

Time Management: An Insight with Indian Perspective

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Abstract

Human beings have made this world a glorious place to live in at the cost of indulging himself without the least restraint in a world haunted by the twin demons of speed and complexity. Faced with ever increasing demands on the limited time at his disposal, modern man sitting amidst a mountain of wealth and prosperity lives a life of worry, anxiety and dissatisfaction and often looks towards management gurus for solutions. Through this study, the researchers aim to gain deep understanding and insights into time- management and self- management, fascinating interplay between them and the broader Indian perspective on self-management. These aspects of self management and self- development have long been pointed out and highlighted by Indian scriptures and great spiritual masters. Moreover, our Indian Vedanta provides an exhaustive science of effective living by focusing on these aspects in subtle manner. It helps us to understand ourselves and the world.

Introduction

With the greater impact of rapid changes in globalization and internationalization of economic processes on organization performance, the importance of management efficiency for organization's performance in modern society becomes obvious. Moreover, the managers' performance quality is largely responsible for the success of these processes. However, all these management efficiency issues are tightly connected with their "time management". In recent years, increased autonomy and responsibility at work coupled with increased pressure to carry out organizational activities has considerably affected life at the workplace. As a habit, procrastination constitutes part of a vicious cycle that increases time pressure. Even when employees are under pressure at work, they procrastinate. Such, 'pressure at work' has led to expressions like *time famine* (Perlow, 1999) which points out the feeling of having too much to do when time to do it is not enough at all. Given the realities of the profession, 'time management' is identified as a major problem and thus its relevance to executives, professionals and employees in general, could be well estimated.

During the last two decades, 'time management' has received increasing research interest (Claessens et al., 2007) as there has been a growing recognition of the importance of time in

the organizational contexts in all aspects. Many people suffer from time pressure and an increasingly fast pace of life and experience time management problems (Weissberg et al., 1982; McConalogue, 1984; Hawkins & Klas, 1997; Teuchmann et al., 1999; Major et al., 2002). Because of expanding global competition, increasing speed of telecommunications, and pressure to get one's services and products to market, temporal issues are becoming more and more important at work (Orlikowsky & Yates, 2002). Moreover in work contexts itself, just-in-time production systems (Jackson & Martin, 1996; Garhammer, 2002) and expressions like *time famine* (Perlow, 1999) illustrate current concerns of many employees to keep their deadlines and to deal with a growing workload. As many people experience time management problems, and suffer from interruptions, time pressure, faster changes at work, increasing job demands and an increasingly fast pace of life (e.g., Weissberg et al., 1982; McConalogue, 1984, Hawkins & Klas, 1997; Teuchmann et al., 1999; Garhammer, 2002; Major et al., 2002), the serious issue which emerges at this moment- "what can be done to deal with these challenges?" must be addressed well.

Now it has been duly realized that alongside with the employment of progressive work methods, arrangement of comfortable work place as well as work division and cooperation among the managers of various levels and functional areas, *rational distribution of work time* has become one of the important elements in manager's work. Perhaps it is the only reason behind so much attention that has been recently devoted to the management of manager's work time and free time (White et al., 2003). In this context, Drucker (1997), Drago (2001), Hart-Hester (2003), White et al. (2003), and many others have analysed different aspects of manager's work time. Basically, time management problems are common for many people (Weissberg et al., 1982; McConalogue, 1984; Hawkins & Klas, 1997) and, not surprisingly, there is a large market for time management self-help books (e.g., Mackenzie, 1997; Seiwert, 2001). Now a days, people across all walks of life are tempted to see and go through time management literature. Actually, research on 'time management' has been scarce, and researchers have focused mainly on individual differences (e.g., Jex & Elacqua, 1999; Claessens, van Eerde, Rutte & Roe, 2004) or time-management training (e.g., van Eerde, 2003; Green & Skinner, 2005). Little has been done so far on the dynamics of the time management and the underlying causes behind the *time famine*. Interestingly, 'time management' contains one great paradox: No one has enough time- yet everyone has all there is. This paradox drives home the point that 'time' is not the problem; the problem is 'how one utilizes the time'.

