

**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TIME MANAGEMENT
PRACTICES AMONG DAGAABA HOUSEHOLDS IN
AKORO AND JIRAPA**

**A THESIS PRESENTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF
GHANA, LEGON, IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE M.PHIL
DEGREE IN HOME SCIENCE**



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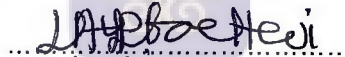
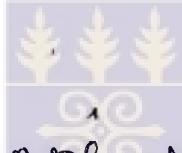
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DECLARATION

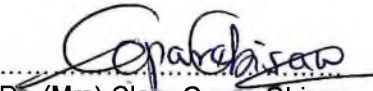
I, Elizabeth Milicent Ba-ama, do hereby declare that except for reference to other people's work which have been duly cited, this work is the result of my own original research and that this thesis had neither in whole nor in part been presented for another degree elsewhere.



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ABSTRACT

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TIME MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AMONG DAGAABA HOUSEHOLDS IN AKORO AND JIRAPA

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The study was conducted in Akoro and Jirapa in the Upper West Region of Ghana. The aim of the study was to find out how Dagaaba households in the rural and urban settings use their time to accomplish their goals.

It was hypothesized that:

H0₁. There is no significant difference between the time management practices of rural and urban Dagaaba households.

H0₂ There is no significant difference between the time management practices of Dagaaba households who work in the formal and informal sectors.

A proportionate sample of seventy-five households representing three communities from Jirapa town and a simple random sample of seventy-five households from Akoro village were interviewed using structured interview schedules. The data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS/PC) software to generate frequency and percentage distributions. The presentation of the data is mainly descriptive using tables where appropriate. The chi-square statistic was used to test the two Null hypotheses.

The results revealed that homemakers from both study areas operated with mental plans. Homemakers started their day by 4.00 a.m. and ended late at

night around 11.00 p.m. Daily responsibilities of household members were carried out at different times of the day. For the purposes of this study the day was divided into four time blocks. Household chores were normally carried out during the morning and evening time blocks while the afternoon time blocks were used for economic and occupational activities. Domestic work was performed solely by homemakers and female children or relatives, while spouses spend much of their time for occupational or leisure activities. Homemakers hardly had any labour saving devices, rest or leisure. Funerals were major interruptions to household time use. However, household members used such strategies as mental planning, dovetailing and division of work to facilitate their time management.

The chi-square analyses revealed a significant difference between the time management practices of rural and urban Dagaaba households, hence the null hypothesis ($H0_1$) was rejected. Similarly, there was a significant difference between the time management practices of Daggaba households who work in the formal and informal sectors, therefore the Null hypothesis ($H0_2$) was rejected. It is recommended that extension work be intensified to educate homemakers on how to organize and use their time, so that they can make time for leisure and rest.

DEDICATION

To my dear husband, F.G. Korbieh, Son - A.B. Korbieh, Dad –
E.T. Ba-ama, late Mum - U. Pognoo and sister S.T. Kpiebakyene for their
support and encouragement throughout my education.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
DECLARATION	i
ABSTRACT	ii
DEDICATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	viii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.0. Introduction	1
1.1 Background Information	1
1.2. Statement of the problem	4
1.3. Objectives of the study	5
1.4. Hypotheses	6
1.5 Significance of the study	6
1.6. Definition of terms	6
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	10
2.1. Management and the management process	10
2.2. Resources in the home	13
2.3. Time management	18
2.4. Factors affecting time use	23
2.5. Constraints on time management	29
2.6. Strategies to facilitate time management	32
2.7. Patterns of time use	38
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	40
3.1. Study area	40
3.2. Population and sample	41
3.3. Sampling procedure	41
3.4. Instrument for data collection	42
3.5. Pre-test	43
3.6. Data collection	43
3.7. Data analysis	44

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	46
4.1. Description of the sample	46
4.2. Time use in relation to the management process ..		52
4.3. General pattern of time use in households	58
4.4. Performance of household activities and time spent		68
4.5. Constraints on household time management	74
4.6. Strategies used by homemakers and spouses to facilitate time management	76
4.7 Levels of time management practices	80
4.8 Effect of selected social characteristics of homemakers on time management practices	81
CHAPTER FIVE : SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
5.1. Summary	90
5.2. Conclusions	94
5.3. Recommendations	95
BIBLIOGRAPHY	97
APPENDICES	103
1 Structured interview schedule	104
2 Mean time spent on specific domestic work	119
3 Mean time spent on economic or occupational and supplementary work	120
4 Mean time spent on specific social activities	121
5 Mean time spent on specific personal activities	122
6 Maps of study area	123

LIST OF TABLES

1	Proportionate sampling of houses in Jirapa	41
2	Age distribution of homemakers	47
3.	Educational level attained by homemakers	49
4	Primary occupation of homemakers	50
5	Setting of goals for the day	52
6	How homemakers set their goals	53
7	Decision maker of daily family chores	54
8	Implementation of goals	55
9	Evaluation of goals	56
10	Household members who perform domestic activities	69
11	Household members who work to bring in income	71
12	Involvement of household members in social activities....	72
13	Interruptions that affect time use of the homemakers	75
14	Strategies used by homemakers to facilitate time Management	77
15	Strategies used by spouses to facilitate time management	80
16	Categorization of homemakers into levels of time management Practice	81
17	Distribution of homemakers by age and levels of time management practices	82
18	Distribution of homemakers by educational level and time Management practices	83
19.	Distribution of Homemakers by number of children and levels of time management practices	84
20	Distribution of homemakers by household size and levels of time management practices	85
21	Distribution of homemakers by place of residence and levels of time management practices	86
22	Distribution of homemakers by occupational sector and levels of time management practices.	88

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Time is a unique resource that everyone throughout the world has in equal amounts:- twenty-four hours everyday. It does not matter how rich one is, one cannot buy more time. One cannot hoard time, borrow time or change it in any way. All that one can do is make the best use of the time one has. (Scott, 1992).

Time is a very important resource because it is used to carry out whatever needs to be done by individuals and families. Gross, Crandal and Knoll (1980) buttress this point in their statement that, 'time is an integrative resource because when any other resource is being used such as money, energy or skills, time is also being used'.

Within homes, time is used by family members to carry out tasks that provide for each others' needs to enhance their living situation. In the economy, time is used for the production and distribution of goods and services. Time is also spent on social activities such as funerals, festivals and weddings. A study by Francois (1981) on workload of Ghanaian women home managers in Accra revealed that respondents spent a mean time of 4 hours 20 minutes on housework, 4 hours 22 minutes on money-earning activities and 1 hour 50 minutes on personal activities.

Time concept varies from person to person and from culture to culture. Meerloo (1968) stated that in industrialized societies, time is perceived as a material resource in that it is spent, saved, wasted, measured and scheduled. In these societies, the emphasis is on here and now rather than on the future. However, in most African societies, people merely pass the time, they rarely budget it. Daily lives and activities are regulated by the cycle of natural events such as the cockcrow, the position of the sun, the length of the shadow, nightfall or darkness. In these societies household chores are not carried out by clock time. For example, the rural homemaker does not cook by clock time and meal times are not fixed. People do not always experience time in the same way. Time seems to move slowly when one is bored, unoccupied or particularly impatient for something to happen, such as, waiting for a kettle to boil or the traffic light to turn green. Time seems to move fast when one is busy or interested in having a good time.

In Ghana, the attitude of many people towards time has been that there is always more time. If something is not done now, it can be done later. Observations also reveal that many people do not attach much importance to clock time. This has resulted in the popular expression that "this is African time". These attitudes however, have a negative effect on the total management taking place in the lives of many Ghanaians. For example, many functions start late because invited guests arrive late. Some employees go to work late yet close before the scheduled time, hence tasks are not completed on time. It has been observed that Ghanaians spend a lot

of time at social functions such as attending funerals and weddings even during official working hours. There is therefore the need for effective time management.

Time management is defined by Gross et al. (1980) as the organization of decisions about all resources; thus time management determines the quality of one's life. To them time management also means gaining control over what you do, when you do it, how you do it and why you do it. As a process, time management demands both skills and abilities of individuals as they contribute to the efficient running of the home.

Deacon and Firebaugh (1981) assert that effective time management involves an awareness that today is all a person ever has to work with. It also involves the management process in which a series of activities take place to bring about desired results. These activities include planning, organizing, implementing/controlling and evaluation.

Families and individuals have different goals and this therefore makes it necessary to use time effectively to achieve them. Individuals in the family also play different roles to enhance family living. The performance of these roles require the use of time. Though time is an individual resource, largely used separately by each family member, time can also be used jointly and as it is so used it becomes an important family resource.

In many homes in Ghana and in 'Dagao' (area inhabited by the Dagaaba) in particular, the homemaker is responsible for managing the work of the home and much of her time is required for this. Oppong (1980) has

Observations and experience show that in Ghana and especially among the 'Dagaaba', (ethnic group or inhabitants of Dagao) time appears to be the most difficult resource to manage by many households. A lot of time is spent in carrying out the day-to-day household activities most of which bring insufficient or no cash income to the family. This has partly contributed to the prevailing poverty in 'Dagao'. Besides limitations imposed by traditions and values, poor time management can also impose limits on what households can do to enhance their quality of life. Considering the differences in rural and urban characteristics, the study is designed to verify any similarities or variations between the time management practices of households in the two settings.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.3.1 General Objective

The aim of the study was to find out how Dagaaba households in the rural and urban settings make use of their time to accomplish their goals.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives were:-

1. To find out the general pattern of time use in Dagaaba households:
2. To identify the individuals who perform the various household activities and how much time is spent on them.
3. To obtain information on constraints that affect household time use.
4. To identify strategies used by household members to facilitate time management.

5. To determine the effect of selected social characteristics on time management practices of respondents.

1.4 HYPOTHESES

- H0₁ There is no significant difference between the time management practices of rural and urban Dagaaba households.
- H0₂ There is no significant difference between the time management practices of Dagaaba households who work in the formal and informal sectors.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Not many studies have been carried out on household work and time management in Ghana. The results of this study will add to the existing literature on time management.

The study will help throw light on the strengths and weaknesses of time management practices in rural and urban households. This can be of benefit to home scientists and extension workers in planning suitable programmes towards the effective management of household time by improving work methods.

The study will help create the awareness of time as an important resource and the cognizance that the development of any nation depends very much on the effective management of their time.

1.6 DEFINITION OF TERMS

For the purposes of this study the following terms have been defined.

Time Management:

Organization of decisions about the use of time so that work can be accomplished within specified period and make time for rest and leisure.

Time Management Practices:

The way individuals and families organize and use their time to accomplish desired goals.

Rural Area

An area that lacks social infrastructure such as a Post Office, Clinics and Schools with the majority of its people being illiterate and their major occupation being farming.

Urban Area

An area that has social infrastructure, with the majority of its people being literate and working in the formal sector.

Formal Sector

Wage employment in an organization with rigid time schedules where labour regulations require professional skills. Work is often performed outside the home and services are paid for by the employer:- government or private.

Informal Sector

Wage employment in which the authority relationships involved do not necessarily conflict with domestic obligations. The money-earning activity may be carried out in and around the individual's home or outside the home.

A Day:

A day refers to the time household members get out of bed, till the time they go back to bed.

Time Blocks:

A block refers to the period of time in which specific tasks/events occur. Four time blocks have been used.

Time Block I: Morning (Time household members wake up till time children leave for school; 4.00 a.m. - 7.30 a.m.)

Time Block II: Day time (Time children leave for school till time they return home: 7.30 a.m. - 12.30 p.m.)

Time Block III: Afternoon (Time children return from school till supper preparation time: 12.30 p.m. - 5.00 p.m.)

Time Block IV: Evening (supper preparation time till bed time; 5.00 p.m. 11.00 p.m.)

Activities:

All activities have been grouped into four categories.

I. Domestic activities:

These include all housework such as cooking, child care, laundry, cleaning and maintenance and fetching water.

II. Occupation/Economic activities:

Money-earning activities which consist of observable activities performed for cash income in a main and/or supplementary job. This includes travel time connected with the occupation.

III. Social Activities:

These comprise participation in social functions such as cultural ceremonies, festivals, visits to kin, kin meetings, helping others outside one's own household unit, funerals and communal work.

IV. Personal activities:

These are activities that pertain to the individual. They comprise essential and recreational/leisure activities. Essential activities include eating, personal care and hygiene, rest and sleep.

Recreational/leisure activities include:

- Conversation with others for leisure,
- Home and public entertainment such as movies, parties, indoor and outdoor games, singing, television watching and listening to radio.
- Community activities such as church going, singing practice and societal meetings.

Dagaaba: This refers to the tribe or ethnic group living in the Upper West Region of Ghana and across the boarder in neighbouring Burkina Faso.

Dagaao: This word is used to denote both the geographical area inhabited by the Dagaaba tribe as well as the singular of the word Dagaaba.

Dagaare: This is the language spoken by the Dagaaba.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter the review of literature relevant to the study begins with an overview of management, the management process and resources in the home. Literature on time as a resource, time management, managerial process in time management, factors that affect time use and constraints on time management are also presented.

Time as a resource is limited but there are ways of getting the most out of it. A critique of various strategies used to facilitate time management are indicated. Literature on patterns of time use have also been presented. These include work time, discretionary time (non-work time) and leisure time.

2.1 MANAGEMENT AND THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS

2.1.1 What is Management?

Oppenheim (1972) defined management as planned activities directed towards the nurturing of values and the satisfaction of goals. Similarly, Rice and Tucker (1986) have viewed management as purposeful use of resources to achieve valued goals. They have explained that management is a goal-directed behaviour using decision-making, valuing, planning and organizing processes to guide resource-use to improve the quality of life.

Deacon and Firebaugh (1981) have also confirmed that management helps people control the events of life and influence the outcomes of situations. It influences the quality of life of the individual and the family through the way resources are directed towards goals.

Swanson (1981) further explained that every individual has values, goals, and standards. This same individual makes decisions; assumes roles; interacts with family, community, state and nation; and uses those resources that are available to him or her. Effective management for the individual and family means recognizing ones values and those of others, understanding not only how decisions are made but also the factors which can affect them, determining immediate and long term goals, and the needed action to achieve each; and allocating the use of resources within the management process to attain these goals. She cautioned that the extent to which individuals and families use their management principles and concepts will determine to a great extent how effective each is in achieving his or her desired quality of life.

Gross, Crandal and Knoll (1980) have asserted that management is complex because the individual or family has multiple goals and relatively limited resources. Several goals may compete for the same resources. Pressures and events in the larger environment often compete with family goals in their demands upon family resources. They explained that effective management is a learned skill. It involves the management process in which a series of activities take place to bring about desired results.

2.1.2 The management process

Swanson (1981) has described the management process as a tool that is used to achieve goals. It involves four basic steps which are progressive and interdependent. They are; planning, organizing, implementing and evaluation.

Planning is the first step of the management process. Deacon and Firebaugh (1981) have explained that planning is a series of decisions about standard setting and action sequencing. Clarifying goals and assessing resources are important parts of setting standards. In identifying and clarifying goals, one's values and standards become sources of inputs. Values help to determine priorities while standards serve as enablers encouraging one to progress to meet the goals.

Organizing is the second step in the management process. Plans made have various activities which must be done by various people at various times. Oppenheim (1970) documented that organizing involves making the plans for a particular activity fit into the scheme of other activities that are or will be. It is the ordering of parts of an activity or specifying successions among activities.

Implementation is the third step in the management process. Swanson (1981) pointed out that in implementation, one is actually putting the plan into action. As this section takes place, one is controlling, checking and adjusting the plan. Deacon and Firebaugh (1981) further confirmed that implementing is actuating plans and procedures and controlling the actions. Actuating is putting plans into effect and controlling is checking or comparing actions with plans and if necessary adjusting the planned standards and sequences of the action to increase the chances of the desired output.

