basis?
   b. What do you do with the paperwork once you handle it?
9. I eliminate time wasters in my job.
   a. What time wasters do you encounter?
   b. How do you eliminate time wasters in your job?
10. I tackle tasks on the basis of importance and priority.
    a. How often do you tackle tasks of importance and priority?
    b. How do you prioritize and determine which tasks is important?
11. I am more capable than the average person.
    a. Why are you more capable than the average person?
    b. Describe your capabilities and effectiveness as a professional.
12. I finish tasks on time.
    a. Please describe your definition of on time?
    b. How often are you late when completing tasks?
    c. How much time do you need to finish tasks on time?
13. I resist getting overly involved in other people's activities.
    a. Why do you resist getting overly involved in other people's activities?
    b. How often do you help others with their activities?
    a. How do you attempt to eliminate frequently-occurring crises in my job?
    b. Do you act or react in times of unexpected crises?

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15. I can find things I want without sifting through stacks of paper.
   a. How do you organize your paperwork?
   b. Do you have stacks of paper on or near your desk?
   c. How long does it take you to find things?
16. I know the long-term objectives of my job.
   a. What are the long-term objectives of your job?
   b. Describe your action plan/timeline to achieve those objectives?
17. I am confident about almost everything I do.
   a. Why are you confident about almost everything you do?
   b. Describe your track record on accomplishing objectives.
18. I resist doing things for others that they should be doing for themselves.
   a. Why do you resist doing things for others that they should be doing for themselves?
   b. Do you consider yourself a team player?
19. I meet deadlines.
   a. How often do you meet deadlines?
   b. How often do you fail to meet deadlines? Why?
20. I know the critical activities in my job.
   a. List the critical activities of your job.
   b. How important are your critical activities to achieving organizational success?
   c. How long will it take you to complete the critical activities of your job?
21. I have been able to reduce the time I spend on paperwork.
   a. How have you been able to reduce the time you spend on paperwork?
   b. Do you use an electronic or hard paper filing system?
22. I effectively control interruptions.
   a. How do you effectively control interruptions?
   b. How often are you interrupted during your work day?
23. I am better organized and accomplishing more than I was six months ago.
   a. Why are you better organized and accomplishing more than I was six months ago? How can you continue being organized?
   b. Why are you not better organized and accomplishing more than I was six months ago? What would help you become more effective and organized?
24. I have a "To-Do" list that I follow throughout the day.
   a. How many days per week do you follow your “To-Do” list?
   b. Do you accomplish all the tasks on the list?
   c. How long does it take you to finish the tasks on one week’s “To-Do” list?
25. I use travel time and waiting time productively.
   a. How do you use travel time and waiting time productively?
   b. How often do you travel?
26. I throw out junk mail as soon as I get it.
   a. Do you have an assistant who reviews your mail prior to you?
   b. How often do you receive junk mail?
27. I get to meetings on time.
   a. How many meetings do you attend per week?
   b. Are you ever late for meetings?
28. I am positive about my future.
   a. Describe your positive attitude about your future.
   b. Does your future include working for your current organization?
29. I update my "To-Do" list every day.
   a. How many times do you update your “To-Do” each day?
   b. Do you accomplish the most important tasks each day?
   c. How long does it take you to update your “To-Do” list?
30. I handle telephone interruptions so they do not keep me from finishing my work.
   a. How do you handle telephone interruptions so they do not keep me from finishing my work?
   b. How many interruptions per day do you get?
31. I prioritize my daily objectives and activities.
   a. How do you prioritize your daily objectives and activities?
   b. Do you delegate activities?
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APPENDIX I: RESPONDENTS’ INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTS EXERCEPTS

RESPONDENT: #1

Tester Id: T3147945

INTERVIEWER: I have a clearly defined list of objectives in writing.
RESPONDENT #1: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: How many items are on your list of objectives?
RESPONDENT #1: Today, my list of objectives has eight items on it.

INTERVIEWER: How many items from your list of objectives are completed?
RESPONDENT #1: One item. The reason I say only one is because some of the items on the list require information from other sources or I am waiting for other things to happen so that I can finish my role in the project. So, sometimes it is not that I am procrastinating; it is more because in foundation and development it is kind of a hurry up and wait process.

INTERVIEWER: I immediately throw out all unnecessary papers.
RESPONDENT #1: I would like to say that is probably a five more me. Sometimes I hang on to things because it never fails because someone will come back to me and ask about something we discussed previously. It never fails. I have what I call my pile papers which are things that I just put to the side but I know I can put my hands on it really quickly if somebody needs them.