A Point to Look Upon

The ways in which business organizations operate have been observed by many scholars and management gurus. Bennett (1910), an early writer on 'time management', provided practical advice on how one might *live* (as opposed to just *existing*) within the confines of 24

hours a day in his larger work entitled "*How to Live on 24 Hours a Day*". He urged the large growing number of white-collar workers to seize their extra time and make the most of it to improve themselves. He prescribed improvement measures such as reading great literature, taking an interest in the arts, reflecting on life and learning self-discipline that could be carried out during an extra time which could be found at the beginning of the day, by waking up early, and on the ride to work, on the way home from work, in the evening hours, and especially during the weekends. Regarding time as the most precious commodity, he further added that the old adage "Time is money" understates the matter, as time can often produce money, but money cannot produce more time. Considering time as extremely limited, Bennett (1910) urged people to make the best use of the time available with them in their lives. Parkinson (1955) formulated the well-known *Parkinson's Law* in *The Economist* as the first sentence of a humorous essay, one version of which states,

Work expands so as to fill the time available for its completion.

Parkinson's simple and humorous observation is an undeniable and stark truth today. Simply working for long and longer hours is not a way to cope with the ever increasing complexities of life and work. Time, as a resource, is limited. Each of us has only 24 hours a day! Drucker (1967) observes that time as a resource has three important characteristics. *First*, everything requires time. Whatever we do or say or think, requires time. Therefore, 'time' is the universal resource. *Second*, time is irreplaceable i.e., it has no substitute. Most economic resources have some substitutes, some more than others. As example we can easily substitute saccharine for sugar, machines for labour, and many artificial products for natural substances and so on. But there is no such substitute for time. *Third*, the supply of time is truly limited. No matter how great the demand for time, the supply will not increase. Yesterday's supply was twenty-four hours and those twenty-four hours are gone forever. However, here Henry Ford pointed out that time waste differs from material waste in that there can be no salvage. One cannot manufacture, mine or harvest time. In the language of economics, "the supply of time" is completely 'inelastic'. So, in this context, the relevance of time and its management to all could be well estimated. The aim of this article is to investigate and analyze factors influencing managers' time management, and gain deep understanding and insights into it with Indian perspective.

Time- Management: Making the Best Use of Time

Time management has been viewed and analysed from different perspectives by various researchers. The *first* step in using time more efficiently is to become aware of what wastes time. For improving time management in the workplace, one must safeguard one's peak performance time, learn to say "No", prioritize tasks kept for a day, delegate the work, consolidate and streamline tasks, and stop procrastinating (i.e. time wasting activities need

to be eliminated). Additionally, if a job entails a variety of tasks, scheduling the week ahead helps keep it on track. According to Lakein (1973), time management involves determining needs, setting goals to achieve the needs, prioritizing the tasks required, matching tasks to time and resources through planning, scheduling and making lists, and keeping to the schedule.

Considering some unusual characteristics of time, Porter (1978) pointed out three principles of time management: (i) Know where your time is being spent. (ii) Make a time diagnosis and determine those activities that are essential to your job, those that may not be essential and may be eliminated, those things you can do more effectively and those activities that you can delegate. (iii) Plan your time to include setting aside sufficient blocks of time to do effectively those things you have planned. Peter Drucker (1966) in his book '*The Effective Executive*', states this: "Effective executives, in my observation, do not start with their tasks. They start with their time. And they do not start out with planning. They start by finding out where their time actually goes. Then they attempt to manage their time and to cut back unproductive demands on their time. Finally they consolidate their 'discretionary' time into the largest possible continuing units." Drucker (1966) pointed out that time management is based on the assumption that recording, managing, and consolidating time may help a person deal efficiently with his or her time. According to Gonzalez (1987), "the object of time management is using time effectively. This objective must be achieved by managing interruptions, controlling crises, and practicing prevention. Although our time is affected by those around us, we alone can control what we do with our time. Crises must be controlled and interruptions must be managed to minimize the impact of those things that are beyond our control." Mackenzie (1974) elaborated on time management strategy made up of a combination of 20 tactics or principles, some of the prominent are: time analysis, anticipation, planning, flexibility, objective and priority setting, imposition of deadlines and exercise of self-discipline, generation of viable alternative solutions, consolidation, concentration of effort, delegation, control of interruptions, periodic feedback, brevity, maintenance of visibility of things or tasks, and minimization of routine tasks of low value and selective avoidance of information of low value.