Evaluative feedback, which is the final stage, is an important one. Swanson (1981) asserted that as one evaluates the feedback, one identifies those parts of the plan which were good and those that should be changed or

modified if the plan is used again. Oppenheim (1972) buttressed this point by stating that evaluation examines the results of past action in order to get increasingly satisfying results from the resources at hand. She concluded that the outcome of the management process enhances one's sense of well-being, affords the opportunity to assess one's goals and increases the probability of achieving a higher degree of positive satisfaction.

2.2 RESOURCES IN THE HOME

2.2.1 Definition of resources

"Resources" is a widely used term which is seldom defined precisely. Maloch and Deacon (1966) defined resources as means which are available and recognized for their potential in meeting demands. They further defined "means" as those things which have "want - satisfying power" and which are instrumental in reaching desired ends. Deacon and Firebaugh (1981) have pointed out that resources do not only provide means to satisfying the family system's purposes or demands, but they are necessary in solving every management problem.

Rice and Tucker (1986) view resources as assets that is, anything owned or accessible that has exchange value that can be used to accomplish goals. According to them, resources include all possessions, human capabilities and environmental characteristics that are on hand or in reserve and available for use and development.

2.2.2 Classification of resources

Various authors have different classifications of resources. However, Swanson (1981) explained that resources can be classified according to their source of origin or their use within the spheres of interaction. Classification used by Rice and Tucker (1986) include human, material and environmental resources.

Human resources are those which originate internally and exist because of the person one has become. They comprise such intangibles as educational attainment, hobbies, interests, personality, skills, abilities, energy, time and all other aspects of one's individuality.

Material resources are those tangible personal belongings which are available for one's use. They consist of one's personal and family possessions such as cars, houses, household equipment, money, investment and others.

Environmental resources encompass those resources available within one's community, state and nation such as agencies, people, recreational facilities, schools, shops as well as natural resources such as rivers, forests, soil and trees.

2.2.3 Time as a resource

Although the achievement of a goal or the resolution of the demand might involve the allocation and use of several resources, the most frequently used resources are time and energy. In fact, it is difficult to identify a goal or demand that does not require the use of one or both of these resources.

Swanson (1981) views time as an intangible resource because it cannot be seen. It is a quantitative resource in that it can be measured. It is one resource which is difficult to save, invest, or change. It is irretrievable, meaning that once time has passed it cannot be brought back in a quantitative sense.

Gross et al. (1980) buttressed Swanson's views by stating that, quantitatively, time is unique in that the limit of a day is the same for everyone 24 hours. It cannot be saved nor can more be obtained. Even the affluent must consider the opportunity cost of using their limited time in different ways. Nevertheless, demands upon time differ, making it seem more limited for some than for others.

Deacon and Firebaugh (1981) however, view time as a measure of resources. They explained that time is often the intermediate measure in assigning economic worth to human resources. For example, the number of sales per week or typing speed per minute are how time helps to objectively determine human resource values. Time as a measure makes possible the comparison of unlike activities on a similar basis. Unlike material resources, time cannot be accumulated. In affluent societies, time becomes scarcer with increasing consumption. Deacon and Firebaugh (1981) concluded that money is most constraining to poor people while time is more often limiting to the affluent.

2.2.4 The nature of time

Rice and Tucker (1986) reported that philosophers have grappled with the nature of time. St. Augustine said, "what then is time? If nobody asks me I know, but if I try to explain it to one who asks me, I do not know". This statement confirms the difficulty in defining time. Whitrow (1970) asserted that mankind has slowly developed a concept of time during the life time of race, just as each individual has in his or her own life span. Human beings have progressed from thinking of time as cyclical, that is recurring, to thinking of it as linear, that is a continual progression.

MacIver (1962) also explained that the origin of time concept is in change. Where there is change, there is a before and an after. The interval is time. He argued that experience of time comes primarily because of the awareness of this change: One becomes aware of time through a sequence of duration and succession. The duration and succession may be short and simple such as boiling an egg. It may also be long and complex as in preparing for a profession, or intermediate as in planting and harvesting a crop. Rice and Tucker (1986) claimed that the duration of time is perceived directly through feeling and indirectly through measurement either by clocks or by quantity of output. Any given individual relates more fundamentally to the past or to the present, or to the future. Obviously in each person, there is some awareness of all three possible orientations but the set of predominant one varies in persons and different cultures. Time orientation affects choices in life.

2.2.5 Cultural perceptions of time

Time perceptions are highly related to culture. No one time perception is universally shared. Perception of time is a part of an individual's culture and like other parts of culture, it has an important influence on the person's view and subsequent behaviour. Time is viewed differently among different cultures. Some languages, including Dagaare, do not have words to express clock time.

Meerlo (1968) reported that in developed countries such as America, time is perceived as a material resource in that it is spent, saved, wasted, measured and scheduled. In these societies, the emphasis is on "here and now" rather than the future. Uka (1987) however, indicated that unlike the technologically advanced societies, peasant societies have little need of elaborate time scheduling. In most African societies people merely pass the time, they rarely budget it. Daily lives and activities are regulated by the cycle of natural events such as the cockcrow, the position of the sun, night fall, day break, the movement of the moon and seasons. A study by Opoku (1990) on Time in the African perspective in the Ashanti Region, revealed that time is a non-spatial continuum in which events occur in succession from the past through the present to the future. Time is an experience of reality in African tradition. The people associate time with growth, movement and destruction, as well as other changes that occur in the individual, community and environmental levels. For example, in the experience of man's life, he is born as a child, grows into puberty, marries, gives birth to children, grows old, dies and returns to begin another cycle. Another study by Yabang (1975) on

Dagaaba culture in the Jirapa Traditional Area supports the view that the African experience of time is categorized into the past, the present and the future, for example, the Dagaaba family at any one moment in time includes the dead, the living and the members still to be born.

Meerloo (1968) theorized that an individual's subjective sense of time has specific dimensions; historical time, biological time, time sense, tempo or pace and continuity. Understanding these five additional concepts will help to formulate a philosophy conducive to time management.

2.3 TIME MANAGEMENT

2.3.1 Definition of time management

Time is viewed by Gross et al. (1980) as a continuum which for an individual or family is used up as they proceed along it, whether its use is productive or non-productive. Into this continuum are interwoven all other resources. Viewed in this way the management of time is the organizing of decisions about all resources: thus time management determines the quality of one's life. Further, time management from this perspective emphasizes the allocation of resources among many goals and synchronizes an individual's use of resources and the resources and activities of groups of people.

Time is the integrative resource because when any other resource is being used, such as money or skills, time is also being used. Partly because time is easily measured, it lends itself to conscious management. Rice and Tucker (1986) stated that time management means gaining control over what

you do, when you do it, how you do it and why you do it. They explained that to accomplish time management requires some understanding of the nature of time and how it differs from person to person. Successful time management makes the attainment of individual and group goals possible without misusing resources or causing unnecessary tension.

Effective time management involves using work simplification and the management process. Swanson (1981) pointed out that within the management process one makes decisions concerning the use of time. It may be allocated for transferring, exchanging, producing, protecting or consuming. How you use time will determine the degree of success you have in achieving your goals and demands. The effectiveness of your use of time will determine the extent to which you attain your desired quality of life. Managing time effectively necessitates examining available resources and determining which combination of resources will bring about the greatest degree of satisfaction while minimizing the use of each. It means examining time resource along with all the others. As you do this, you must also weigh the opportunity cost involved with each resource.

Gross et al. (1980) further explained that time management is a skill in decision making, planning, organizing, implementing and evaluating results. Effective time management is very important because individuals and families have different goals and this makes it necessary to use time effectively to achieve them. They also pointed out that there is the need to manage one's time well so that all work can be accomplished within a specified period so as to make time for rest and leisure.

Swanson (1981) suggested the following guidelines for effective time management:-

- Recognize the demands placed upon your time.
- Ascertain the goals which necessitate the use of your time.
- Identify and set priorities for these demands and goals.
- Determine which resources to combine to enable you to meet demands and achieve goals.
- Recognize those demands which cannot be altered or changed.
- Identify any constraints upon both your time and other resources.
- Develop a plan to allocate and use your time resource.

She however, cautioned that although the availability of time is replenished each day, its allocation and use should be as carefully monitored as any other resource. The essence of time management lies in allocating this resource as effectively as possible.

2.3.2 Managerial process in time management

Gross et al. (1980) explained that much of what is written about time management takes into consideration only planning. Important as that process is, it is only one of the necessary processes. There must also be goal setting, implementing and utilizing feed back.

2.3.2.1 Goal Setting

Goal setting is logically the first in the sequence of the managerial process, Goal setting must intermesh individual goal complex with the goal - complex of the whole family. It brings to the foreground the consideration of the goals specific to all time management:- accepting the limitation of time and securing balance in its use. The process must be based on recognition of the importance of considering time for joint family interaction.

2.3.2.2 Planning

According to Gross et al. (1980) the definition of planning as “simply the application of intelligence to problems of continuity and change” gives its overall value. Planning saves some work time. Occasional specific data on the value of planning in time management indicated that among women who liked marketing, the least time was spent by those who usually prepared shopping list. They argued that very seldom is there a situation for which a completely new time plan is made. Standing plans or routines exist for the day's activities in almost everyone's life. The techniques of time planning are grouped into three levels based on increasing amount of details involved:- from simple list, to series of project types, to the schedule. The details cover what activities are included, when each activity is to be done, and how much time each will require.

2.3.2.3 Implementing

After a time plan is made, it must be implemented, that is, initiated and carried to completion. The danger of procrastination in implementing a time plan is emphasized in business management (Lakein, 1970). Implementing may be done by the person who makes the plan or may be delegated in part or in whole to another or others. In either case implementing is "heavily weighted with performance. There are however, fresh decisions necessary in this step:

- filling out details in the plan.
- co-ordinating various aspects in order to keep the original plan or making adjustments either in activities or in the goals behind them if this becomes necessary or desirable. Frequent checking of each part is important so that, if necessary, the situation can be remedied before it is too far out of hand. There are other devices for implementing of time plans. For people who find it difficult to keep a plan in mind, a bulletin board in a convenient place may be an aid. The written plan is then constantly in view to keep one aware of it.

2.3.2.4 Utilizing feedback

Gross et al. (1980) further explained that utilizing feedback is a very important process in time management. It is that portion of the output of a system which is returned immediately or later to the input of the system. They mentioned two types:- the immediate one leading to action, the other to learning through evaluation. Action feedback is emphasized during the

implementing of a time plan. For this type, objective devices such as watches, clocks and calendars are needed for checking at various points. Action feedback may quickly modify an earlier point, which in turn, modifies later points.

The learning feedback occurs at the end though it may come earlier. It acts upon future use of stored plans and new future plans. For this, subjective questions evaluating time management are used but there are a few objective approaches. In addition to using learning feedback in relation to the goal of time management, a more common practice is to evaluate a time plan as a whole. The acid test is, of course; Did it work? To this overall question, the feedback may be a positive answer, a negative answer or a conditional one such as "To some extent" They concluded that management of time is a practical problem today. It is also common enough to stimulate the application of the general managerial process toward its mastery.

2.4 FACTORS AFFECTING TIME USE

Factors now under study may be loosely grouped according to those that are external and those internal to the worker. The external factors include among others the life cycle, environment, composition of the household and gainful employment of the homemaker. Of these factors, composition of the household, especially the effect of children, and gainful employment of the wife are the most important. The internal factors include attitude toward household work as well as likes and dislikes of specific tasks (Gross et al., 1980).

2.4.1 Stages of the family life cycle

There has long been a realization that the demands upon a homemaker's time have varied during the various stages of the family life cycle. (Gross et al., 1980)

In stage 1:- Establishment - the time demands differ according to whether the young wife is gainfully employed or not.

Time demands increase sharply when the first child is born (stage II) From various studies come factual evidence of the intensive demands of young children with much time going for physical care.

Later in stage II (expanding stage) the demands are for guiding and being with the children, often at the expense of the husband and wife time together alone. As the children grow older, and especially as they reach adolescence, the co-ordinating of time patterns of family members is of paramount importance. Time schedules and routines previously developed will need to be altered. Interruptions occur with an increasing degree of frequency.

In stage III (Launching/contracting stage) the mother now finds herself with increasing amounts of time for herself as the children leave home. She may seek new time use either through participation in community activities or through a return to gainful employment. On the other hand, as the family membership declines, fewer individuals will be available to assume task responsibility. At the latter part of stage III when one or both of the couple ordinarily retire from employment, the time demand may be very light.

2.4.2 Environment

The environment both the neighbourhood and the household includes an important cluster of factors that affect household time use. Residence was earlier recognized as one of these factors. Szalai (1972) reported that through research, differences between work-time patterns in urban and farm homes were found. However, in recent years there has developed a striking similarity in the total time spent on household tasks in farm and city homes. Food activities used more hours in farm than in city homes. In city homes more hours were used in care of the home and care of the family members. The factor of size and type of house has not been found to be especially linked with time spent on housework except as it is also correlated with number of persons in the family and age of the youngest child (Walker and Wood, 1976).

The same is true of equipment. Apparently equipment can make housework easier but does not reduce time on it substantially.

The kitchen as a chief work place in the home is a great factor to time use. There is the need for improvement of work places and centres. There may be several centres related to one activity area. For example, Kepple (1961) listed five activity area, for the kitchen:- refrigerator, mixing centre, range, sink, serving centre.

2.4.3 Composition of the household

The number of persons in the family shows the expected linkage with time used on household tasks. The larger the number, the more time is used

for all household work done by non-employed homemakers (Walker and Woods, 1976). A study on homemakers time use revealed that there was a steady increase from 5.7 hours per day with no children in the family to 9.4 hours per day with 7 to 9 children on household tasks. In a Wisconsin study, Cowles and Dietz (1976) found that as size of family increased, increase in total time use was not found consistent for all types of household activities. The increase was apparent in food preparation and clearing away and particularly in care of family. There were actual decreases in the homemaker's time spent on care of the house and on sewing and mending in families of seven or more because other members helped.

Child care is a time-intensive activity. The time it requires is related both to number of children in the household and especially to the age of the youngest child. The time spent in child care declines as a child grows older (Gronau, 1973). As the age of the youngest child increased from under 1 year to 12-17 years, time spent by all homemakers, whether employed or not, decreased about $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours per day.

2.4.4 Who performs which household task

According to Haushalt, 1975; Dahlby, 1977; Sacks, 1977; Nichols and Metzen, 1978 as cited by Gross et al. (1980), the basic division of household tasks remains sex-related worldwide. Kreps, (1976) holds the view that women do inside work and men do outside work. While agreeing that wives have more total responsibility for household task performance than husbands - especially in implementing task decisions - Lovingood and Firebaugh (1978)

using a system's framework, found indications of the multi-dimensionality of household task performance roles and implications that, situational factors may be a key to explaining husband/wife role differences. In the Walker-Wood's study, if the wife was employed, she spent an average of 5.3 hours daily on household task; if not employed, she spent 8 hours. The husband's time on household work averaged 1.6 hours daily whether or not the wife was employed (Walker and Wood, 1976)

In the Ghanaian traditional society, women assume the major responsibility for performing domestic chores (Oppong, 1980). These women are often helped by children who could be their own offspring, kin or unrelated househelps. Men on the other hand do very little housework, some of which include chopping firewood, house repairs, weeding, ensuring security of the household socially and financially (Kumekpor, 1974).