INTERVIEWER: How do you determine which papers are unnecessary?
RESPONDENT #1: If it is junk mail or emails, those things I can throw out because I can keep anything electronically on my computer. Obviously, the junk mail if it doesn’t pertain to the foundation or donors, it gets thrown in the round [trash] file.
INTERVIEWER: How much time do you spend throwing out unnecessary papers?
RESPONDENT #2: Very small amount. Maybe less than five minutes a day.

INTERVIEWER: I can do anything I put my mind to.
RESPONDENT #2: Pretty close. Most things I put my mind to.

INTERVIEWER: What are some of the things you have done relative to this study? When I say this study, I am referring to time management strategies.
RESPONDENT #2: I continuously build upon the foundation’s current initiatives, enhance fundraising efforts and undertake new tasks to achieve objectives.

INTERVIEWER: How long does it take to develop an action plan for those things you put your mind to?
RESPONDENT #2: It depends on the size of particular project. Some things take it take very little time. Some things may take a week or so. Sometimes it may take a couple of weeks depending on the project itself. Sometimes it may takes a lot of external input, then it takes more time because you are linking up several factors outside of the project itself.

INTERVIEWER: I write out objectives and things I need to accomplish.
RESPONDENT #2: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: How often do you write out objectives and things you need to accomplish?
RESPONDENT #2: I do that daily and at the end of each day.
RESPONDENT #3

Tester Id: T6545580

INTERVIEWER: How long does it take you to complete the objectives?
RESPONDENT #3: Actually, it just depends on what it is. Some things may be a simple, remember to email this to that person that is done and some things might be a little more involved. It just really depends.

INTERVIEWER: I can find large blocks of uninterrupted time when I need it.
RESPONDENT #3: I think that is probably a five right now just because we switched to the four-day work weeks and later in the afternoon it tends to be quieter because people do not know we are here and early in the morning is quieter, so that is where I am finding uninterrupted time right now.

INTERVIEWER: How often do you need uninterrupted time?
RESPONDENT #3: At least a couple of times a week, depending on what is going on. Sometimes from the marketing side, I need that so that hopefully a creative idea may come to me or if I need to write something out. Maybe a couple times a week is when I really need some quiet time.

INTERVIEWER: Do you block uninterrupted time daily?
RESPONDENT #3: There are times when I do that. For instance, when I am working on a catalog and I am under a tight deadline, I will block it out, shut the door and just work. But, I am pretty good at tuning out.

INTERVIEWER: I make sure things are done on time.
RESPONDENT #3: Yes, I rated that very high. I make sure that I understand when they are expected. First of all, usually if I am given something to do, the first thing I will ask is, when do you need it, and then I just prioritize what I have on my list and make sure those that are due the soonest or that are the most critical get done the first.
RESPONDENT #4

Tester Id: T2033546

INTERVIEWER: I try to plan my time on both a weekly and daily basis.
RESPONDENT #4: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: How often do you plan your time on both a weekly and daily basis?
RESPONDENT #4: I keep my calendar in outlook and that is usually how I plan my time in terms of being both in and out of the office in meetings and then doing work here in the office.

INTERVIEWER: When you plan your time on both a weekly and daily basis, do you follow the plan?
RESPONDENT #4: Part of that depends on what other people schedules are, where I have to be and who I have to meet with, but the outlook really does help me to do what I am supposed to do.

INTERVIEWER: I handle each piece of paperwork only once.
RESPONDENT #4: Yes. In fact, years and years and years ago, I went to a seminar and that is one of the things that I took from the seminar, the acronym OHIO, only handle it once and I had never heard that before and I thought that is actually great. If I do not need it, I am not going to look at it again.

INTERVIEWER: How much paperwork do you handle on a weekly basis?
RESPONDENT #4: A lot. My paperwork includes checks, check requests. Yes, a lot.
INTERVIEWER: I eliminate time wasters in my job.
RESPONDENT #5: I do not really have that many interruptions because where my office is it is not like there is a lot of traffic through here. I am kind of hidden back, so I do not really have that very much.

INTERVIEWER: What time wasters do you encounter?
RESPONDENT #5: People.

INTERVIEWER: How do you eliminate time wasters in your job?
RESPONDENT #5: I try to be nice, but sometimes I will start writing stuff or kind of make it known that I am right in the middle of something and that I need my time or need to get back to work; those little subtle hints.

INTERVIEWER: I tackle tasks on the basis of importance and priority.
RESPONDENT #5: Yes as they come up.

INTERVIEWER: How often do you tackle tasks of importance and priority?
RESPONDENT #5: Like I said, we were working on an event that we have coming up but then a grant came up that needed to be submitted tomorrow and the VP asked if I could you help with the submission. Since that was of course a priority, I dropped whatever I was doing and go do that and then come back to my previous task.
RESPONDENT #6

Tester Id: T8554934

INTERVIEWER: How do you prioritize and determine which tasks is important?
RESPONDENT #6: So I try to do that as far ahead as reasonably possible, but I will prioritize that, as opposed to going to a meeting that I am on a committee or going to a meeting of the civic group that I am a member of. If there is something that needs my attention professionally, I will make sure that I handle it; instead of going to something that may be more of a civic and/or pleasurable event.