Stripling (1986) elaborated on time management techniques with a two-step process: (1) set personal goals and (2) eliminate time wasters. The important first step in time management is to set goals, with a plan of action and deadlines for each. The second step in time management is to eliminate or reorganize tasks that cause you to waste time. You encounter time wasters every day. Some cause the routine, immediate tasks to fill your day, others deprive you of time to work on your long-range goals. Identify what wastes your time and begin work on one immediate and one long-range time waster. As you succeed in eliminating or modifying those, pick others, until you have eliminated your worst time wasters in both categories. Topper (2003) pointed out that while we can't control what is

happening nationally, we can gain some control in the workplace by effectively managing our time. For managing time effectively, she advised to (i) overcome procrastination, (ii) keep office visitors from over staying their welcome, (iii) do best work in the hour of one's biological peak times and schedule difficult tasks accordingly, (iv) plan regular and uninterrupted hours i.e. "quiet time" to work on complex projects, (v) save the last five minutes of one's day to review "to-do list", and finally, (vi) reward oneself for achieving each step toward a goal.

Basically, 'time management' is not about time per se; it is about our lives, what we do with the time given to us. Those who generally complain of the lack of time are, usually, people who make the worst use of time. They really need to look upon this subtlest aspect of managing and making effective use of time. Franklin (1986) coined the phrase 'time is money' and emphasized the importance of planning and priorities. In this context, he narrated eloquently, "If one wants to enjoy one of the greatest luxuries in life, the luxury of having enough time, time to rest, time to think things through, time to get things done and know if one has done them to the best of one's ability, remember there is only one way. *Take enough time to think and plan things in the order of their importance.* Life will take on a new zest, and it will add years to one's life and more life to one's years. *Let all things have their places*". Moreover, according to Drucker (1967), the major problem is fundamentally the confusion between effectiveness and efficiency which stands between doing the right things and doing things right. He pointed out that there is surely nothing quite so useless as doing with greater efficiency what should not be done at all. Morano (1978) - Successful managers are those who use their time on the high- priority items that will bring them the biggest pay back. The unsuccessful managers are those who typically get mired down in meaningless detail or issues outside the organization's main objectives.

Time Management: Does it pay?

Studies carried out by Macan (1994), and Barling et al. (1996) pointed out that effective time management is clearly a factor in job performance and this way it contributes to an organization's profitability. On the other hand, poor time management has been associated with high stress and strain (e.g. Macan et al., 1990; Schuler, 1979; Lang, 1992; Jex & Elacqua, 1999), emotional exhaustion (e.g. Peeters & Rutte, 2005), and health issues (e.g. Bond & Feather, 1988). Weldon, Jehn and Pradhan (1991) and Janicik & Bartel (2003) found that engaging in time management, particularly planning behaviors, can also contribute positively to group performance. Effective time management in the workplace increases productivity, helps institution meet its goals, and promotes teamwork. Time management training can reduce procrastination and worry (van Eerde, 2003) and use of time management techniques is correlated with job performance and satisfaction (Claessens et al., 2004). Works of Bond and Feather (1988), Nonis and Sager (2003), and Peeters and

Rutte (2005) found the direct impact of time management behavior on well-being. Nonis and Sager (2003) reported significant correlations between (a) goal setting, prioritizing, and the use of time-related mechanics as different aspects of time management behavior and (b) emotional exhaustion of salespeople. Kelly (2003) showed a contrary result that time management behavior was unrelated to worry in a student sample. Macan et al. (1990), Britton and Tesser (1991), Conte (1996), and Nonis and Sager (2003) explored the direct impact of time management behavior on employees' performance. Overall, results of these studies indicated positive effects of time management behavior on performance.

How does it work? While proposing a process model of time management, Macan (1994) indicated that the relation between time management and outcomes such as tension, performance, and job satisfaction is mediated by the control of time. That is, time management is not a direct antecedent of performance but it may help a person to experience structure and to obtain feelings of control, which eventually would affect performance and satisfaction positively and reduce *tension* and *stress reactions*. However, as hypothesized, Hafner and Stock (2010) found that time management training led to an increase in perceived control of time and a decrease in perceived stress whereas it had no impact on different performance indicators.