2.4.5 Gainful employment of women

Modern working women the world over have too much work and too little time. Employed housewives have about 6 hours less free time daily for recreation and other leisure activities than men have (Owen, 1976). Working homemakers are evidently substituting employment for their own leisure time as for time spent caring for other family members or both (Metzen and Helmick, 1974) Total time given to household tasks is far less for the employed, than for the full-time homemaker. Nickols and Metzen (1978) found that the homemaker who took a 40 hour per week job outside the home reduced her house work time 15 hours per week.

In Ghana, homemakers who are employed spend less time at home, as a result they perform less household chores during the day. A study by Acquah (1993) on the Ghanaian women's day - a study of families of University of Ghana workers living at the staff village, Legon revealed that homemakers in the informal sector performed more household activities than their counterparts in the formal sector, the latter however, depended much on domestic helps and labour-saving devices. Oppenheim (1972) also disclosed that where the homemaker was employed, the number of hours spent in household work decreased as the hours of employment increased.

2.4.6 Attitudes toward task performance

Attitudes toward task include a general feeling about it, likes and dislikes of specific tasks and feelings about standards of work performance. General feelings not only influence time spent on work, they also permeate other areas of family life.

Oppenheim (1972) explained that attitude is an important influence on the success or failure of plans, and how long they take. Many people keep postponing jobs they dislike, such as doing their ironing or cleaning the kitchen fan. Even if they have planned to do the task, there always seem to be plenty of excuses for postponing it.

Maloch's (1973) study of most and least liked household tasks indicated a possible linkage with time use. Mean time on most liked tasks was 2.4 hours compared with 1.6 hours for least - liked tasks.

Standards affect time use. What a person considers an acceptable standard of performing an activity affects time spent on it (Gross et al. 1980). One of the speculations about reduction of time on household chores by employed married women are that they have accepted or even developed different standards.

2.4.7 Access to facilities

The accessibility to needed facilities can be a determining factor in time spent on activities. Restrictions may occur from within as well as outside the shelter sphere. Noise, vibrations or other factors may affect when a task is accomplished. Facilities such as good lighting, ventilation, modern equipment, good shelter, physical attributes of the overall atmosphere where the task is to be accomplished affect how much time is spent on it (Swanson, 1981).

2.5 CONSTRAINTS ON TIME MANAGEMENT

Charlie Brown's advice that "No problem is so big or so complicated that it can't be run away from" shows the human weakness that must be overcome if people are to take control of their lives through controlling time. Time is thought to be wasted when something important is not being done. (Rice and Tucker, 1986). Most people identify other people and external events as their major constraints. However, evidence indicates that in reality time-wasting is most often internally caused. The most common constraints on effective time management include the following: demands,

interrelationships of time and other resources, limited supply of time, interruptions and procrastination.

2.5.1 Demands

Gross et al. (1980) indicated that certain activities outside the home take precedence in management of time; for example, certain inflexible activities outside the home such as schools, working hours, hours of meetings, church and the like have a greater effect on time management. Within the home, there is thus an inflexibility of "time-whens" in response to these external demands: There are also inflexible "time-whens" in relation to external environment. Physical care of little children is such a "time-when" with its clocklike regularity of bathing, dressing and feeding along with unanticipated demands.

2.5.2 Interrelationships of time and other resources

Gross et al. (1980) argued that no resource is used in isolation from other resources, even by individuals, let alone by family members. Much intermeshing of time with people also goes on outside the family life, in voluntary activities as well as in employment and in joining with friends for recreation.

2.5.3 Limited supply of time

The limitation of the quantity of time is a major constraint in time management. Accepting the limitation of quantity of time is essential in time

management for oneself and others. Recognizing the limitation leads to conscious decisions on what activities to include and which ones to leave out.

2.5.4 Interruptions

Interruptions such as telephone calls, unexpected visitors, arrival of delivery men or calls from children to help them find this or that cause a lot of constraint on time management. Some interruptions are legitimate, but may be controlled. For example, when a person is busy and does not wish to be interrupted by telephone calls, an answering machine will accept messages that can be returned at one planned time each day (Rice and Tucker, 1986). They explained that a telephone answering machine used as a resource for time management can eliminate external interruption, but it involves the exchange of money for increased control of time use.

Steidl and Bratton (1968) also hold the view that a homemaker has a certain amount of freedom but a number of constraints are operative: Inflexible events, the nature of household work and the homemakers preferences.

2.5.5 Procrastination

A handout on office management and administration, July 03-14, 2000, organized by the Management Development and Productivity Institute, Accra, Ghana defines procrastination as putting off the doing of something that should be done intentionally, habitually and reprehensibly. It explains that procrastination will mean you are just about keeping up with last week's

business. By off-loading today's work onto tomorrow you are simply storing up work for yourself. Tomorrow becomes the busiest day of the week. It states that putting off unpleasant, routine, or difficult chores is human nature. But those who discipline themselves to tackle the things they dislike or fear, gain self-confidence and make better use of their time.

Rice and Tucker (1986) confirmed that procrastination is a problem with so many people and a universal time-waster. Procrastination appears in many forms - laziness, indifference, forgetfulness and day-dreams such as "one day I will write a greater novel".

2.6 STRATEGIES TO FACILITATE TIME MANAGEMENT

There is danger in treating problems of all kinds as a lack of interpersonal skills when some of them may be lack of competence in performing activities (Herzberg, 1966). Although management is no universal panacea for solving all problems relating to the resource time, there exist some means for developing and or improving competence in handling it. Gross et al. (1980) documented that in time management as in every activity, recognizing one's goal or goals is a step toward improvement. It further increases one's awareness of the way one's time is being used. Resources are generally limited, but there are ways of getting the most out of them, some of these strategies include the following:- routines, time sense, diurnal rhythms, setting priorities, rest and sleep, work simplification, time planning, balancing the work load and dovetailing.

2.6.1 Routines

Oppenheim (1972) pointed out that one strategy for controlling the use of one's time is to work out a routine in one's activities. Routines provide a sense of stability and also reduce the need to plan constantly the time and work sequence for each activity particularly those which are repeated at intervals, such as when to do laundry, on which day to market, procedure in the daily care of the house and family. Steidl and Bratton (1968) emphasized the importance of routine by stating that the repetition of this pattern on a daily basis provides a stable element around which we can fix other events.

Gross et al. (1980) reported that in Tasker's (1962) study of organization of homemakers work, one homemaker said she never knew what was coming next and could not plan. She was at the beck and call of her husband and young children. By identifying certain stabilities in our lives, we have a base around which we can anticipate the possibility of non-routine events taking place. An interesting suggestion for increasing alertness is to change routine. Even with a satisfactory routine, try to change the order of performing certain tasks. In physical activities, the selection of suitable pace can help in effective time management.

2.6.2 Time sense

Gross et al. (1980) claimed that developing a time sense is a help in managing time. People differ in their ability to gauge the passage of time. The individual who has a good time sense has a valuable aid in controlling the use of time. Time sense is not a simple sensation, but depends on

processes of mental organization uniting thought and actions (Whitrow, 1970). It may be impossible for everyone to reach a level of comparative accuracy, but most people can improve their time sense. Radio and television give notice of blocks of time. Clocks that chime the quarter hour may make us conscious not only of the passage of time, but also of how much can be accomplished during a given period.

2.6.3 Diurnal rhythms

Gross et al. (1980) further explained that diurnal rhythms of the body have a bearing on effective use of time. These rhythms affect patterns of alertness throughout the day. People differ with regards to their rhythms; some are most alert in the morning, some reach their peak of alertness in the afternoon, and some have two low periods, a major one in the morning and a minor one in the late afternoon. Quantity and quality of output of work can be improved by taking advantage of periods of greatest alertness.

2.6.4 Setting priorities

Bly and Bly (1997) in their article "Improving your time management skills" stated that people should begin by deciding what must be done today, this week, or this month. If a project seems overwhelming or complex, it should be broken down into management steps that can be handled one at a time. Write up a "Things To Do" list. One way to organize one's list is to begin with the most important item at the top, the next most important beneath that, and so on.

2.6.5 Rest and sleep

Rest in the larger sense includes the relatively long consecutive hours of sleep in each 24-hour period, and the short pauses during the working hours of the day are referred to as rest periods. The body develops a 24-hour pattern of sleep and wakefulness, which is linked to our being on the surface of the earth with its day - night alternations (Kleitman, 1967)). The body needs about 8 hours sleep a day for proper functioning. Reducing the amount of sleep for several days or longer causes "sleep depths" that result in feelings of general loss of effectiveness. The influence of short rest periods as a tool favouring output of work is recognized by business and industry in "coffee breaks". The rest periods help relax the muscles and brain and replenish the energy lost. Complete physical rest may be of greater value in releasing tension and therefore decrease time spent on that job. Using short rest periods during the day may even allow a person to sleep fewer hours at night without impairing his or her health.

2.6.6 Work simplification

According to Gross et al. (1980) work simplification includes skills and techniques applied by the individual to make the tasks to be performed simple and less a waste of time. There are several types of skills that affect time management. However, motor skill is the type most closely related to management of work time. Lack of this skill is also a partial explanations for what makes work difficult and one that can be remedied somewhat through

training (Madden, 1968). If a skill on a particular task is developed, less time is spent in performing it.

A study by Madden (1968) revealed that when the right skills are acquired, work goes more quickly, more easily and more smoothly. A practical study of kitchen arrangement carried out by Cowles et al. (1978) showed the importance of re-organization of storage and work space. Through re-organization, total distance saved preparing a standardized meal was 27.9 per cent. The time saved was 10.5 per cent.

2.6.7 Time plan

A time plan shows what one expects to do in a given period. Oppenheim (1972) explained that plans for the use of time involve anticipating certain future events and planning ahead how they will fit into these time schedules. Time plan enables one to allocate time to different activities ahead of time and therefore enables you to think through the work in advance and plan to do them when it is most convenient. A schedule for everyday job can serve as a reminder of jobs that should be done. A schedule can also help you to organize jobs in a logical way by thinking ahead of time. One has a better chance of getting jobs done on time that should be done in a certain order. Time plan can be mental or written. If it is a detailed one, it may need to be written down.

Steidl and Bratton (1968) pointed out that the methods of organizing to accomplish household work are partly determined by the kind of work involved. There is therefore no ideal method that will apply to all households

or at all times. Walker and Wood (1976) emphasized in their work with homemakers that wives used more than one technique to organize their time. The most frequently used technique was mental scheduling of activities. While 75% plan their time use, 71% depended on daily routine to organize their activities and over half (53%) used a regular weekly routine. Only a few (16%) used written schedules. About half of the wives reported that they assigned tasks to their family members.

Oppenheim (1972) documented that many executives use a three-step process in planning time. First, they try to find out where their time is really being spent. Then they try to organize their time and to cut out unproductive uses of time. Finally, they consolidate their 'discretionary' time into the largest possible continuing units.

2.6.8 Balancing the Work load

Balancing the work load reduces pressure and frees time at peak periods. The workload normally becomes heavy when children are small and also when someone is ill. (Oppenheim, 1972). In balancing, the work can be made simpler by eliminating unnecessary jobs, sharing the work load with other members of the family, making use of labour-saving devices, as well as planning ahead of time on a short term basis. She indicated that, the busy homemaker may prepare in advance for a party by shopping early and by preparing and then freezing some of the foods.

2.6.9 Dovetailing

Nickel and Dorsey (1987) stated that there are many jobs that can effectively be combined like emptying the dish washer and setting the table, taking clothes out of the dryer and folding them, washing kitchen cabinets after a party because the shelves are empty. They explained that dovetailing helps in saving time since the activities go together rather than sitting idly to finish one task before the other.

2.7 PATTERNS OF TIME USE

Lifestyles are influenced by a series of decisions about how time will be used. Feldman and Hornik (1978) as reported by Rice and Tucker (1986) proposed the following:- work time, discretionary time (non work time) and leisure time.

2.7.1 Work time

Work time refers to the time devoted to or spent on work at the offices, schools, hospitals, farms, businesses and home related work. During work time, the priority of urgency or deadline may be imposed on workers.

2.7.2 Discretionary Time

Discretionary time is the time spent on necessities such as sleeping, eating, dressing, grooming as well as home work. Participation in organizations such as religious, education, civic, volunteer work and other community groups, also form part of discretionary time.

2.7.3 Leisure Time

Leisure time is defined by Fieldman & Hornik (1978) as time devoted to social and recreational activities for personal enjoyment. They explained that leisure includes both time spent alone and with others in social and recreational activities such as entertaining, exercising, watching television, working with hobbies, rest, sleep or relaxation, going out and travelling to reach these activities.

According to Nickell, Rice and Tucker (1976) leisure time is time spent on activities chosen by the individual which are rewarding for their own sake. This means that leisure is un-imposed free time. Raines (1973) as cited by Nickell, Rice and Tucker (1976) confirmed that leisure time should be used for things that will mean the most to the individual.

Leisure time is a very important part of time management. However, the way this time is spent depends on the individual's values as regards time and work. Gross et al. (1980) reported that a study by Weg (1977) on homemakers' time use revealed that full time city homemakers spent 2-5 hours of the day in community and other leisure activities, whereas employed homemakers spent about 3 hours. Among rural housewives, leisure time is a period that most of them have association with each other. Raines (1973) as reported by Nickell, Rice and Tucker (1976) pointed out that this time gives an opportunity to think, create new projects, work on hobbies or enjoy conversation with family and friends. Many of these housewives may not consciously plan the leisure time, but it comes as they go about their daily work.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0

METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides information on the study area, the population, sample selection, development of the instruments, pre-testing, data collection and analysis.

3.1. STUDY AREA

The study was conducted in Akoro and Jirapa. Jirapa is the capital of the Jirapa/Lambussie District of the Upper West Region of Ghana. It is also the traditional seat of the Jirapa Traditional Area which has nine divisions. The people are part of the Dagaaba tribe and their language is Dagaare. As a district capital, Jirapa has quite a number of social amenities such as electricity, telephone system, pipe borne water, schools, a hospital, a rural bank, a post office and others. The majority of its inhabitants work in the formal sector.

Akoro is one of the villages under the Jirapa division. The majority of its inhabitants work in the informal sector, mainly farming. The only social amenity in the village is a bore-hole.

Akoro and Jirapa were chosen because the study was planned to investigate differences in the time management practices of rural and urban Dagaaba households.

The two settings were also familiar areas to the researcher and language was no barrier since the researcher is a native and fluent in Dagaare. (See Appendix 6 for maps of the study area).

3.2 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

The population for the study comprised all households in Akoro and Jirapa. Jirapa has a total of 445 houses while Akoro has 90 houses. A sample of 150 households: 75 households each from Akoro and Jirapa were chosen for the study.

3.3 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

The sampling frame for Jirapa town was the register of houses obtained from the district Town and Country Planning Office. The numbering of the houses in the register indicated a division of the town into three sections: A, B and C. These divisions were for identification purposes only:

A section has 172 houses.

B section has 41 houses.

C section has 232 houses.

Proportionate sampling was used to select 75 houses. The details are shown in table 1.

Table 1: Proportionate Sampling of houses in Jirapa

Section	No. of Houses	No. Selected
A	172	28
B	41	7
C	232	40
Total	445	75

The houses in Akoro were not numbered hence it became necessary to train two field assistants to enumerate the houses. A total of ninety houses

were enumerated. A sample of seventy-five houses was selected through simple random sampling using Borg and Gall's table of Random Numbers (1983). Observations revealed that most of the houses contained more than one household unit. The criteria for selection was Dagaaba households. In Jirapa town where most of the houses were the compound type and occupied by tenant households, the most senior homemaker in the house was interviewed. In houses where landlords lived in with other households, the wife of the landlord was interviewed. If the landlord had more than one wife the senior wife was interviewed. In a few cases where the houses were owned by women who also lived in with tenant households, the owner of the house was interviewed. The husband of the selected homemaker was interviewed when available.