INTERVIEWER: I am more capable than the average person.
RESPONDENT #6: This question came up the other day. I consider myself capable, with their proper amount of time and/or training above the average.

INTERVIEWER: Why are you more capable than the average person?
RESPONDENT #6: I think that goes back to my childhood, where I was born and raised on a productive farming environment where multitasking was part of our daily routine. I was in her only child and early on. I had the opportunity and responsibility to be up early in the morning to handling the livestock feeding them, servicing them and do whatever needed to be done before I was off to school. When I came any afternoon, my chores on the farm were there for me, and then in the evening I had the homework etc. I may be on the tractor half a day or work on the livestock. I would gather the vegetables because we get a lot of truck farming. We would take the harvested vegetables to the market. Early on, I learned how to balance as much as possible and multitasking and I think that has paid dividends to me throughout my life as being at least slightly above average as far as being able to multitask.

INTERVIEWER: Describe your capabilities and effectiveness as a professional.
RESPONDENT #6: I think I am above average effective. My communication skills are above average and my ability to speak to groups. I have kept abreast of electronic changes in the world of electronics. I have gone to different seminars when it comes to operating the computer, as well as operating other things that my job requires me to do. Writing press releases, continuing to stay abreast as member of professional organizations, reading different types of magazines periodically and trying to stay abreast of the news world that we operate in as well as the economic environment that we are in as far as the foundation and professionally. So, that's what I do there.
RESPONDENT #7

Tester Id: T9946171

INTERVIEWER: I finish tasks on time.
RESPONDENT #7: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: Please describe your definition of on time?
RESPONDENT #7: Either when it is due or before it is due.

INTERVIEWER: How often are you late when completing tasks?
RESPONDENT #7: I would say if I am ever late usually it is because something has fallen through not because I didn’t press own. I would say it is not even a percent. I am seldom if ever late, less than 1%. That’s one of my little quirky things.

INTERVIEWER: How much time do you need to finish tasks on time?
RESPONDENT #7: I think that really depends on the project. It is hard to categorize. I really do not know how to answer that.

INTERVIEWER: I resist getting overly involved in other people's activities.
RESPONDENT #7: I wish that I could resist more but I feel like I get pulled in a little bit and I do not ever like to tell people no. It is hard for me if people come to be about things. I feel I need to hear them out. I wish that I can say, “I’m sorry.” I feel compelled to help.
INTERVIEWER: Why do you resist getting overly involved in other people's activities?
RESPONDENT #8: Involving myself in unnecessary tasks takes away from the time I have allotted to complete my work. It is also counterproductive to others who are attempting to tackle their own objectives.

INTERVIEWER: How often do you help others with their activities?
RESPONDENT #8: Whenever asked or if I see a need to help. Only if I can be instrumental or beneficial to someone else.

INTERVIEWER: I try to eliminate frequently-occurring crises in my job.
RESPONDENT #8: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: How do you attempt to eliminate frequently-occurring crises in my job?
RESPONDENT #8: By learning from previous incidents and trouble-shooting ways to prevent such occurrences from reoccurring.

INTERVIEWER: Do you act or react in times of unexpected crises?
RESPONDENT #8: 80% proactive/act and 20% reaction.
RESPONDENT #9

Tester Id: T2303075

INTERVIEWER: I can find things I want without sifting through stacks of paper.
RESPONDENT #9: Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: How do you organize your paperwork?
RESPONDENT #9: I do not file anything. When I get stacks of paper work, I look at it and immediately put them in categories from what needs to be done, first, second, third or fourth. There is a stack that needs to be finished a day and those that are going to take longer. I glance over it and determine what level of importance it has.

INTERVIEWER: Do you have stacks of paper on or near your desk?
RESPONDENT #9: Yes, two stacks of paper. One stack is those things that I need to take a look at and the other in my out box that my administrative assistant needs to take and distribute.

INTERVIEWER: How long does it take you to find things?
RESPONDENT #9: If it is a college record, as long as it takes my assistant where she filed it.

INTERVIEWER: I know the long-term objectives of my job.
RESPONDENT #9: Yes.
INTERVIEWER: What are the long-term objectives of your job?
RESPONDENT #10: The long-term objective is to build a better and more supportive foundation for the college in support of the needs that the college has. It could be financial need or a need to have somebody to speak. It is a source of information for the college. So it is a friend-building and fundraising organization.