The Time-Management Matrix by Covey

The most successful and well-known modern writer on this subject of time management is Stephen R. Covey. In his enormously popular book, *The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People*, Covey (1989) advocates a comprehensive system of personal development in which time management is talked of as playing a central role. Here, Covey has presented a time management matrix. It is not enough to be busy. We must ask ourselves: *what* are we busy about? This is the question the time management matrix answers.

| | Urgent | Not Urgent |
|---------------|--|---|
| Important | Quadrant I ACTIVITIES Crises Pressing problems Deadline- driven projects | Quadrant II ACTIVITIES Prevention, PC Activities Relationship building Recognizing new pportunities Planning, recreation |
| Not Important | Quadrant III ACTIVITIES Interruptions, some calls Some mail, some reports Some meetings Proximate, pressing matters Popular activities | Quadrant IV ACTIVITIES Trivia, busy work Some mail Some phone calls Time wasters Pleasant activities |

Fig.1 The Time Management Matrix (Covey, 1989)

Source: The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People by Covey (1989)

As part of the fourth generation of management, Covey (1989) diagrammed time management matrix. As per this matrix, we spend time in one of the four ways. According to him, an activity can be defined in terms of two factors: *urgent* and *important*. *Urgent* means it's "Now!" and it requires immediate attention. Urgent things act on us. Urgent matters are usually visible, they press on us, they insist on action, and they're usually right in front of us. Often they are popular with others, and they are pleasant, easy, and fun to do. But so often they are unimportant! *Importance*, on the other hand, has to do with results. If something is important, it contributes to your mission, your values, your high priority goals.

We generally *react* to urgent matters. Important matters that are not urgent require more initiative, more proactivity. We must *act* to seize opportunity, to make things happen. Four kinds of activities come into consideration on the basis of these two factors- urgent and important.

In Quadrant I, we have all those activities that are both important and urgent, like crisis, deadlines and emergencies.

In Quadrant II, we put everything that is important but not urgent, such as self-development issues like physical exercises, learning and meditation. These activities are most closely linked to your ultimate values and goals in life, but are often also most ignored.

Quadrant III contains urgent but not important activities like certain meetings, most phone calls, interruptions and so on. These are not really relevant to our values and goals but even so, they have to be dealt with as they arise.

And then some people waste time doing things neither urgent nor important. Gossiping, aimless internet browsing, playing video games or reading newspapers—all such time wasters are in Quadrant IV. Morano (1978) pointed out that biggest time wasters are interruptions, inefficient meetings, indecisiveness, fear of being wrong or embarrassed, fire fighting, ineffective delegation, and wrong emphasis on priorities. Managers generally spend time on tasks disproportionately to their value.

Real personal growth comes by concentrating maximum time and energy in Quadrant II activities ('Important but Not Urgent'). Unfortunately, Quadrants I, III and IV consumes your time and energy leaving little time and scope for quadrant II activities. The only way one can get time and energy for doing the important and fulfilling Quadrant II activities is by reducing the other quadrants. The crisis in **Quadrant I** have to be faced and hence one cannot reduce this area immediately. According to Gonzalez (1987), despite efforts in planning and controlling time, unexpected crises arise which must be 'controlled'. A tremendous amount of energy is expended in dealing with even a minor crisis. Allocate time to think about a problem and channel your energy to find solutions by developing and

maintaining a plan of action to deal with the crisis in stride.

Looking at Quadrant III, Gonzalez (1987) stated that minor interruptions can be time-consuming if interruptions are not kept in perspective and the cause of the interruption is not dealt with immediately. When interrupted, you must set a time limit and stick with it as much as possible. When people ask for a minute, tell them that they can have five, but not more. Recognizing that a certain diplomacy is necessary in an office environment, you must explain them about your other priorities, avoid showing annoyance, and give the interrupter your undivided attention. This leads the interrupter to get to the point immediately. Some managers tend to use interruptions as an excuse to procrastinate. You cannot react to interruptions by complaining or taking a break. It is important to get back on track after interruptions and not lose the momentum built before the interruption. One has to look to Quadrants III and IV, try to extract the time sucked into activities which are only apparently useful or those which are plainly useless, and manage such interruptions. The matrix points out towards distinguishing between importance and urgency. *Markovitz (2011) stated that one of the organizational root cause behind waste of time is lack of differentiation between levels of urgency. In the same context, van Eerde (2003) indicated that time management training consists of two basic steps that resemble the two phases of goal setting and goal striving. Firstly, the individual is encouraged to identify routines and habits, and develop an increased awareness of which goals are personally valuable and of how he or she currently uses time to attain these goals. Secondly, the person is guided to prioritize these goals, plan out how to attain them, and self-monitor the use of time. Often urgency masquerades as importance. Once one identifies and isolates important activities (those which are truly relevant to one's ultimate goals and values in life), one has to devote more and more time to them.*