3.4 INSTRUMENT FOR DATA COLLECTION

A structured interview schedule was developed according to the procedure developed by Francois (1981), Acquah (1993) and Ba-ama (1996) on related studies.

The interview schedule was designed to collect information on:-

- Background characteristics of respondents.
- Time use in relation to the management process.
- General pattern of time use in households.
- Activities performed by household members and the time spent.
- Constraints that affect time use in households.
- Strategies used by household members to facilitate time management.

- Household facilities and equipment used in housework.

3.5 PRE-TEST

The interview schedule was pre-tested on six Dagaaba households, three each at Nima and Madina (Accra). One problem faced was that, respondents from Nima (unable to read clock time) could not estimate the time spent in performing the various activities. It was therefore not possible to compare the time spent by respondents from the two communities in performing various activities.

Some changes/modifications effected were:-

- the elimination of a 6.00 a.m. to 6.00 p.m. observation guide in consultation with my supervisors, because it made the interview schedule too long, thereby putting more burden on the respondents.
- the re-arrangement of some sections of the interview schedule to enable systematic collection of data.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION

The data were collected from June to August 2000. The respondents were interviewed at home or at their work places using a structured interview schedule. The interviews were conducted between 6.00 a.m. and 6.00 p.m. each day excluding Sundays. An average of three households (three homemakers and their spouses) were covered daily.

The researcher interpreted the questions into Dagaare to each respondent and recorded the information given in English. Some households were revisited to interview the spouses who were absent during the first visit.

3.7 DATA ANALYSIS

The data were hand coded and analysed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS/PC) software. Frequency, percentage distribution and means were used to interpret and present the data.

Cross tabulation of selected social characteristics of homemakers and time management practices was done and the chi-square statistic was used to test the Null hypotheses. The level of significance at which the differences were considered significant was 0.05.

Time management levels were developed by assigning values to five key factors of time management practices. The key factors used were:-

- Setting goals.
- How goals are set.
- Implementing set goals.
- Ability to accomplish set goals.
- Evaluating goals.

Each factor scored 2 points if answered “Yes” by the homemaker and 1 point if answered “No” Total scores for each homemaker were calculated. The highest total score for the key factors was 10 points. Scores of the homemakers were categorized into three levels, labeled effective, moderate and poor. Those who scored 9 and 10 points were classified as practicing

effective time management. Those who scored between 6 and 8 points were classified as practising moderate time management and those who scored 5 points and below were classified as practising poor time management.

To ensure easy re-collection of daily activities performed by members of the household, the day was divided into four time-blocks as follows:-

- Time Block I.
- Time Block II.
- Time Block III.
- Time Block IV.

All the activities performed by household members were grouped into four categories as follows:-

- Domestic activities.
- Occupational/economic activities.
- Social activities.
- Personal activities.



CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The results of the study cover a comparison between the rural and urban households and are presented in this chapter under the following sub-headings:

- Description of the sample.
- Time use in relation to the management process.
- General pattern of time use in households.
- Performance of household activities and the time spent.
- Constraints on household time use.
- Strategies used by homemakers and spouses to facilitate time management.
- Levels of time management practices.
- Effect of selected social characteristics of homemakers on time management practices.

4.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE:

One hundred and fifty homemakers were studied with seventy-five (50%) each from Akoro and Jirapa respectively. For supporting information one hundred and nine spouses were interviewed with fifty-three from Akoro and fifty-six from Jirapa.

4.1.1 Age of respondents:

Table 2 presents the age distribution of the homemakers.

Table 2: Age distribution of homemakers

Age range (years)	Jirapa		Akoro		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
21 - 30	10	13.3	8	10.7	18	12.0
31 - 40	28	37.4	25	33.3	53	35.3
41 - 50	31	41.3	25	33.3	56	37.4
51 - 60	6	8.0	9	12.0	15	10.0
61 - 70	0	0	8	10.7	8	5.3
Total	75	100	75	100	150	100

$$\chi^2 = 9.635 \quad df = 4 \quad p=0.003 \quad (S)$$

The age of homemakers from Jirapa ranged between 21 and 60 years, the mean age being 41.1 years and that for homemakers from Akoro ranged between 21 and 70 years with a mean age of 45.2 years. This indicates that homemakers from Akoro were slightly older than those in Jirapa. The chi-square analysis confirmed that there is a significant difference ($p = 0.003$) between the ages of homemakers from Jirapa and Akoro. The difference in the distribution is evidenced by the fact that more homemakers (22.7%) from Akoro than Jirapa (8%) were within the oldest age group (51 - 70 years). The ages of the spouses ranged between 25 and 70 years, the mean age being 47.5 years.

4.1.2 Marital status of the respondents

The majority of homemakers 78.7% (118) were married. The rest were widowed 8.7% (13), separated 4.7% (7), single 4.7% (7) or divorced 3.3% (5).

Of the one hundred and eighteen married homemakers, one hundred and nine (92.3%) lived with their spouses. The rest (9) all from Jirapa had their spouses living outside town.

4.1.3 Type of marriage

The majority of the marriages 84.7% (100) were monogamous. Only 15.3% (18) were polygamous.

4.1.4 Household size

The number of people in the households ranged between 3 and 11 people, with a mean size of five for Jirapa and six for Akoro. The number of children per homemaker ranged between 1 and 8 with an average of three children per homemaker in Jirapa and four children per homemaker in Akoro.

4.1.5 Religion

The majority of respondents 90.6% (136) were Christians. Of the rest, 5.3% (8) were Muslims and 4% (6) were traditional worshipers.

4.1.6. Educational level attained by respondents

Table 3 shows the distribution of the educational level attained by the homemakers.

Table 3: Educational Level attained by homemakers

Educational Level Attained	Jirapa		Akoro		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
No formal Education	1	1.3	53	70.6	54	36.0
Elementary School	35	46.7	20	26.7	55	36.7
Secondary School	18	24.0	2	2.7	20	13.3
Post Secondary Education	15	20.0	0	0	15	10.0
Tertiary Education	6	8.0	0	0	6	4.0
Total	75	100	75	100	150	100

$$\chi^2 = 87.96 \quad df = 3 \quad p = 0.001 \quad (S)$$

While one third of the homemakers (36%) have had no formal education, another one third (36%) attained elementary education and a little below one third had secondary to tertiary education. Among those who had no formal education 35 had never been to school, 15 were elementary drop outs, while 2 each had non-formal or Islamic education. Among those who attained tertiary education, 2 completed polytechnic, 3 were diplomates while only one went to the University. None from Akoro had post secondary or tertiary education. It is clear that homemakers from Akoro have a generally low educational status. This is probably due to the fact that girl child education in the rural areas is not encouraged because it is believed that girls will grow up only to become housewives and help their husbands on the farm. The Chi-square analysis revealed that, there is a significant difference ($p = 0.001$) between the educational level attained by homemakers from Jirapa and Akoro .

While 27.5% (30) of the spouses had no formal education, more than two thirds (72.4%) had formal education with 46.8% (37) of them attaining tertiary levels.

4.1.7 Primary occupation of homemakers

Table 4 gives the occupational distribution of the homemakers.

Table 4: Primary occupation of homemakers

Primary Occupation	Jirapa		Akoro		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Formal sector	63	84.0	12	16.0	75	50
Informal sector	12	16.0	63	84.0	75	50
Total	75	100	75	100	150	100

$$\chi^2 = 69.36 \quad df = 1 \quad p = 0.004 \quad (S)$$

Half of the homemakers (50%) each were engaged in the formal and informal sectors respectively. In the formal sector 40% (30) were nurses, 33.3% (28) were teachers, 18.7% (14) were office workers and 8% (6) were hospital attendants. In the informal sector, farming was the predominant occupation of many of the homemakers (48%). Of the rest, 18.7% were petty traders, 16% were pito brewers and 17.3% made handicrafts.

The Chi-square analysis revealed that there is a significant difference ($p = 0.004$) between the primary occupation of the homemakers from Jirapa and Akoro. The difference is evidenced by the fact that the majority of the homemakers in Jirapa (84%) were in the formal sector, while the majority of those in Akoro (84%) were in the informal sector. This is probably because many of the homemakers in Jirapa have had formal education and have

marketable skills to work in the formal sector while those in Akoro having had no formal education, have no marketable skills and will have to settle for the informal sector.

Fifty-one percent (56) of the spouses were engaged in the formal sector while 48.7% (53) were in the informal sector. The findings revealed that about the same proportion of homemakers (50%) and their spouses (51%) collectively were engaged in the formal sector. This affirms Swanson's (1986) statement that there is an increasing number of female homemakers who are entering and remaining in the labour force regardless of their roles as wives and mothers.

4.1.8 Secondary occupation

Fifty-eight percent of the homemakers were engaged in secondary occupations. Many of them, 42% (37) were engaged in pito brewing. The rest were engaged in petty trading 19.3% (17), farming 17% (15) and shea butter extraction 13.6% (12).

Sixty-one percent of the spouses who were engaged in secondary occupations undertook animal rearing while the rest engaged in farming (32.8%). The findings indicated that more than half of the homemakers and their spouses were engaged in other jobs to supplement their income, which supports Oppong and Abu's (1984) view that it has long been common for salaried and non-salaried workers to supplement their income with some form of private enterprise.

4.2 TIME USE IN RELATION TO THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS

4.2.1 Setting of goals for the day

Table 5 presents the distribution of responses of homemakers with regards to whether they set goals on time use for the day or not.

Table 5: Setting of goals for the day

Response	Jirapa		Akoro		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	68	90.6	70	93.3	138	92
No	7	9.3	5	6.7	12	8.0
Total	75	100	75	100	150	100

$$\chi^2 = .758 \quad df = 1 \quad p = 0.382 \quad (NS)$$

Table 5 shows that the majority of the homemakers 92.3% (138) set goals for the day. Although slightly more rural homemakers, (93.3%) than urban homemakers (90.6%) set goals, the Chi-square analysis revealed that there is no significant difference ($p = 0.382$) between the setting of goals on time use by homemakers from Jirapa and Akoro.

4.2.2 Reasons for setting or not setting goals

Of the 138 homemakers who set goals for the day, 39.4% (54) said goals act as guide on what to do for the day while 38.6% (53) explained that goals set enabled them use their time wisely.

Reasons for setting goals by most homemakers fall in line with Deacon and Firebaugh (1981) concerning planning being a necessary function for guiding actions in meeting demands of the family. Similar views held by

Oppenheim (1972) stated that by planning, it is possible to consider how to use time most effectively for the purpose one has in mind.

A few of the homemakers 6% (12) who did not set goals for the day explained that they followed routine work plans, hence there was no need for setting goals. Routine is a resource important to time management as pointed out by Oppenheim (1972) that routines provide a sense of stability and also reduce the need to plan constantly the time and work sequence for each activity.

4.2.3 How homemakers set their goals

Table 6 gives the frequency and percentage distribution of how homemakers set their goals.

Tables 6: How homemakers set their goals

How goals are set	Jirapa		Akoro		Total	
	No	%	NO	%	No	%
Mentally	63	84.0	69	92.0	132	88.0
Written	5	6.7	1	1.3	6	4.0
Not applicable	7	9.3	5	6.7	12	8.0
Total	75	100	75	100	150	100

$$\chi^2 = 3.27 \quad df = 2 \quad p = 0.072 \quad (NS)$$

Table 6 indicates that the majority of homemakers 88% (132) set their goals mentally. Only a few of them 4% (6) said their goals were written on paper. This finding supports the view of Gross, Crandal and Knoll (1980) that written schedules for household work were quite uncommon. Slightly more homemakers from Akoro (92%) than Jirapa (84%) set their goal mentally.

However, the chi-square analysis revealed that there is no significant difference ($p = 0.071$) between the way rural and urban homemakers set their goals.

4.2.4 Decision maker of daily family chores

Table 7 shows the frequency and percentage distribution of the decision maker of daily family chores.

Table 7: Decision-maker of daily family chores

Decision Maker	Jirapa		Akoro		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Homemaker or Wife	61	81.3	49	65.3	110	73.3
Both husband & wife	11	14	26	34.7	37	24.7
Husband	2	2.7	0	0	2	1.3
Head of household	1	1.3	0	0	1	0.7
Total	75	100	75	100	150	100

$$\chi^2 = 10.39 \quad df = 3 \quad p = 0.008 \quad (S)$$

About three quarters of the homemakers (73.3%) said it was the homemaker or wife who decided on what household members did for the day while the rest said both husband and wife took the decision. This finding indicates that homemakers or wives are the decision makers of daily chores just like Oppenheim (1972) observed in the American culture that the day-to-day management job may fall on the homemaker who is generally the mother.

The chi-square analysis revealed that, there is a significant difference ($p = 0.008$) between the decision maker of daily family chores by households in Jirapa and Akoro. The difference in the distribution is evidenced by the fact that more homemakers in Jirapa households (81.3%) than Akoro (65.3%) took decisions on what household members did for the day. It could therefore be implied that urban homemakers are more independent in taking decisions concerning daily chores than rural homemakers probably because they are more educated.

4.2.5 Implementation of goals

Table 8 indicates the frequency and percentage distribution of responses of homemakers with regards to whether goals set are implemented or not.

Table 8: Implementation of goals

Response	Jirapa		Akoro		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	60	78.6	65	86.8	124	82.7
No	14	12.0	5	6.6	14	9.3
Not applicable	7	9.3	5	6.6	12	8.0
Total	75	100	75	100	150	100

$$\chi^2 = 1.76 \quad df = 2 \quad p = 0.410 \quad (NS)$$

The majority (82.7%) of the homemakers from both the rural and urban areas indicated that their goals were carried out. Only a few 9% (14) said they did not carry out their goals for the day. The findings indicated that most of the homemakers implemented the goals they set, just like Gross et al.

(1980) who stressed that after a plan is made it must be implemented, that is initiated and carried to completion.

Even though the distribution in table 8 shows that slightly more homemakers in Akoro (86.8%) than in Jirapa (78.6%) implemented their goals, the statistical analysis showed that there is no significant difference ($p = 0.410$) between the implementation of set goals by rural and urban homemakers.

4.2.6 Evaluation of goals

Table 9 gives the frequency and percentage distribution of responses of homemakers as to whether they evaluate the goals set for the day or not.

Table 9: Evaluation of goals

Response	Jirapa		Akoro		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	44	58.7	14	18.6	58	38.7
No	24	32.0	56	74.6	80	53.3
Not applicable	7	9.3	5	6.6	12	8.0
Total	75	100	75	100	150	100

$$\chi^2 = 25.6 \quad df = 2 \quad p = 0.000 \quad (S)$$

With regards to whether homemakers stopped to find out if their goals were being met or not, 53.3% (80) did not. This however is contrary to the view of Gross et al. (1980) that in time and energy management, there must be goal setting, implementing and utilizing feedback (evaluation).

The Chi-square analysis indicated that there is a significant difference ($p = 0.000$) between the evaluation of goals set by homemakers from Jirapa and Akoro.

Many homemakers from Jirapa (58.7%) evaluated their goals probably because they have had formal education which could have accounted for their knowledge of time management. About two thirds (71.2%) of those who did not evaluate their goals explained that once they knew what they had to do in the day, they just went ahead and did them while a few (13.8%) said they had no time to evaluate their goals.

For those who evaluated the use of their time as output of management, more than half (55%) achieved their goals. Goal achievement could probably be because these homemakers were more time conscious, so they planned and organized their work well and also worked according to their plans for the day. Achievement of goals could be an indication of effective time management.

For homemakers who did not meet their goals, it is probably because they were less conscious of their time so they were relaxed with their time use. Other contributing factors to non-achievement of goals could be, poor planning and organization of daily activities, inadequate work methods/skills, interruptions and lack of assistance among others. Non-achievement of goals could be an indication of poor time management.