INTERVIEWER: Describe your action plan/timeline to achieve those objectives?
RESPONDENT #10: I am constantly making contact with people in the community talking about the college and foundation and what it does. It is an ongoing process. There is no specific timeline. There is no specific timeline except for our fundraising efforts. We are working on action plan now and have not laid that out yet.

INTERVIEWER: I am confident about almost everything I do.
RESPONDENT #10: Almost everything.

INTERVIEWER: Why are you confident about almost everything you do?
RESPONDENT #10: Because I have done it in the most professional manner possible.

INTERVIEWER: Describe your track record on accomplishing objectives.
RESPONDENT #10: I would say that it is probably 95% completion rate.
INTERVIEWER: I resist doing things for others that they should be doing for themselves.
RESPONDENT #11: I would say that I am that way probably about 95 percent of the time. Generally, some things that people ask me to do, they cannot do and they do really need help. But when I know that they can do it, I support them but I try very diligently to encourage them and let them know they can do it and that I am not going to do it for them, but I will support them in doing it themselves.

INTERVIEWER: Why do you resist doing things for others that they should be doing for themselves?
RESPONDENT #11: When I do resist it is because I know they can do it themselves.

INTERVIEWER: Do you consider yourself a team player?
RESPONDENT #11: I do. I am a leader by nature, as I said, but I do know when it is appropriate to back away from that leadership role and be a part of the team and let others lead.

INTERVIEWER: I meet deadlines.
RESPONDENT #11: I would say that is an accurate statement about me. Yes, I do meet deadlines.

INTERVIEWER: How often do you meet deadlines?
RESPONDENT #11: About 95 percent of the time. I really do not have a whole lot of sticky deadlines. So I am fortunate in that aspect. And I think that maybe I do but I do not realize it because I do not wait until the last minute. I am not a procrastinator. I follow my timeline and that usually eliminates a lot of deadlines because you have done what you are supposed to do when you are supposed to do it. So the pressure is off most of the time.
INTERVIEWER: How often do you fail to meet deadlines? Why?
RESPONDENT #12: 10% of the time. Because of changing priorities and the things that I create for myself, I have a lot more flexibility of moving my date if it is not a critical deadline.

INTERVIEWER: I know the critical activities in my job.
RESPONDENT #12: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: List the critical activities of your job.
RESPONDENT #12: Again, raising money is my number one critical activity. Making sure that I am doing everything that the college president wants me to do and asks me to do is my other critical activity. Promoting and advocating the college is always critical because that results in meeting my revenue goals.

INTERVIEWER: How important are your critical activities to achieving organizational success?
RESPONDENT #12: Absolutely 100% important.

INTERVIEWER: How long will it take you to complete the critical activities of your job?
RESPONDENT #12: Again, depending on the activity. Some of them are ongoing and some of them have a time frame.
INTERVIEWER: I have been able to reduce the time I spend on paperwork.
RESPONDENT #13: No.

INTERVIEWER: Why not?
RESPONDENT #13: Because it is just necessary. It has to be done.

INTERVIEWER: How have you been able to reduce the time you spend on paperwork?
RESPONDENT #13: There is just no way to. Those records have to be kept.

INTERVIEWER: Do you use an electronic or hard paper filling system?
RESPONDENT #13: Both. I would say 50% electronic and 50% hard paper.

INTERVIEWER: I effectively control interruptions.
RESPONDENT #13: I try to. It is hard to control those unexpected things.
INTERVIEWER: How do you effectively control interruptions?
RESPONDENT #14: Assess the situation and do what I can to help and try to conclude the interruption after that.

INTERVIEWER: How often are you interrupted during your work day?
RESPONDENT #14: Multiple times. It just depends on the day. It varies.

INTERVIEWER: I am better organized and accomplishing more than I was six months ago.
RESPONDENT #14: Somewhat. I try to but there is so much more to be better and strive to do more and do it more efficiently.

INTERVIEWER: Why are you better organized and accomplishing more than you were six months ago? How can you continue being organized?

RESPONDENT #14: Personally, having my new baby girl has made me become more organized and it has spilled over into my professional life as well.

INTERVIEWER: Why are you not better organized and accomplishing more than you were six months ago? What would help you become more effective and organized?
RESPONDENT #14: Because of the current state of the college which includes the merger. It starts with doing more planning and writing more goals and objectives. Just being more thorough about it and keeping myself accountable.
INTERVIEWER: I have a "To Do" list that I follow throughout the day.
RESPONDENT #15: Yeah.

INTERVIEWER: How many days per week do you follow your “To Do” list?
RESPONDENT #15: Every day.

INTERVIEWER: Do you accomplish all the tasks on the list?
RESPONDENT #15: I try.

INTERVIEWER: How long does it take you to finish the tasks on one week’s “To Do” list?
RESPONDENT #15: All week. I just take some each day.
INTERVIEWER: I use travel time and waiting time productively.
RESPONDENT #16: No.