Quadrant II highlights the importance of planning or organizing and practising prevention. With the many demands facing each of us, it is easy to throw up our hands and say, "I just don't have the time!" The question really is not whether you have enough time, but how you will spend the time you already have. You must learn to: diagnose time, arrange all tasks, and implement a plan to complete tasks on a timely basis. According to Gonzalez (1987), it is difficult to manage time effectively without establishing your own strategic defense initiative screen. By organizing your office, you can communicate subliminally that your office is a functional workplace, not a hangout. Moreover, in performing one's job, plan your schedule carefully to prevent wasted time. According to Morano (1978) in organizational context, perhaps one of the most misunderstood practices in time management is delegation. Delegation does not mean giving subordinates those assignments that we consider distasteful or not of any real significance. Rather, meaningful delegation of responsibility provides an opportunity for subordinates to grow in their jobs and gain greater satisfaction, while at the same time freeing the manager to tackle other important issues. This implies that

a manager must maintain a dialogue with his or her subordinates, and must be aware of their competencies and skills, so that they can readily take on the delegated assignments. Moreover, Morano (1978) pointed out the reason why managers' priorities are not consistent with their objectives and plans is that their goals are not clearly defined. For managers to make the best use of their time, they must have clear-cut organizational goals, as well as life goals. Without this kind of goal-setting and planning, managers' time becomes nothing more than isolated behavior without direction.

As part of time management practices, Morano (1978) also stated that managers must keep a daily log of their time for a week or two to determine how they, indeed, spend their time. In this way they can isolate their time wasters: Anything from drop-in visitors and telephone interruptions to procrastination should be logged. Moreover, managers should define what short term and long-range goals they are trying to attain. On a daily basis they should list the activities needed to accomplish those aims so they will be in a better position to reveal any efforts that don't lead in that direction. For listing those relevant daily activities, any commercial appointment book could be suitable. Effective time management is not a preoccupation with time urgency or with efficiently maintaining an appointment book, it calls for applying one's time intelligently in the accomplishment of the organization's goals (Morano, 1978). Once managers are receptive to changing their time-management practices and the organization backs them, they can take the practical measures that have a good chance of enhancing effective time management.

Just a moment!

But here arises another problem. Even after identifying your Quadrant II and resolving to concentrate there, one finds her/ himself unable to find the motivation to follow through. Now a days, time management classes, books, websites, and tools are multiplying like rabbits in a meadow. People are devoting more and more time to training and adoption of new techniques and in the end, they find nothing conclusive and substantial. The fact is that time management training is stunningly ineffective. Unfortunately time management tools do not make people more organized or productive any more than to give them a hammer and saw in order to turn them carpenters. English (1989) stated that many popular time-management ideas are simply not realistic. Keeping “to do” lists and pasting little yellow stick-ums all over the place are often found ineffective. The simplest reason behind this is “habituation,” the process whereby people have a lessening sensitivity to stimuli. Why do we lose the flavor of food after a few bites? Our taste receptors get used to it! Why is the bed at home more comfortable than the one in the hotel that costs much? Because we are used to the lumps. Why do we fail to notice the lists and reminders? As we “habituate” ourselves to them as part of the regular environment, we simply forget to notice them.

Although, many self-help books about time management have been written in the last few decades (e.g., McCay, 1959; Lakein, 1989; Mackenzie, 1997; Luecke, 2005), and time management training programs are widely applied in the working context with the aim to gain more control over time, but surprisingly, little research has been conducted in this field (Claessens et al.2007). So far, few intervention studies have examined the effects of time management training courses on well-being and performance. But all these studies have failed to arrive at the root of the issue. Commonly there are some people who follow a fixed schedule almost effortlessly while many others are quite unable to stick to a schedule of self improvement for long. They may start off with all determination to exercise regularly, or learn new subjects, or meditate, but soon distractions come and the pressures of Quadrants I and III and the temptations of Quadrant IV sidetrack them. Why does it happen? In this context, Fischer (2001), Koch and Kleinmann (2002), and O'Donoghue and Rabin (1999a) stated that people choose to work on tasks that yield the highest utility. That is, they maximize the expected utility. However, it is not always obvious which tasks yield the highest utility. This implies an inter-temporal conflict between the smaller but sooner and larger but later time-use options. Economists and psychologists have studied how people generally solve inter-temporal conflicts in settings other than time management (Loewenstein, 1992; Soman et al., 2005). Rachlin, Raineri and Cross (1991) found that people often prefer an SS (the *smaller-sooner*) outcome over an LL (the *larger-later*) outcome. From such findings, behavioral decision theorists deduce that people steeply discount future outcomes and attribute less value to options that are available only in the future than to options that are available immediately. Instead of maximizing the expected utility, they maximize the expected discounted utility.