4.3 GENERAL PATTERN OF TIME USE IN HOUSEHOLDS

4.3.1 Daily responsibilities of household members

The findings revealed that daily responsibilities of household members differed according to the age, sex and status of the members.

Major responsibilities of the wife or mother included:- household chores such as meal preparation, house cleaning, care of children and husband, fetching of water and firewood, marketing and storage of food. She was also responsible for nurturing the children, assisting her husband financially through economic activities such as farming, formal work and income generating ventures.

The husband or father on the other hand assumed the responsibilities of the family head. As such, he provided the household needs for food, shelter, clothing, school fees among others. Additional responsibilities included animal rearing, providing security, and training of the boys, taking major decisions, repairing and maintenance of the house.

The responsibilities of female children included; assisting in household chores such as cooking, washing, fetching water, sweeping, bathing younger siblings and running errands.

Male children were responsible for assisting their fathers on the farm, looking after animals, weeding around the house and running errands. The responsibilities of household members in the two study areas were similar.

4.3.2 Rising time of respondents

About two thirds (68%) of the homemakers (who could read clock time) said they woke up between 4.00a.m. and 5.00a.m. while 51% of their spouses woke up between 5.00a.m. and 6.00a.m. A few of the homemakers (15%) mainly from Jirapa were up between 3.00a.m. and 4.00a.m. Seventy-three percent of the homemakers (who could not read clock time) said they woke up before the first church bell (5.30a.m.) while 42% of their spouses were up by the second church bell, (6.00a.m.). Twenty eight percent of the homemakers in this group were up by the second cock crow (4.00a.m.)

The findings revealed that homemakers started their day by 4.00a.m. Similar findings by Pellow (1977) on Adabraka women in Accra and Acquah (1993) on families of University of Ghana workers living at the staff village both confirm the fact that Ghanaian women start their day by 4.00a.m.

Respondents who could not read clock time (mainly from Akoro) used the cock crow or the church bell to wake up. This supports Uka's (1987) description of daily lives of peasant societies being regulated by the cycle of everyday events such as the cock crow, position of the sun, length of the shadow, nightfall or darkness. Homemakers in both Jirapa and Akoro woke up earlier than their spouses, probably because of cultural expectations of women to perform household chores early in the morning. However, the homemakers in Jirapa households generally woke up earlier than their counterparts in Akoro. This could be due to the fact that many of them were employed in the formal sector, so they had to wake up early to finish their morning chores and get to their work places on time.

4.3.3 Activities engaged in by household members during the day

Activities performed by household members differed according to their responsibilities. Domestic work was highly sex segregated. The various household activities were performed at different times of the day. For the purposes of this study, the day was divided into four time blocks.

4.3.3.1 Time Block 1: (Time household members get up from bed till the time children leave for school: 4.00a.m. - 7.30a.m.)

The activities performed by homemakers during this time block included:-

- morning devotion/church service (96%);
- household chores such as sweeping, fetching of water, dish washing, cooking breakfast and preparing children for school (98%);
- preparation for formal work (52%);
- preparation for farm or income generating venture (48%).

Similar findings by Acquah (1993) indicated that early morning tasks of homemakers include sweeping, bathing young children, cooking, washing of clothes and dishes, sending children to school. Many spouses did very little work during this time block. A few of them (25%) fed animals, while the rest (75%) got themselves ready for work. Children, especially females helped with household chores before leaving for school. Respondents in both Jirapa and Akoro had a similar pattern of time use during this time block.

4.3.3.2 Time Block II:(Time children leave for school till they return home. 7.30a.m. - 12.30p.m.).

During this time block, respondents performed economic or occupational activities. Major occupations of the homemakers included formal jobs (53%), farming (20.7%), income generating activities such as petty trading, sheabutter extraction and pito brewing (22%).

Economic activities performed by the spouses included; formal work (51.3%), farming (43%) and petty trading (5%). The majority of the homemakers (83.3%) and spouses (95.4%) worked outside the home. This supports the view of Fortes (1979) that day time signifies time for engaging in productive activities such as farming. The only difference in time use during this time block was that while many respondents from Jirapa were engaged in the formal sector activities those from Akoro were engaged in informal sector activities.

4.3.3.3 Time Block III:(Time children come back from school till the time supper is prepared. 12.30 p.m. - 5.00 p.m.).

Activities performed by household members during this time block did not differ much from those of time block II. Almost half of the homemakers (45%) still engaged in economic or occupational activities. The rest (55%) mainly from Jirapa who closed from their work places before 5.00 p.m. went home, rested and engaged in household chores.

4.3.3.4 Time Block IV: (Supper preparation time till bed time. 5.00 p.m. 11 p.m.).

During this time block the homemakers engaged in more household activities as follows:

Preparation of supper

About two thirds of the homemakers (64.6%) prepared supper between 4.00 p.m. 6.00 p.m. The rest (35.4%) mainly from Akoro did not have specific time for supper preparation. For them, supper was cooked anytime the homemaker returned from the farm or market. Female children and/or relatives helped with supper preparation. Many of the spouses (70%) were at pito/beer bars after close of work or farm. Male children usually ran errands and those from Akoro mainly attended to chickens, goats and sheep. Many of those who attended school, studied or did home work.

Eating supper

Half of the households (50.6%) ate supper between 6.00 p.m. 8.00 p.m. The rest did not have specific time for eating supper. Many of them (46%) said they ate supper anytime it was ready while a few (10%) ate supper anytime they felt like eating. While most of the homemakers from Jirapa cooked and ate supper by clock time, most of the homemakers from Akoro did not have a specific time for cooking and eating supper. This finding confirms the statement of Uka (1987) that household chores in rural settings were not carried out by clock time. For example, the homemaker does not cook by clock time and meal times are not fixed.

After supper activities

Household members engaged in several activities after supper, some of which are, conversation with family members, bathing of children, rest, dish washing and for those in Jirapa, watching TV and listening to the radio. Some homemakers assisted their children with their home work while others prepared for the next day's work. The findings tally with Acquah's (1993) observation that among the activities performed by homemakers during the evening time block are cooking, bathing of young children, fetching of water and teaching children.

About one third (35.3%) of the homemakers from Jirapa went to bed between 9.00 p.m. and 10.00 p.m., while 45% did so between 10.00 p.m. and 11.00 p.m.

For those who could not read clock time, 46% mainly from Akoro went to bed anytime they felt sleepy, 20% slept after eating supper and 10% went to bed after they had finished with all their chores. The majority of spouses (53%) went to bed between 9.00 p.m. and 10.00 p.m. The findings show that homemakers went to bed late (after 10.00 p.m.). Similar observations by Acquah (1993) and Pellow (1977) confirm the fact that Ghanaian homemakers ended their day late at night often after 11.00 p.m.

4.3.4 Impressions of homemakers about their daily time use

4.3.4.1 Adequacy of time for activities

As to whether homemakers felt pressed for time as they carried out their daily activities, 84% (126) responded in the affirmative. More than one

third (35.7%) explained that they had so many things to do at a time while another one third (31.7%) said they were faced with several interruptions. A few (22%) indicated that they got home late from work (after 6.00 p.m.) so they had less time to finish their household chores before going to bed.

Slightly more homemakers in Akoro (92%) than in Jirapa (86%) expressed inadequacy of time for activities. Those who did not feel pressed for time (16%) explained that sharing the workload with household members eased their burden and also they worked according to their plan for the day.

4.3.4.2 Ability to accomplish daily tasks

With regards to whether homemakers were able to accomplish their daily tasks, 55% said they did while 45% said they did not. More homemakers from Jirapa (65%) than Akoro (35%) said they accomplished their daily tasks. The explanations given were that 64% got up early to start their work, 57% shared the work among family members, 46% carried out some activities ahead of time while 43% worked hard at their daily tasks. Forty-five percent of those who did not accomplish their daily tasks explained that much of their time was spent on occupational activities hence they had little time for house work. Thirty percent said some unexpected events disrupted their plans while 25% said they had no househelps.

As to whether homemakers had the urge to accomplish more work at the end of the day, 68% (102) responded negatively, with 78% and 57% from Akoro and Jirapa respectively. The reason given was that they felt very tired. More rural homemakers (78%) than urban (57%) felt tired and did not have

the urge to work at the end of the day probably because being in the informal sector (mainly farming) they exerted more physical energy than the urban homemakers who work in the formal sector. Most rural homemakers did not make room for rest/leisure but their counterparts in the formal sector had break time which enabled them have some rest in between work time. Most rural homemakers hardly used any labour-saving devices but some urban homemakers used a few labour-saving devices in performing household chores. Thirty two percent who had the urge to accomplish more work explained that they had the desire to finish what they had set themselves to do for the day.

As to what homemakers did when they were unable to accomplish what they had set themselves to do for the day, 60% (90) indicated that they carried them forward to the next day. Thirty-one percent (47) mainly from Jirapa said they replanned for another time, while a few 9% (13) from Akoro said they worked deep into the night.

4.3.4.3 Satisfaction with daily accomplishment

Eighty two percent (123) of the homemakers felt satisfied with what they accomplished in the day. Many of them, 56.9% (70) indicated that they were able to carry out the most important tasks for the day. More homemakers in Akoro (56%) than in Jirapa (43%) were satisfied with their daily accomplishments. The few, (18%) who were dissatisfied with their daily accomplishments explained that they did not have sufficient time to finish their tasks. The feeling of satisfaction with daily accomplishments agree with

the views of Walker (1969) and Gittelson (1977) that only about one out of ten housewives claim to hate or to be dissatisfied with house work. Women in the Campbell, Converse and Rodger's (1976) study were found to be about as satisfied with their housework as well as all respondents with their job (including men) who worked for pay.

4.3.4.4 Rest periods during the day

When asked whether homemakers had enough rest in the day, more than half (58%) mainly from Akoro said they did not, while 40% (60) said they had enough rest. Many of those who did not have enough rest 42.5% explained that they always had something doing while 19.5% said they simply had no time to rest. A few (10.7%) said they did not have any house help so they performed all the chores by themselves.

4.3.5 Activities performed at weekends

Activities performed by household members on Saturday did not differ much from the weekdays. Almost all the homemakers 98% (147) engaged in house cleaning exercises and laundry work. Other activities performed by homemakers in Jirapa included:- brewing pito 40%, going to the hairdressing saloon 21.3%, attending meetings 17%, writing lesson notes 13%, sewing and/or patching of clothes 7.3%. In Akoro other activities performed by 35% of homemakers were brewing pito and 30% prepared sheabutter.

Sunday, which happens to be Jirapa market day, was a busy day for many homemakers. The majority of them 91% (136) attended church service

with their spouses and children. After the service, almost all the homemakers (96.7%) went to the market to do marketing while others sold pito or petty goods. Thirty-five percent (54) also visited friends or relatives and drank pito, while 22.7% (34) rested. A few of them (15%) attended meetings. Most of the spouses (80%) visited friends/relatives and drank pito. It was realized that similar activities were performed by household members from Akoro and Jirapa at the weekend.

4.3.6 Leisure activities engaged in by household members

With regards to leisure activities engaged in by household members, about two thirds (62%) mainly from Akoro said they did not have leisure time. More than half (55%) of those who engaged in leisure activities explained that they did not consciously plan their leisure time. The rest (45%) explained that leisure activities were engaged in when they were less busy; normally after eating supper.

The leisure activities engaged in by the homemakers from Jirapa included: conversation (86%), listening to radio or watching television (70%), drinking pito (43%), visiting friends or relatives (40%), playing ludu (30%) and reading (25%). For the homemakers in Akoro, 98% engaged in conversation, 30% rested, 25% drank pito, while 15% visited friends and relatives.

The findings revealed that many homemakers (55%) did not consciously plan their leisure time just like Raines (1973) pointed out that many housewives may not consciously plan their leisure time, but it comes up as they go about their daily work. It was clear that the most common leisure

activity engaged in by most of the homemakers from both Jirapa and Akoro was conversation with family members and friends. While almost all the homemakers in Akoro engaged in conversation, the homemakers in Jirapa were engaged in a variety of leisure activities. Since it was indicated that leisure activities were mostly engaged in after supper, a possible reason for the difference in leisure activities could be due to the fact that Jirapa has electricity so household members could watch TV, listen to radio or visit friends in the evening.

With regards to leisure activities of the spouses, more than three quarters (78%) said they spent their leisure time drinking pito. The rest, (22%) mainly from Jirapa, engaged in other activities such as watching television (45%), listening to radio (37%), reading (25%) and gardening (15%).

4.4 PERFORMANCE OF HOUSEHOLD ACTIVITIES AND THE TIME SPENT

In many homes the performance of household activities are based on division of labour. For the purposes of this study, all activities were grouped into four categories namely: domestic, economic, social and personal.

4.4.1 Performance of domestic activities by household members

Table 10 gives the distribution of household members who perform domestic activities.

Table 10: Household members who perform domestic activities

Household Members	Jirapa		Akoro		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Mother & Children	42	56.0	53	70.7	95	63.3
Family	18	24.0	8	10.7	26	17.3
Mother	6	8.0	9	12.0	15	10.0
Husband and wife	8	10.7	0	0	8	5.4
Househelp	1	1.3	5	6.6	6	4.0
Total	75	100	75	100	150	100

$$\chi^2 = 16.38 \quad df = 4 \quad p = 0.001 \quad (S)$$

Table 10 shows that domestic activities were performed mostly by the mother and the children 63.3% (95). This finding supports Oppong's (1980) work in the Ghanaian traditional society, where she found that women assume the major responsibility for performing domestic chores. Women are often helped by children who may be their own offspring, kin or unrelated househelps. The finding also agrees with the view of Rice and Tucker (1986) that cultural expectation holds that whether women are employed outside the household or not they still are responsible for most of the home-related work.

The Chi-square analysis showed that there is a significant difference ($p = 0.001$) between household members who performed domestic activities in Jirapa and Akoro. The difference in the distribution is evidenced by the fact that more mothers and children in Akoro (70.7%) than in Jirapa (56%)

performed domestic work probably because people in the rural setting adhere more to the traditional belief that domestic work is women's work. In Jirapa, other family members (24%) and a few spouses (10.7%) performed domestic work while in Akoro no spouse performed domestic work. Some of the domestic work performed by the few spouses included ironing of clothes, bathing children, baby sitting and sending children to school.

4.4.2 Time spent on domestic activities

More than one third of the homemakers, (42%) mainly from Akoro could not estimate the time spent on domestic activities. Homemakers who could estimate time spent a mean time of seven hours a day on domestic work. The mean time of seven hours confirms Oppenheim's (1972) assertion that homemakers still spend many hours a day on housework. One of her studies on American housewives showed that the average time spent on domestic work was about 7 hours a day. Mean time spent on specific domestic work is presented in Appendix 2.

4.4.3 Performance of economic activities by household members

Table 11 presents the distribution of family members who work to bring in income to the household.

Table 11: Household members who work to bring in income

Household members	Jirapa		Akoro		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Husband and wife	42	56.0	40	53.3	82	54.7
Mother alone	25	33.4	19	25.4	44	29.3
Family	3	4.0	6	8.0	9	6.0
Father alone	2	2.7	3	4.0	5	3.3
Mother & Children	1	1.3	4	5.3	5	3.3
Househelp	1	1.3	2	2.7	3	2.0
Children	1	1.3	1	1.3	2	1.3
Total	75	100	75	100	150	100

$$\chi^2 = 4.20 \quad df = 6 \quad p = 0.628 \quad (NS)$$

More than half of the homemakers (54.7%) indicated that both husband and wife mostly performed economic or occupational activities in the households. Fifty six percent of these were from Jirapa while (53.3%) were from Akoro. About one third (29.3%) of the homemakers said the mother alone performed economic activities. These were probably the mothers who were single, divorced, separated or widowed. Table 11 revealed that many homemakers perform economic activities in the households. This however, is contrary to Krep's (1976) opinion that women do inside work (domestic chores) while men do outside work (economic activities).