INTERVIEWER: How do use travel time and waiting time productively?
RESPONDENT #16: Truthfully, I do not use that time very productively. I rely a lot on computers and I do not have a laptop that I can bring my work with me or portable organizer such as a Blackberry. I would like to have a personal organizer that I can bring with me that I can upload my Outlook calendar and take it home with me and keep it in my purse.

INTERVIEWER: How often do you travel?
RESPONDENT #16: Two to three times a month.
INTERVIEWER: I throw out junk mail as soon as I get it.
RESPONDENT #17: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: Do you have an assistant who reviews your mail prior to you?
RESPONDENT #17: No.

INTERVIEWER: How often do you receive junk mail?
RESPONDENT #17: Everyday.
INTERVIEWER: I get to meetings on time.
RESPONDENT #18: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: How many meetings do you attend per week?
RESPONDENT #18: Probably two to three.

INTERVIEWER: Are you ever late for meetings?
RESPONDENT #18: Very rarely.
RESPONDENT #19
Tester Id: T7235566

INTERVIEWER: I am positive about my future.
RESPONDENT #19: It’s been a tough year with this merger with a lot of changing around of people. I probably feel more insecure in my job than I ever had, to be honest with you.

INTERVIEWER: Describe your positive attitude about your future.
RESPONDENT #19: It’s not that positive right now.

INTERVIEWER: Does your future include working for your current organization?
RESPONDENT #19: Probably out of necessity but it’s not really what I want to be doing.

INTERVIEWER: I update my "To Do" list every day.
RESPONDENT #19: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: How many times do you update your “To Do” list each day?
RESPONDENT #19: Just one, but I look at it every day.

INTERVIEWER: Do you accomplish the most important tasks each day?
RESPONDENT #19: Usually.

INTERVIEWER: How long does it take you to update your “To Do” list?
RESPONDENT #19: Just a few minutes.
RESPONDENT #20
Tester Id: T3402956

INTERVIEWER: I handle telephone interruptions so they don't keep me from finishing my work.
RESPONDENT #20: Are you talking about this telephone conversation? (Laughter) My co-worker handles a lot of my interruptions. She will get the phone and takes messages. I can avoid the phone. I would like to get call waiting on my phone.

INTERVIEWER: How do you handle telephone interruptions so they don't keep you from finishing my work?
RESPONDENT #20: I am not really good at that. The president is much better at it. What she has told me to do is right before you get into the conversation, go ahead and say that I have something to do or I have just a minute. And my tone of voice indicates that I am busy.

INTERVIEWER: How many telephone interruptions do you get per day?
RESPONDENT #20: I would probably say seven.

INTERVIEWER: I prioritize my daily objectives and activities.
RESPONDENT #20: Yes.

INTERVIEWER: How do you prioritize your daily objectives and activities?
RESPONDENT #20: By deadlines and what’s important and how closely it relates to my job objectives and who asks me to do it.

INTERVIEWER: Do you delegate activities?
RESPONDENT #20: Yes, I give a lot of stuff to my co-worker. The executive assistant to the president she helps me. We work more like a team and the president jumps in and help too. We are all kind of working together. I delegate but we work more like a team.

INTERVIEWER: Thank you so much for taking the time out of your busy schedule to help me. I wish you a very productive week and weekend.
RESPONDENT #20: Thanks! You are welcome.
APPENDIX J: INTEGRATION OF AUDIO RECORDINGS

Auto coded directly from timeline

Audio Recordings
## APPENDIX K: ORGANIZATION OF DATA

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### Reference 1: 1.36% Coverage

- Just trying to organize myself so that I can get everything done that needs to be done.
- Just taking things in order of how they need to be done, with the most important thing being the least important.

### Reference 2: 1.36% Coverage

- |

### Reference 3: 0.67% Coverage

- |

### Folder Hierarch

- |

### Link to Identity

- |
APPENDIX L: DATABASE INTEGRATION

Who participate
What participants
APPENDIX M: FIELD NOTES AND OBSERVATION

**Transcribed Interview**

I have a clearly defined list of objectives in writing.

**SUBJECT #9:**

Yeah, I do because I write most of those things down. That’s how I keep a record of the things that I have done.