The chi-square analysis showed no significant difference ($p = 0.628$) between household members who perform economic activities in Jirapa and Akoro .

4.4.4 Time spent on economic activities

More than one third of the homemakers (41.3%) could not estimate the time spent on economic activities. Those who could estimate the time, spent from 3 – 12 hours with a mean of 8 hours on economic activities per day. Mean time spent on economic activities have been presented in Appendix 3.

4.4.5 Involvement of household members in social activities

Table 12 shows the distribution of household members who get involved in social activities.

Table 12: Involvement of household members in social activities

Household members	Jirapa		Akoro		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Husband and wife	32	42.6	39	52.0	71	47.3
Family	25	33.4	13	17.3	38	25.3
Mother alone	13	17.4	18	24.0	31	20.7
Mother & Children	4	5.3	2	2.7	6	4.0
Children	0	0	2	2.7	2	1.3
Relatives	1	1.3	0	0	1	.7
Househelp	0	0	1	1.3	1	.7
Total	75	100	75	100	150	100

$\chi^2 = 9.95 \quad df = 6p = 0.211 \quad (NS)$

Table 12 reveals that social functions were mostly attended by the husband and wife in many households. Slightly more couples in Akoro (52%), than Jirapa (42.6%) attended social functions. Some of the social activities included funerals, societal meetings, visit to kins, festivals and communal work.

However, the chi-square analysis showed that there is no significant difference ($p = 0.211$) between members who got involved in social activities in Jirapa and Akoro.

4.4.6 Time spent on social activities

Over one third (41.3%) of the homemakers mainly from Akoro could not estimate the time spent on social activities. Those who could estimate the time, spent a mean time of 5 hours weekly on social activities. The social activity that consumed a lot of time was funerals. This is because Dagaaba funerals last for two days and people who are closely related to the deceased stay on till the funeral is over. The mean time spent on specific social activities have been given in Appendix 4.

4.4.7 Personal activities of homemakers

These include personal care and hygiene, rest, sleep, recreational and leisure activities. With regards to how much time they spent on personal activities, more than one third of the homemakers (43.3%) mostly from Akoro could not estimate the time spent. Those who could estimate the time, spent a mean time of 8 hours a day. The personal activity that consumed a lot of time was sleep. The mean time spent on specific personal activities have been presented in Appendix 5.

With respect to how much time is spent on the various activities, more than one third (43%) of the homemakers mainly from Akoro, could not estimate the time probably due to their low educational background. It was

noticed that, even those who gave time estimates did so with some difficulties. This could be due to the fact that the homemakers generally did not time their activities probably because they are unaware of the importance of timing in time management. As a result they spent so much time on their activities. Timing could help homemakers allocate their time well throughout the whole week. Homemakers could also plan so that they carry out just enough tasks within a day. Timing could enable homemakers accomplish specific tasks within shorter periods of time and make time for other activities such as rest, leisure and sleep.

The long hours (7 hrs) spent on domestic work could be attributed to the lack of labour saving devices and probably the lack of appropriate work methods and skills. It also appears that homemakers do not organize their work centres properly, so a lot of time is wasted moving around all over the place.

4.5 CONSTRAINTS ON HOUSEHOLD TIME MANAGEMENT

Many people are unable to accomplish their set goals due to certain unplanned events or interruptions that may come up during the execution of their daily activities.

Table 13 presents the interruptions that affect homemakers and spouses time use.

Table 13: Interruptions that affect time use of the homemakers

Interruptions	Jirapa		Akoro		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Funerals	62	82.7	72	96.0	134	89.3
Sickness	37	49.3	37	49.3	74	49.3
Children	35	46.7	33	40.0	68	45.3
Visitors	34	45.3	4	5.3	38	25.3
Rainfall	12	16.0	3	4.0	15	10

No. of homemakers: 150

Table 13 reveals that funerals were major interruptions to household time use as indicated by almost 90% of the homemakers. This could be due to the fact that Dagaaba funerals are performed immediately a person dies. Hence relatives have to stop whatever they have set themselves to do in order to attend a funeral. Attendance at funerals is a strict social obligation and the penalty for non-observance of this obligation is that other people also refuse to attend the funerals of relatives of such defaulters.

With regards to the interruptions that affect the spouses time use, more than three quarters (88%) indicated funeral as major interruptions. Other interruptions mentioned were rainfall (28.4%), visitors (20%), meetings (10%), sickness (8.2%) and telephone calls (7.3%). These findings agree with Rice and Tucker's (1986) view that interruptions such as telephone, unexpected visitors, calls from children to help them find this or that among

other things cause a lot of constraints on time management. More households in Akoro (96%) were interrupted by funerals than in Jirapa (83%) probably because people in rural communities are closely related and see themselves as one; hence one person's problem is everybody's problem. Also people in the informal sector with flexible time schedules are likely to attend funerals more than those in the formal sector who have rigid time schedules. More households in Jirapa (45%) were interrupted by visitors than in Akoro (5.3%) probably because people from the rural areas normally visit their relatives in the urban areas for various purposes.

4.6 STRATEGIES USED BY HOMEMAKERS AND SPOUSES TO FACILITATE TIME MANAGEMENT

In order to facilitate time management, homemakers and their spouses have adopted several coping mechanisms.

4.6.1 Strategies used by homemakers

Table 14 gives the strategies used by homemakers to facilitate time management.

Table 14: Strategies used by homemakers to facilitate time management

Strategies	Jirapa		Akoro		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Mental planning	67	89.2	70	93.2	137	91.3
Dovetailing	64	85.2	73	97.2	137	91.3
Division of work	69	92.0	64	85.2	133	88.7
Balancing work load	26	34.6	27	36.0	53	35.3
Work simplification	46	61.2	2	2.6	48	32.0
Rest and leisure	25	33.3	6	10.6	31	20.6
Use of labour saving devices	7	9.2	0	0	7	4.7

No. of homemakers: 150

With regards to the strategies used by homemakers to facilitate time use, a little over ninety percent said they planned their time and also practised dovetailing (performing two or more tasks at the same time). More than three quarters of them (88.7%) said they divided the work among female family members, while one third each resorted to balancing work load (inter-spersing heavy activities with lighter ones) and work simplification (use of appropriate work methods). In a previous question concerning the ability of homemakers to accomplish their daily tasks more than fifty percent explained that they resorted to other means such as they resorted to other means such as waking up early to start daily chores, carrying out some chores or part of them ahead of time, working hard at goals set for the day and setting priorities in their work. The findings disclosed that homemakers use different strategies to facilitate their time use just like Walker and Woods (1976) observed in their study that wives use more than one technique to organize their time use. The

findings also support Oppenheim's (1972) view that work can be made simple by sharing the workload with other family members.

Table 14 reveals that slightly more rural homemakers (93.2%) than urban (89.2%) use mental planning as a strategy to facilitate time management. This information seems to confirm the earlier observation that more rural homemakers do mental planning than the urban ones.

With regards to dovetailing, it was revealed that there is a significant difference ($p = 0.002$) between the households in Jirapa and Akoro. The difference is evidenced by the fact that more rural homemakers (97.2%) than urban (85.2%) combined task performance. This may be due to the fact that rural homemakers, being in the informal sector (with flexible time schedules) can easily combine some occupational jobs with household chores; for example, brewing pito and cooking food.

The distribution also shows that slightly more urban households (92%) than rural (85.2%) shared household work among household members. But the chi-square analysis indicated no significant difference ($p = 0.152$) between the households in the two areas.

With regards to balancing workload, the test showed no significant difference ($p = 0.178$) between households in the rural and urban settings.

However, there was a significant difference ($p = 0.000$) between the two areas with regards to work simplification. While 61.2% of urban households used the appropriate methods for task performance, only 2.6% of rural households did so. This may be due to the fact that urban homemakers have had some formal education which could have accounted for their

knowledge of appropriate work methods. The use of poor work methods could lead to more time and energy being spent on the task causing fatigue and poor work output. The implication being that daily tasks may not be accomplished resulting in poor time management.

It is clear from the table that homemakers generally did not make room for rest and leisure as indicated by only 20.6%. Just a few (4.7%) used labour-saving devices. This might explain why many of them spent much time on household chores and also felt very tired at the end of the day.

With respect to rest and leisure, there was a significant difference ($p = 0.006$) between households in Jirapa and Akoro. The distribution shows that more urban homemakers (33.3%) than rural (10.6%) made use of rest and leisure probably because they were aware of their importance in time management. While a few homemakers (9.2%) in Jirapa households used labour-saving devices, none in Akoro households did so. This could be due to the fact that homemakers generally did not have the means to buy labour-saving devices. In addition, rural homemakers may not have knowledge of the availability of labour-saving devices. Even if they did, since they do not have electricity it will be difficult to operate them. The labour-saving devices owned by the few homemakers in Jirapa included water heaters (16%), electric iron (14.7%), graters (7.3%), blenders (6%), electric or gas stoves (4%) and toasters (2%).

4.6.2 Strategies used by spouses to facilitate time management

Table 15 shows the distribution of the strategies used by the spouses to manage their time.

Table 15: Strategies used by the spouses to facilitate time management

Strategies	Spouses	
	No	%
Planning and Keeping to plan	80	73.3
Do important things first	32	29.4
Work hard at goals set	31	28.4
Spend less time on unnecessary things	20	18.3
Learn the skills for the task	5	4.6
No strategies used	21	19.1

No. of spouses: 109

Table 15 reveals that almost three quarters of the spouses (73.3%) planned their time and kept to their plans. About one third each did important things first and also worked hard at their goals.

4.7 LEVELS OF TIME MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

Three levels of time management practices were developed by assigning values to five key factors of time management practices. This was done so that the homemakers could be categorized into effective, moderate and poor time managers.

Table 16 presents the categorization of homemakers according to levels of time management practices.

Table 16: Categorization of homemakers into levels of time management practices

Levels	No	%
Effective	20	13.3
Moderate	111	74.0
Poor	19	12.7
Total	150	100.0

Table 16 shows that about three quarters of the homemakers (74%) practised moderate time management. This revelation is rather encouraging considering the generally low educational status of the homemakers. It could be implied that even though the homemakers did not have knowledge of the Management Process, they had their own ways of managing their time which did not deviate much from the steps of the Management Process. It was found that the homemakers generally, operated with mental plans and did not evaluate their plans. It was therefore not surprisingly that only 20 (13.3%) practised effective time management.

4.8 EFFECT OF SELECTED SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS OF HOMEMAKERS ON TIME MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

Several factors, both external and internal, influence the management of time. The study examined the relationship between selected social characteristics of the homemakers and time management practices. The social characteristics include: age, educational status, number of children, household size, place of residence and occupational sector of the homemakers.

4.8.1 Age of Homemakers and time management practices

Table 17 presents the distribution of homemakers by age and time management practices.

Table 17: Distribution of homemakers by age and levels of time management practices

Age (Years)	Levels of time management practices							
	Effective		Moderate		Poor		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Relatively Young (21 – 40 years)	8	11.3	53	74.6	10	14.1	71	100
Middle Age (41-60) years	11	15.5	51	71.8	9	12.7	71	100
Relatively old (61-70 years)	1	12.5	7	87.5	0	0	8	100
Total	20	13.3	111	74	19	12.7	150	100

$\chi^2 = 1.85$ df = 4 p = 0.763 (NS)

Percentage based on row total.

Table 17 shows that the majority of homemakers in each age group practised moderate time management. The chi-square analysis indicated that there is no significant difference (p = 0.760) between the time management practices of homemakers with regards to their ages.

From the findings of this study, it is clear that, the age of the homemakers did not have significant influence on their time management practices. However, there is a slight indication that as homemakers grow older, they become more experienced in their time management practices.

4.8.2 Educational level of homemakers and time management practices

Table 18 shows the distribution of homemakers by educational level and time management practices.

Table 18: Distribution of homemakers by educational level and time management practices

Educational Level	Levels of time management practices							
	Effective		Moderate		Poor		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
No formal Education	4	7.4	48	88.9	2	3.7	54	100
Elementary School	9	16.4	37	67.2	9	16.4	55	100
Secondary School	2	10.0	14	70.0	4	20.0	20	100
Post Secondary and Tertiary Education	5	23.8	12	57.2	4	19.0	21	100
Total	20	13.3	111	14.0	19	12.7	150	100

$$\chi^2 = 12.04 \quad df = 6 \quad p = 0.610 \quad (NS)$$

*Percentage based on row total

From table 18, education does not seem to have significant influence on the time management practices of the homemakers although there is a slight indication that attaining higher levels of education may contribute to more effective time management practices. This slight observation seem to agree with Walker and Wood's (1976) observation that educated women mostly managed their time better than the uneducated or less educated ones because they know how to plan their activities. However, the chi-square analysis revealed that there is no significant difference ($p = 0.610$) between

the time management practices of homemakers with respect to the educational level they have attained.

4.8.3 Number of children of homemakers and time management practices

Table 19 shows the distribution of homemakers by number of children and levels of time management practices.

Table 19: Distribution of homemakers by number of children and levels of time management practices

Number of Children	Levels of time management practices							
	Effective		Moderate		Poor		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1 – 3	14	16.8	53	64.0	16	19.2	83	100
4 – 6	6	11.0	46	84.0	3	5.5	55	100
7 – 9	0	0	12	100	0	0	12	100
Total	20	13.3	111	74.0	19	12.7	150	100

$\chi^2 = 12.20$ $df = 4$ $p = 0.003$ (S)

*Percentage based on row total

From table 19, it appears the larger the number of children a homemaker has the better her time management practices probably due to the experience gathered over the years. The chi-square analysis revealed that there is a significant difference ($p = 0.003$) between the time management practices of homemakers with regards to the number of children they have.

The results imply that the number of children a homemaker has influences her time management practices just as Walker and Wood's (1976)

assertion that both the number of children and their ages have a marked influence on work time and numerous household activities. For example, a homemaker with a large number of children who are very young, would have greater workload in terms of cooking, laundry and childcare which will greatly increase her work time. However, if the children are few or grown, they would be able to assist the homemaker in performing the household chores thereby reducing her workload and work time.

4.8.4 Household size of homemakers and time management practices

Table 20 presents the distribution of homemakers by household size and levels of time management practices.

Table 20: Distribution of homemakers by household size and levels of time management practices

Number of People in Household	Levels of time management practices							
	Effective		Moderate		Poor		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1 – 3	1	10.0	6	60.0	3	30.0	10	100
4 – 6	15	16.8	63	70.7	11	12.3	89	100
7 – 9	4	8.6	37	80.0	5	10.8	46	100
10 – 12	0	0	5	100	0	0	5	100
Total	20	13.3	111	74.0	19	12.7	150	100

$\chi^2 = 6.55$ df = 6 p = 0.861 (NS)

* Percentage based on row total

Although the chi-square analysis indicated no significant difference (p = 0.861) between the time management practices of homemakers with regards to their household size, the data on table 20 seem to indicate that the

larger the household size, the better the coping mechanisms adopted by homemakers leading to better time management practices. These findings are however contrary to Walker and Wood's (1976) observation that the larger the number the more time is used for all household work done by homemakers. It could be that larger households may include female adults who might also help with household chores and therefore reduce the work load and time spent by the homemaker.

4.8.5 Homemakers' place of residence and time management practices

Table 21 presents the distribution of homemakers by place of residence and time management practices.

Table 21: Distribution of homemakers by place of residence and levels of time management practices

Place of Residence	Levels of time management practices							
	Effective		Moderate		Poor		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Jirapa	16	21.3	47	62.6	12	16.0	75	100
Akoro	4	5.3	64	85.3	7	9.3	75	100
Total	20	13.3	111	74.0	19	12.7	150	100

$\chi^2 = 11.11$ df = 2 p = 0.004 (S)

*Percentage based on row total

Table 21 shows that 16 (21.3%) of the homemakers who practiced effective time management resided in Jirapa. Although the majority of homemakers from both study areas practised moderate time management, there were more residing in Akoro (85%) than in Jirapa (62.6%). Using the

effective level as reference point it could be said that homemakers who resided in Jirapa were better in their time management than those who resided in Akoro. It could be implied that a person's place of residence has significant influence on her time management just as Szalai's (1972) assertion that the environment, (both the immediate and the household) forms an important factor that affect household time use. Residence was earlier recognized as one of these factors.

To test the Null hypothesis (H_0) stating that there is no significant difference between the time management practices of Dagaaba households in the rural and urban settings, the chi-square results revealed that at 0.05 level of significance, the computed chi-square value was 11.11 while the tabulated chi-square value was 0.004 at 2 degrees of freedom. The decision rule for the chi-square test is that if the computed chi-square value is greater than the tabulated chi-square value ($\chi^2_c \geq \chi^2_t$) then there is a significant difference between the variables tested.

Since the computed chi-square value of 11.11 is higher than that of the tabulated chi-square value of 0.004, it was ruled that there is a significant difference ($p = 0.004$) between the time management practices of Dagaaba households in Jirapa and Akoro. The Null hypothesis (H_0) was therefore rejected. The reason for the difference being that Jirapa (relatively urban) was associated with more than "expected" number of homemakers 16 (21.3%) rated as practising effective time management (Ref. Table 21). This could be attributed to the fact that the homemakers from Jirapa had a relatively higher educational status which could have contributed to their

knowledge of better time management. Homemakers in Jirapa also had better facilities such as electricity, which enabled them use a few labour-saving devices. Many of them also had pipe-borne water in the homes so they spent less time and energy in fetching water.

4.8.6 Occupational sector of homemakers and time management practices

Table 22 indicates the distribution of homemakers by occupational sector and time management practices.

Table 22: Distribution of homemakers by occupational sector and time management practices

Occupational Sector	Levels of time management practices							
	Effective		Moderate		Poor		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Formal Sector	16	21.3	46	61.5	13	17.3	75	100
Informal Sector	4	5.3	65	86.6	6	8.0	75	100
Total	20	13.3	111	74.0	19	12.7	150	100

$\chi^2 = 13.03$ df = 2 p = 0.001 (S)

*Percentage based on row total

It was noted that 16 (21.3%) of the homemakers who practised effective time management worked in the formal sector. Eighty-six percent of those who worked in the informal sector practised moderate time management. Of the nineteen homemakers who practised poor time management, 13 (17.3%) worked in the formal sector. These could be homemakers who spent much of their time at their work places as such were unable to perform other responsibilities at home.

Using the effective level as reference point, it could be implied that the occupational sector of the homemaker has significant influence on her time management practices. That is, those who worked in the formal sector could be better managers of their time than those in the informal sector.

To test the Null hypothesis (H_0) stating that there is no significant difference between the time management practices of households in the formal and informal sectors, the statistical analysis revealed that the computed chi-square value was 13.03 and the tabulated chi-square value was 0.001 at 2 degrees of freedom. Since the computed chi-square value of 13.03 is higher than the tabulated chi-square value of 0.001, it was ruled that there is a significant difference ($p = 0.001$) between the time management practices of households in the formal and informal sectors. The Null hypothesis (H_0) was therefore rejected.

The reason for the difference being that the formal sector was associated with higher than 'expected' number of homemakers 16 (81.3%) who were rated as practising effective time management. (Ref. Table 22). This could be attributed to the fact that homemakers in the formal sector had rigid time schedules so they were more conscious of their time and planned their time better than those in the informal sector who had more flexible time schedules.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 SUMMARY

Time is the only resource that everybody has in equal quantity; yet some people accomplish more than others with their time. Observations and experience show that, in Ghana and especially among the Dagaaba much time is wasted each day due to improper time management. The aim of the study therefore, was to find out how Dagaaba households in the rural and urban settings use their time to accomplish their goals.

It was hypothesized that:-

H0₁ There is no significant difference between the time management practices of rural and urban Dagaaba households.

H0₂ There is no significant difference between the time management practices of households who work in the formal and informal sectors.

A proportionate sample of seventy five households representing three communities in Jirapa town and a simple random sample of seventy five households from Akoro village were interviewed using structured interview schedules. The data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS/PC) software to generate frequency and percentage distributions. The presentation of the data is mainly descriptive using tables where appropriate. The Chi-square statistic was used to test the two Null hypotheses. It was also used to test the effect of selected social characteristics on time management practices of the homemakers.

The study revealed that more than three quarters of the homemakers in both study areas were married. Homemakers from Akoro were generally older than those from Jirapa. The spouses were older than the homemakers. The findings indicated a slightly higher number of children and a larger household size in Akoro than Jirapa. Respondents in Akoro had a generally low educational status. While the majority of respondents from Jirapa worked in the formal sector, those from Akoro were in the informal sector engaged mainly in farming.

It was clear that most of the homemakers from both study areas operated with mental plans. The homemakers took decisions on what chores household members performed in the day. Though plans made by the homemakers were generally implemented, many of them did not evaluate their plans for the day. More homemakers from Akoro (76%) than Jirapa (49%) did not evaluate their plans.

Homemakers started their day by 4.00 a.m. and ended late at night around 11.00 p.m. Daily responsibilities of household members differed according to sex, age and status of the member in the household. These responsibilities were performed at different times of the day. For the purposes of the study, the day was divided into four time blocks. The morning and evening time blocks were used for household chores while the afternoon time blocks were used for economic or occupational activities. Domestic work was performed solely by homemakers and female children or relatives while spouses spent much of their time for occupational or leisure activities. In addition to being responsible for household chores, homemakers

had the additional task of having to support their homes financially by engaging in economic ventures.

Homemakers hardly had any labour-saving devices hence they exerted a lot of energy and spent much time in carrying out their daily activities. More homemakers from Akoro (65%) than Jirapa (35%) did not accomplish their daily tasks. Unaccomplished tasks were generally carried out the next day by homemakers from Akoro while those from Jirapa replanned them for another time.

Many of the homemakers hardly had time for rest and leisure. More homemakers from Akoro (65%) than Jirapa (35%) did not have enough rest in the day.

While most respondents from Jirapa carried out their daily activities by clock time, those from Akoro unable to read clock time used natural events such as the cock's crow, day break, movement of the sun, length of the shadow and night fall. It was evident that homemakers from Akoro could not read clock time hence they could not estimate the time spent on the activities they performed.

With regards to the performance of the various activities and the time spent, it was revealed that domestic work was mainly performed by homemakers and female children with a mean time of 7 hours a day. Occupational or economic activities mostly performed by the couple took a mean of 8 hours of the day. Social activities were performed mostly by the couple with a mean time of 5 hours a week while personal activities of homemakers consumed a mean time of 8 hours a day.

Funerals were identified as major interruptions to household time use. To facilitate time management, household members adopted strategies like mental planning, dovetailing, division of work among female members, work simplification, waking up early to start work, and balancing work load.

The majority of the homemakers (74%) practised moderate time management. Within this category, 47.8% were relatively young (21-40 years) 43.2% had formal education, 58.6% worked in the informal sector, 57.7% resided in Akoro, 48% had 1-3 children and 56.8% had 4-6 people in their households.

The Chi-square analyses revealed a significant difference between the time management practices of households in Akoro and Jirapa, hence the Null hypothesis (H_{01}) stating that there is no significant difference in the time management practices of rural and urban Dagaaba households was rejected. Similarly, the difference between the time management practices of households who work in the formal and informal sectors was significant. Therefore the Null hypothesis (H_{02}) stating that there is no significant difference between the time management practices of households in the formal and informal sectors was rejected. Selected social characteristics such as occupational sector, number of children and place of residence had significant influence on the homemakers' time management practices. However, characteristics such as age, educational status and household size had no significant influence on their time management practices.

The study recommends that extension workers and Home Science teachers intensify their education on time management because many homemakers are not conscious of timing and are not able to estimate time.

Home Science teachers should stress the importance of evaluation as a step in time management. This will help future homemakers acquire the habit of assessing how their time is spent in order to be more effective in their time management and make time for rest and leisure.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

From the results of the study it is concluded that;

- ◆ The homemakers did not have adequate knowledge of the steps in the management process which include planning, organizing, implementing and evaluation. As a result, many of them did not evaluate their plans for the day.
- ◆ The homemakers became very tired at the end of the day because they performed most of the domestic chores and also participated in economic ventures to help maintain their families.
- ◆ The homemakers exerted a lot of energy and spent much time in carrying out their daily activities because they hardly used any labour-saving devices and did not have adequate rest and leisure in the day.
- ◆ Funerals were major interruptions to household time use because they consumed too much time which affected family work schedules of the homemakers and their spouses. However, the homemakers adopted strategies such as planning, dovetailing, waking up early to start work,

sharing of work among female members to accomplish their daily chores.

- ◆ The homemakers from Jirapa had rigid time so they were more conscious of their time and managed their time better than their counterparts from Akoro who had flexible time schedules and were more relaxed with their time use.
- ◆ A combination of social characteristics and the environment has contributed to the differences between the time management practices of households in Akoro and Jirapa..

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

It is recommended that extension work be intensified to educate homemakers on how to organize and use their time so as to reduce the time and energy spent on daily activities to make time for rest, leisure and sleep. The importance of rest and leisure should be stressed especially among rural homemakers.

Home Science teachers should stress the management process in the teaching of time management and emphasize the evaluation of plans. This would help students build effective time management practices as they grow up.

There is the need for the Home Science teachers in Dagao to educate and encourage male students to study home science. This would help them

develop a positive attitude towards household chores when they grow up to become fathers and husbands to lend a helping hand to their spouses in order to reduce the work load of homemakers.

Home Science programmes should teach students to develop the habit of timing activities they perform. This will help them in the future to plan and organize daily activities so that they do just enough for the day.

Case studies should be carried out in rural and urban households to enable a more critical observation and comparison of their time management practices to provide an in-depth knowledge of problem areas which are likely to be overlooked in a survey.

Further studies should be conducted on time management practices of Home science students and/or teachers as a measure of how knowledge translates to practical application by those who learn or teach such skills.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

INTERVIEW GUIDE ON TIME MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AMONG DAGAABA HOUSEHOLDS IN AKORO AND JIRAPA

INTRODUCTION

My name is Elizabeth M. Ba-ama. I am a student offering M.Phil in Home Science and specializing in Family Resource Management at the University of Ghana, Legon. I would appreciate it very much if you could help me obtain some information on time management practices, to enable me submit a thesis.

You are assured that every information given will be treated as strictly confidential. Thank you.

GENERAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF HOMEMAKERS

1. House Number
2. Name of Homemaker (optional).....Age
3. Hometown
4. Religion: Christian 1. Muslim 2.
Traditionalist 3. Others: specify 4.
5. Marital Status.....
Married 1. Widowed 2.
Divorced 3. Separated 4.
6. Type of marriage:
Monogamous 1. Polygynous 2.
7. If the marriage is polygynous, how many co-wives are there?
.....
8. What is your status amongst the wives?
First 1. Second 2. Third 3.
Fourth 4. Others, specify 5.
9. Number of children
10. What is your educational level?
Never been to school 1.
Elementary education 2.

- Secondary education 3.
- Vocational/Commercial 4.
- Post secondary education 5.
- University education 6.
- Others (specify) 7.
- 11. What do you do for income?
Primary occupation.....
- 12. Where is your work place?
Outside the home 1.
- At home 2.
- 13. If outside the home, when do you leave for work?.....
- 14. What time do you return from work?.....
- 15. What supplementary jobs do you do in addition to your primary job?
-
- 16. When do you do this job?
Weekdays only 1.
- Weekends only 2.
- Both weekdays and weekends 3.
- Others, specify 4.
- 17. Do you own a means of transport?
Yes 1. No 2.
- 18. If No, how do you get to your work place?
On foot 1. Company vehicle 2.
- Public vehicle 3. Others, specify 4.
- 19. How long does it take you to get to your work place?
.....

20.

HOUSEHOLD COMPOSITION

	Name of Members	Relationship to Head	Age	Sex	Educational Level	Occupation
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						

TIME USE IN RELATION TO THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS

21. Do you normally set goals on what you want to do for the day?

Yes 1. No 2.

Explain fully:.....

22. How are the goals set?

Mentally 1. Written on paper 2.

23. Who decides on what is to be done by household members for the day?

24. Do you normally carry out the goals you set for yourself for the day? Yes 1. No 2.

Explain fully:.....
.....

25. Do you normally stop to find out whether your goals are being met or achieved? Yes 1. No 2.

Explain fully:.....
.....

26. Do you feel pressed for time as you carry out your daily activities? Yes 1. No 2.

Explain fully:.....
.....

27. Are you satisfied with what you accomplish in a day?

Yes 1. No 2.

Explain fully:.....
.....

28. Do you have the urge to accomplish more?

Yes 1. No 2.

Explain fully:.....
.....

29. What do you do when you are unable to accomplish what you have set out to do for the day?.....
.....

GENERAL PATTERN OF TIME USE

30. When do you get up in the morning?.....

31. List all your responsibilities; ie. all the things that you do or have to do each day?.....
.....

32. Are you able to accomplish all these responsibilities?

Yes 1. No 2.

Explain fully.....
.....
.....

33. How many meals do you cook a day?

One 1. Two 2. Three 3.

34. What activities do you engage in from the time you get up till the time children leave for school? (4a.m. - 7.30a.m.).....

.....
.....

35. What activities do you engage in from the time children leave for school till the time they return home? (7.30a.m. - 12.30p.m.).....

.....
.....
.....

36. What activities do you engage in when, children come back from school till the time supper is prepared? (12.30p.m. - 5.00p.m.)

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

37. When do you prepare supper?.....


.....
.....

38. When do you normally take supper?.....
.....
.....
39. What activities do you engage in after supper till you go to bed?
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
40. When do you go to bed?.....
.....
41. What activities do you engage in at week ends?.....