**Content of Observation**

I think participants may be relating to this or having some of these experiences, people don’t list objectives in their daily aches and pains. I think doing this helps because one deals with these issues.
APPENDIX N: CONTEXTUALIZATION OF SOURCES

Physically linked
Memo
Offering
Broad contextualization
Of interview
APPENDIX O: LINKED LITERATURE TO CODED DATA
APPENDIX P: NODE/THEME DEFINITIONS

Node definition stored in properties of node
APPENDIX Q: CODING HIERARCHY

Coding Hierarchy
Top level – Category 1 – Setting Priorities
Second level – Tackling Tasks
Third Level – How Often
Fourth Level - Daily

Over 600 tree nodes were coded during the analytical processes.
A matrix query intersects key elements from sources. In this case, qualitatively coded content intersected with the self-assessment questionnaire. The values in this case represent participants’ numbers from the study.
APPENDIX S: BROAD THEMATIC CODING

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APPENDIX T: CROSS-CODING

Content of Category 6 - Deadlines

Category 1 to 7

Other nodes cross coded to or from Category 6
APPENDIX U: PROPOSITION STATEMENTS

Synthesized proposition statements at top level

Proposition Statements at bottom level (linked memos leading to findings)
## APPENDIX V: DYNAMIC DATABASE REPORT

### Node Summary Report

#### It's all in my head
- **Created On**: 23/09/2009 09:25
- **Modified On**: 23/09/2009 09:35
- **Users**: 1

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APPENDIX W: DATABASE SUBSETS

Set to ring fence participants in primary leadership roles

All Sources (Audio, Transcripts, Field notes and Observations)
## APPENDIX X: RESPONDENT DEMOGRAPHICS

| Respondent | 1=m | 2=f | 1=18-24 | 2 =26-34 | 3=35-45 | 4=46-50 | 5=over 50 | 1=aa | 2=ba | 3=hs | 4=doc | 5=oth | 6=oth | 7=oth | 8=oth | 9=oth | 10=oth | 11=oth | 12=oth | 13=oth | 14=oth | 15=oth | 16=oth | 17=oth | 18=oth | 19=oth | 20=oth | 1=0-5 | 2=6-10 | 3=7-14 | 4=15-20 | 5=over 20 |
|------------|-----|-----|---------|---------|---------|---------|-----------|------|-----|------|-------|------|------|------|-----|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| ID         | Q1  | Q2  | Q3      | Q4      | Q5      | Q6      |           |      |    |      |       |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |       |         |          |
| 1          | 2   | 4   | 2       | 2       | 2       | 2       |           |      |    |      |       |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |       |         |          |
| 2          | 2   | 5   | 2       | 3       | 1       | 3       |           |      |    |      |       |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |       |         |          |
| 3          | 2   | 3   | 2       | 3       | 2       | 3       |           |      |    |      |       |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |       |         |          |
| 4          | 2   | 3   | 2       | 3       | 1       | 3       |           |      |    |      |       |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |       |         |          |
| 5          | 2   | 3   | 2       | 3       | 2       | 3       |           |      |    |      |       |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |       |         |          |
| 6          | 1   | 5   | 2       | 1       | 1       | 3       |           |      |    |      |       |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |       |         |          |
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| 8          | 2   | 2   | 1       | 2       | 1       | 1       |           |      |    |      |       |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |       |         |          |
| 9          | 1   | 5   | 1       | 4       | 5       | 3       |           |      |    |      |       |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |       |         |          |
| 10         | 2   | 4   | 2       | 5       | 2       | 3       |           |      |    |      |       |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |       |         |          |
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APPENDIX Y: SAMPLE TMPI SURVEY RESULTS

Society for Human Resource Management Assessment Center (1.0) – TMP Report

Society for Human Resource Management Assessment Center

Pfaff & Associates

Time Management Practices Inventory™

Organization:

Date: 4/14/2009 7:25:59 AM
Admin Id: A7686204
Tester Id: T9814612

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Time Management Practices Inventory

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<td>Taking Action</td>
<td>88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resisting Involvement</td>
<td>93%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paperwork</td>
<td>84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deadlines</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
<td>87%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Your overall score for time management practices is High. You are generally managing time well. Look at your lowest individual scores for areas to improve.

- You should still be motivated to exercise your skills more effectively. If you do, you can become even more productive and successful than you are now.
- In order to better understand your strengths and areas for development, review your performance on the factors that contribute to effective time management.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Setting Priorities:</strong> High</th>
<th><strong>Percentile:</strong> 88%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A high score on this factor indicates that you set priorities and tackle activities based on their importance. You understand the critical job activities and try to focus on them. A low score indicates a need to improve your goal setting activities. Determine your long and short-term goals.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Planning:</strong> High</th>
<th><strong>Percentile:</strong> 89%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A high score on planning indicates that you do daily and weekly planning of your activities. A low score may indicate that daily planning could make you more productive. Find a regular time to do planning. Begin to make planning your activities a habit.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Taking Action:</strong> High</th>
<th><strong>Percentile:</strong> 88%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A high score indicates that you are taking positive steps to improve your time management. You are eliminating time wasters and trying to accomplish more. A low score may indicate that you haven't been actively trying to eliminate time wasters.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Resisting Involvement:</strong> High</th>
<th><strong>Percentile:</strong> 93%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A high score indicates that you try to handle interruptions effectively and avoid involvement in the activities of others. A low score may indicate that you don't know how to say &quot;no&quot; to others. Don't take on the work of others as though it were your own.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Paperwork:</strong> Average</th>
<th><strong>Percentile:</strong> 84%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A high score indicates effective management of paper. A low score may indicate that you spend too much time shuffling papers. You need to handle paper once and move on.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Deadlines:</strong> Average</th>
<th><strong>Percentile:</strong> 69%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A high score indicates you have a sense of urgency and pay attention to important deadlines for work. You try to be on time in all your activities. A low score may indicate a lack of concern about deadlines or it may be an indicator of problems in other areas. Ask yourself why you aren't meeting certain deadlines.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Self-Confidence:</strong> High</th>
<th><strong>Percentile:</strong> 87%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A high score indicates you have confidence in most of what you do. It will help if you have problems in other areas. A low score may indicate you lack the confidence to improve the other scores.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Time Management Practices Inventory

Name: 
Organization: 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Score</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting Priorities</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking Action</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resisting Involvement</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paperwork</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deadlines</td>
<td>77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Confidence</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Your overall score for time management practices is *Average*. You may be slipping in some areas. Try to improve on your lowest scores.

- You should still be motivated to exercise your skills more effectively. If you do, you can become even more productive and successful than you are now.
- In order to better understand your strengths and areas for development, review your performance on the factors that contribute to effective time management.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Setting Priorities</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking Action</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resisting Involvement</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paperwork</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deadlines</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Confidence</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A high score on this factor indicates that you set priorities and tackle activities based on their importance. You understand the critical job activities and try to focus on them. A low score indicates a need to improve your goal setting activities. Determine your long and short-term goals.

A high score on planning indicates that you do daily and weekly planning of your activities. A low score may indicate that daily planning could make you more productive. Find a regular time to do planning. Begin to make planning your activities a habit.

A high score indicates that you are taking positive steps to improve your time management. You are eliminating time wasters and trying to accomplish more. A low score may indicate that you haven't been actively trying to eliminate time wasters.

A high score indicates that you try to handle interruptions effectively and avoid involvement in the activities of others. A low score may indicate that you don't know how to say "no" to others. Don't take on the work of others as though it were your own.

A high score indicates effective management of paper. A low score may indicate that you spend too much time shuffling papers. You need to handle paper once and move on.

A high score indicates you have a sense of urgency and pay attention to important deadlines for work. You try to be on time in all your activities. A low score may indicate a lack of concern about deadlines or it may be an indicator of problems in other areas. Ask yourself why you aren't meeting certain deadlines.

A high score indicates you have confidence in most of what you do. It will help if you have problems in other areas. A low score may indicate you lack the confidence to improve the other scores.
Society for Human Resource Management Assessment Center

Pfaff & Associates

Time Management Practices Inventory™

Organization:

Date: 6/5/2009 3:40:31 PM

Admin Id: A7686204

Tester Id: T8399249

Email:

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Time Management Practices Inventory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Score</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting Priorities</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking Action</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resisting Involvement</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paperwork</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deadlines</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Confidence</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Your overall score for time management practices is Low. **You need some improvement. You are on the verge of falling farther behind. Begin work now to avoid future problems.**

- You can often make changes easily. Frequently, you won’t require extensive retraining to move toward better time management. You may simply need to concentrate more on things you already know how to do. It may just be a matter of motivation on your part.
- To get started, prepare an action plan. List actions you can start doing to improve your time management the first day you are back on the job.
- Once you have developed a plan, it is often helpful to meet with your superior or other significant individuals to gain their support for the actions you will be taking.
- In order to better understand your strengths and areas for development, review your performance on the factors that contribute to effective time management.
### Setting Priorities: Average  
**Percentile: 59%**

A high score on this factor indicates that you set priorities and tackle activities based on their importance. You understand the critical job activities and try to focus on them. A low score indicates a need to improve your goal setting activities. Determine your long and short-term goals.

### Planning: Average  
**Percentile: 28%**

A high score on planning indicates that you do daily and weekly planning of your activities. A low score may indicate that daily planning could make you more productive. Find a regular time to do planning. Begin to make planning your activities a habit.

### Taking Action: Average  
**Percentile: 21%**

A high score indicates that you are taking positive steps to improve your time management. You are eliminating time wasters and trying to accomplish more. A low score may indicate that you haven't been actively trying to eliminate time wasters.

### Resisting Involvement: Average  
**Percentile: 15%**

A high score indicates that you try to handle interruptions effectively and avoid involvement in the activities of others. A low score may indicate that you don't know how to say "no" to others. Don't take on the work of others as though it were your own.