Saturday	Sunday

TIME SPENT ON VARIOUS ACTIVITIES AND BY WHOM

42. Who performs the following activities and how much time is spent on each activity?

Activities	Done By	Time Spent	Done on weekdays or weekends
<p>1. DOMESTIC/HOUSE WORK</p> <p>a. Cooking and serving meals:</p> <p> i. Breakfast</p> <p> ii. Lunch</p> <p> iii. Supper</p> <p>b. Cleaning & maintenance</p> <p>c. Dish washing</p> <p>d. Laundry work</p> <p>e. Sweeping rooms</p> <p>f. Sweeping compound</p> <p>g. Refuse disposal</p> <p>h. Mending/sewing clothes</p> <p>i. Child care</p> <p>j. Shopping:</p> <p> i. Food items</p> <p> ii. Clothes</p> <p> iii. Others</p> <p>k. Fetching water</p> <p>l. Fetching firewood</p> <p>m. Others, specify</p>			

Activities	Done By	Time Spent	Done on weekdays or weekends
<p>OCCUPATIONAL/ECONOMIC</p> <p>a. <u>Main work outside home</u></p> <p>b. <u>Supplementary jobs</u></p> <p>c. <u>Money earning activities inside the home</u></p> <p>d. Others (specify)</p> <p>SOCIAL ACTIVITIES</p> <p>a. Cultural ceremonies eg.</p> <p> i. Initiations</p> <p> ii. Festivals</p> <p> iii. Out-dooring</p> <p> iv. Others (specify)</p> <p>b. Visits to kin</p> <p>c. Kin meetings</p> <p>d. Funerals</p> <p>e. Communal work</p> <p>f. Societal meetings</p> <p>g. Helping others outside one's own household</p> <p>h. Others (specify)</p>			

Activities	Done By	Time Spent	Done on weekdays or weekends
<p>PERSONAL ACTIVITIES</p> <p>i. Essential activities: eg.</p> <p>a. Eating food</p> <p>b. Personal care and hygiene: - bathing and dressing up - care of nails - care of hair</p> <p>c. Rest</p> <p>d. Sleep</p> <p>e. Others (specify)</p> <p>ii. Recreational/leisure activities:</p> <p>a. Conversation with others</p> <p>b. Attending parties</p> <p>c. Indoor and outdoor games</p> <p>d. Singing (choir)</p> <p>e. Watching television/video</p> <p>f. Listening to music/radio</p> <p>g. Going to church/mosque</p> <p>h. Drinking pito/beer etc.</p> <p>i. Others (specify)</p>			

FACTORS THAT AFFECT THE USE OF TIME AMONG HOUSEHOLDS

43. What are some of the interruptions that affect the use of your time?

- | | | | |
|------------------|-----------------------------|----------|-----------------------------|
| Children | 1. <input type="checkbox"/> | Visitors | 2. <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Funerals | 3. <input type="checkbox"/> | Sickness | 4. <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Others (specify) | 5. <input type="checkbox"/> | | |

44a. List the activities that you dislike performing.....

.....
.....

b. Explain why you dislike them.....

.....
.....

45 a. What activities do you like performing best?.....

.....
.....

b. Explain why you like them

.....
.....

46. Do you have conflicts with regards to household time use?

Yes 1. No 2.

Explain:.....

.....
.....

47. What suggestions can you make to improve upon time management?

.....
.....

.....
.....

**TECHNIQUES/APPROACHES USED BY HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS
TO FACILITATE TIME MANAGEMENT**

48. What short-cuts do you find useful in saving time?
- | | | |
|---|----|--------------------------|
| Use of labour saving equipment | 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Work simplification ie. use of correct work methods | 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Making time for rest and leisure | 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Balancing work load | 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Division of work | 5. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Dovetailing | 6. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Developing time plans | 7. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Others (specify) | 8. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
49. What things do you consider as time wasting?
.....
50. What leisure activities do you engage in?
.....
.....
.....
.....
51. Do you have enough rest in a day?
Yes 1. No 2.
Explain fully:.....
.....
.....

HOUSING CHARACTERISTICS AND FACILITIES

52. What type of house do you live in?
- Self contained 1. Compound house 2.
Estate/low cost house 3. Traditional house 4.
Others, (specify) 5.
53. What type of floors do you have?
- Tiles 1. Terrazzo 2.
Mud 3. Cement 4.
Wood 5. Others, (specify) 6.
54. Do you have the following facilities in the home?
- Bathroom 1. Kitchen 2.
Toilet 3. Pipe water 4.
Electricity 5. Others, (specify) 6.

EQUIPMENT USED IN HOUSEHOLD WORK

55. What type of stove do you use?
- Electric cooker/stove 1.
Gas cooker/stove 2.
Kerosene stove 3.
Tripod/mud stove 4.
Coal pot 5.
Others, (specify) 6.
56. What equipment do you use for the following house work?
- a Washing dishes.....
.....
.....
- b. Cleaning floors.....
.....
.....
- c. Laundry work.....
- d. Storing food.....

57. What labour saving devices do you use for housework?

.....

.....

.....

HUSBANDS

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Name.....Age:.....
2. Home town;.....
3. Number of wives:.....
4. Educational level:

Never been to school	1. <input type="checkbox"/>
Elementary education	2. <input type="checkbox"/>
Secondary education	3. <input type="checkbox"/>
Vocational/Commercial	4. <input type="checkbox"/>
Post secondary education	5. <input type="checkbox"/>
University education	6. <input type="checkbox"/>
5. What do you do for income?
 - a. Primary occupation.....
 - b. Where do you do this work?

Outside the home	1. <input type="checkbox"/>
At home	2. <input type="checkbox"/>
 - c. If outside the home when do you leave for work?.....
.....
 - d. When do you return from work?.....
.....
6. What supplementary jobs do you have in addition to your main job?.....
7. How much time do you spend on your supplementary job?
.....
8. When do you get up in the morning?.....
9. List all your responsibilities ie. all the things that you do or have to do each day:.....
.....
.....

10. When do you go to bed?.....
11. What assistance do you give to your wife in household work?
.....
12. What leisure activities do you engage in?.....
.....
13. What are some of the interruptions that affect your time use?.....
.....
14. What short cuts do you find useful in saving time?.....
.....
15. What things do you consider as time wasting?.....
.....
16. What activities do you like performing best?
.....
.....
Why do you like them?.....
17. What activities do you dislike performing?.....
.....
.....
Explain why you dislike them:.....
.....
18. Do you have any conflicts with regards to household time use?
Yes 1. No 2.
Explain;.....
.....

APPENDIX 2**Mean Time Spent by Household Members on Specific Domestic Activities**

ACTIVITIES	MEAN TIME (MIN).	FREQUENCY	STD. DEV.
Cooking	57.2	Daily	8.67
Cleaning	49.2	Daily	3.53
Washing Dishes	30.0	Daily	-
Laundry	53.2	Weekly	5.07
Sweeping Rooms	30.0	Daily	-
Refuse Disposal	30.0	Daily	-
Mending/Sewing	56.0	When necessary	8.71
Child Care	120.5	Daily	12.76
Marketing	80.2	Weekly	8.27
Fetching Water	58.0	Every other day (when pipes are opened)	2.87
Fetching Firewood	110.4	Weekly	12.56

APPENDIX 3

Occupational/Economic Activities

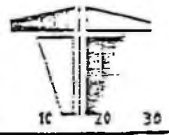
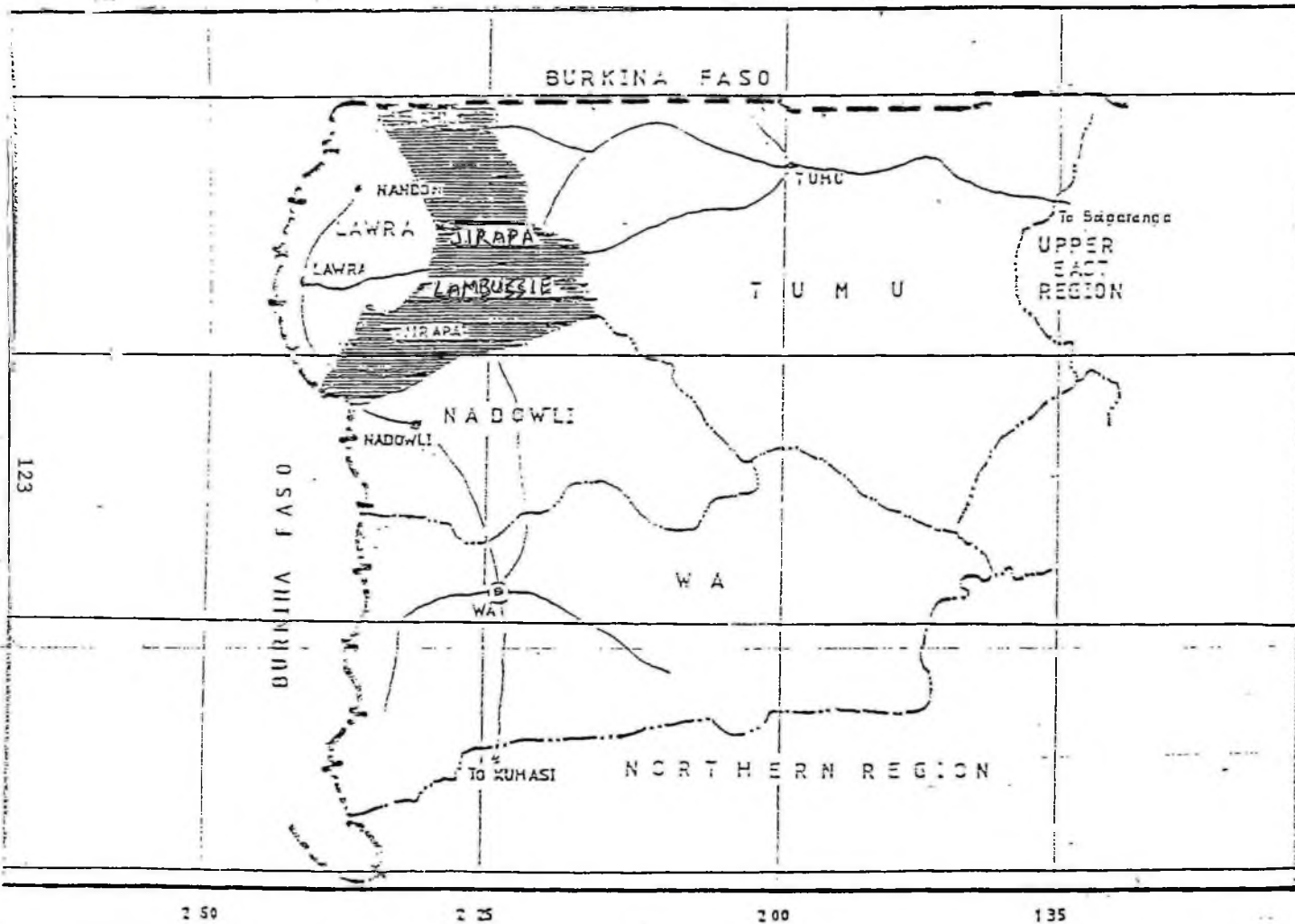
ACTIVITIES	MEAN TIME (HRS)	FREQUENCY	STD. DEV.
Main Work	6.38	Daily	1.86
Supplementary Jobs	4.26	Weekly	2.57

APPENDIX 4**Mean Time Spent by Household Members on Specific Social Activities**








ACTIVITIES	MEAN TIME (HRS)	FREQUENCY	STD. DEV.
Cultural Ceremonies	3.16	Yearly	1.51
Visit To Kin	3.34	When Necessary	1.18
Kin Meetings	2.45	When Necessary	2.01
Funerals	28.01	When they Occur	14.36
Communal Work	2.15	Occasionally	1.89
Societal Work	4.03	Monthly	2.24
Helping Others Outside the Home	2.02	When Necessary	1.68

APPENDIX 5**Mean Time Spent by Homemakers on Personal Activities**

ACTIVITIES	MEAN TIME (MINS)	FREQUENCY	STD. DEV.
Eating Food	30.0	Daily	-
Personal Hygiene:			
- Bathing & Dressing Up	30.0	Daily	-
- Care Of Nails	15.0	When Necessary	-
- Care Of Hair	45.0	Weekly	-
Rest	30.0	When Necessary	12.52
Sleep	433 (7 Hrs.)	Daily	38.21
Recreation/Leisure	100.8	Daily	30.00
Conversation			
Attend Party	90.4	Occasionally	20.11
Indoor/Outdoor Games	60.5	Occasionally	15.20
Choir Practice	90.6	Weekly	9.21
Watching T.V.	45.0	Daily	15.12
Going To Church	124 (2 Hrs.)	Weekly	25.10
Going To Mosque	90.0	Weekly	10.05
Drinking Pito/Beer	30.0	Occasionally	

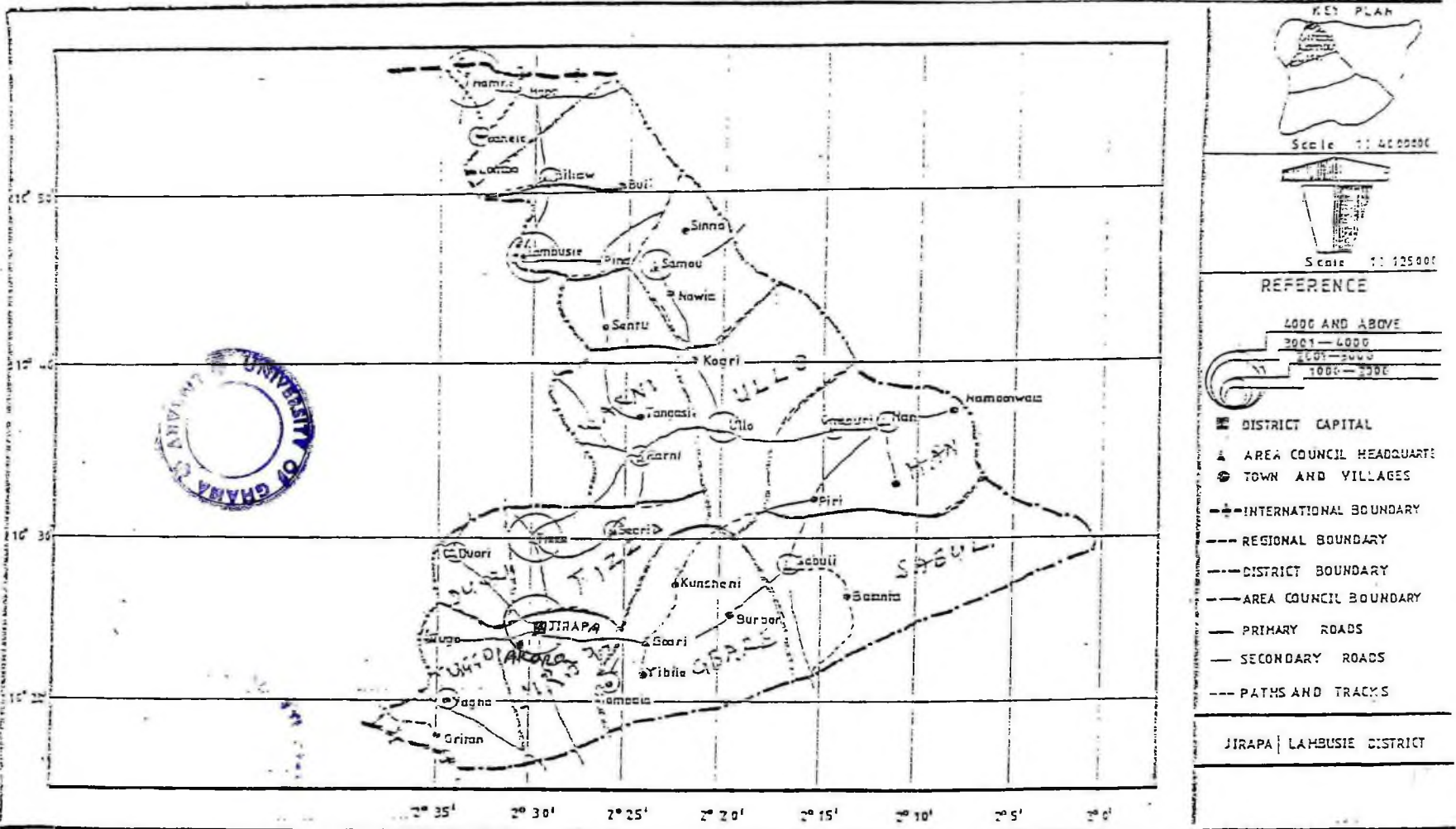


REFERENCE

-  JIRAPA/LAMBUSIE DISTRICT
-  International Boundary
-  Regional Boundary
-  District Boundary
-  Regional Capital
-  District Capital
-  Main Roads

MAP OF UPPER WEST REGION SHOWING THE JIRAPA/LAMBUSIE DISTRICT

DISTRICT PLANNING
AND
COORDINATING UNIT



MAP OF JIRAPA/LAMBUSIE DISTRICT SHOWING THE STUDY AREAS

DISTRICT PLANNING
AND
CO-ORDINATING UNIT