### Paperwork: Average  
**Percentile: 27%**

A high score indicates effective management of paper. A low score may indicate that you spend too much time shuffling papers. You need to handle paper once and move on.

### Deadlines: Average  
**Percentile: 77%**

A high score indicates you have a sense of urgency and pay attention to important deadlines for work. You try to be on time in all your activities. A low score may indicate a lack of concern about deadlines or it may be an indicator of problems in other areas. Ask yourself why you aren't meeting certain deadlines.

### Self-Confidence: Average  
**Percentile: 71%**

A high score indicates you have confidence in most of what you do. It will help if you have problems in other areas. A low score may indicate you lack the confidence to improve the other scores.
Figure Z1. Participants’ weighted methods used to prioritize objectives and activities.
Figure Z2. Participants’ frequency of linking strategic objectives with written plans.
Figure Z3. Participants’ weighted strategies to achieve objectives.
Figure Z4. Participants’ weighted strategies to determine priorities.
Figure Z5. Participants’ weighted activities that are critical to organizational success.
Figure Z6. Participants’ frequency of completing critical activities within specified time frame.
Figure Z7. Participants’ frequency of opportunities to delegate responsibilities to meet organizational objectives.
Figure Z8. Participants’ weighted long-term objectives.
Figure Z9. Participants' weighted achieved objectives.
Figure Z10. Participants’ frequency of writing objectives.
Figure Z11. Participants’ frequency of linking objectives to timelines.
Figure Z12. Participants’ frequency of ability to follow action plans.
Figure Z13. Participants’ frequency of ability to follow to-do lists.
Figure Z14. Participants’ frequency of ability to update or review to-do lists daily.
Figure Z15. Participants’ frequency of ability to complete most important tasks.
Figure Z16. Participants’ frequency of time needed to update to-do list daily.
Figure Z17. Participants’ frequency of controlling interruptions.
Figure Z18. Participants’ frequency of creating blocks of uninterrupted time.
Figure Z19. Ratio of participants who never block uninterrupted time.
Figure Z20. Participants’ weighed experiences regarding time wasters.
**Figure Z21.** Participants’ weighted implemented strategies to avoid time wasters.
Figure Z22. Participants’ weighted implemented techniques to utilize travel time.
Figure Z23. Ratio of respondents using waiting time productively.
Figure Z24. Participants’ frequency of involvement in other people's activities.
Figure Z25. Participants’ weighted reasons for not becoming involved in other people's activities.
Figure Z26. Participants' weighted strategies to control interruptions.
Figure Z27. Ratio of nonprofit leaders who control interruptions.
Figure Z28. Participants’ weighted criteria for disposing of unnecessary paperwork.
Figure Z29. Participants’ frequency of having stacks of paper on desk.
Figure Z30. Participants' weighted strategies for reducing paperwork.
*Figure Z31.* Participants’ ratio of ability to reduce paperwork.
Figure Z32. Participants’ frequency of using electronic or paper filing system.
Figure Z33. Participants’ weighted strategies for accomplishing tasks.
Figure Z34. Ratio of upper management leaders who are tardy.
Figure Z35. Participants’ frequency of missing deadlines.
Figure Z36. Participant's frequency of meeting deadlines.
Figure Z37. Participants’ frequency of attending weekly meetings.
Figure Z38. Participants’ frequency of attending meetings in a timely manner.
Figure Z39. Participants’ frequency of ability to do anything they put their minds to.
Figure Z40. Participants’ weighted personal attributes for being more capable than the average person.
Figure Z41. Participants’ weighted capabilities and reasons for effectiveness.
Figure Z42. Participants’ weighted reasons for self-confidence.
Figure Z43. Participants’ weighted accomplishments and beliefs that underpin their self-confidence.
**Figure Z44.** Participants’ weighted reasons why they feel positive about their future.
APPENDIX AA: NONPROFIT LEADERSHIP COMPETENCY MODEL

Identify & Assess Behavior Deficiencies

Time mgmt training

Leadership mgmt training

No clearly defined objectives

No concept of strategic thinking

Inability to set priorities

Poor Planning

Inability to stay focus

Inefficient technology abilities

Timeline restricted

Skewed self-confidence

Inability to relate short-term & long-term goals

Steps toward achieving organizational success

Identify & assess issues

Training options

Determine how to implement new training

Implementation of new training knowledge

Meet or fail organizational goals

Repeat cycle

Continuous Improvement

Meets organizational goals

Fails to meet organizational goals

Assess Training Success

Implementation of New Training Knowledge

Taking action

Paperwork

Deadlines

Priorities

Planning

Repeat competency cycle to promote continuous improvement

Repeat cycle

Continuous Improvement