Behavioral decision theory indicated that people discount future outcomes to time management. While applying this fact, O'Donoghue and Rabin (1999a), Fischer (2001) and Koch and Kleinmann (2002) argued that, if future outcomes are discounted, people may use their time for sooner outcomes if these outcomes are smaller than other outcomes, as the latter will be experienced only in the distant future. That is, people favor urgent but unimportant tasks over important but non-urgent tasks in inter-temporal decision conflicts. Because of time discounting, immediate benefits and costs (e.g., explaining a task to a subordinate will take longer than doing the task oneself) have comparatively more weight than do future benefits and costs (e.g., explaining the task will enable the subordinate to do such tasks in the future). This point fits nicely with the *urgency addiction* described by self-help book author Stephen Covey (e.g., Covey, 1989; Covey, Merrill & Merrill, 1994) i.e. People do urgent but unimportant tasks and neglect important but non-urgent tasks. In his book 'The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People', Covey (1989) aims to show people how to make decisions favoring important tasks so they can resist this urgency addiction.

The idea that people decide how to use their time on the basis of the discounted utility of

options is at the core of recent theoretical positions on time management in general (Koch & Kleinmann, 2002) and particularly on procrastination (e.g., O'Donoghue & Rabin, 1999a ; Fischer, 2001). According to O'Donoghue and Rabin (1999a), Fischer (2001), and Koch and Kleinmann (2002), people choose to work on tasks that yield the highest utility. Herein, researchers assumed that people think about what they will gain by working on 'Task a' or 'Task b', and if 'Task a' has a higher utility, they will more likely work on 'Task a' than on 'Task b'. That is, people maximize the expected utility. These researchers argued that inter-temporal conflicts between SS options and LL options are common in time management. On account of time discounting, people do not pay as much attention to tasks with a deadline in the distant future or with delayed benefits. As a result of this, tasks with a distant deadline or that do not have any deadline get neglected. König and Kleinmann (2007) while extending the works of economists and psychologists (Fischer, 1999, 2001; O'Donoghue & Rabin, 1999a, 1999b, 2000, 2001; Koch & Kleinmann, 2002, 2003) developed theoretical arguments about why time management is difficult for many people, and advocated that the lens of behavioral decision theory offer a new perspective for research on time management. This approach provides the basic idea that people discount future consequences of their time management decisions i.e. they work on tasks with smaller but sooner outcomes rather than on tasks with larger but later outcomes. Why does this happen? An intriguing psychological study of pre-school children could illustrate the deep perspective behind this.

Marshmallow Experiment: A Study on Self-Management

A very interesting experiment started in 1972 and thereafter carried by the eminent psychologist Walter Mischel (See Mischel et. al, 1990), and repeated in 2008 by Philip Zimbardo at Stanford University is popularly known as 'The marshmallow experiment'. In the 1960s, at the beginning of this experiment, a group of four-year-olds were given a marshmallow and promised another, only if they could wait 20 minutes before eating the first one. Some children waited while others did not. Mischel, Shoda and Peake (1990) then followed the progress of each child into adolescence and demonstrated that on the average, the children who did not eat the marshmallow and waited for the second one, did much better than the others in academics and in a variety of nonacademic areas as well. The ability to delay gratification seems to be the core of self-control and it was found to be significantly correlated with success in later life. The children with the ability to delay gratification displayed superior self-management skills in later life. They were the ones who completed their academic assignments, while their more impulsive friends postponed theirs. They were the ones who worked while others partied. They were the ones who were disciplined enough to learn and compete successfully in music, dance, art and sports while the others were not motivated enough. These boys and girls were seen by peers and adults as being more responsible, co-operative and mature.

Insight into Time Matrix and Marshmallow Experiment: Broader Indian Perspective

If we juxtapose the findings of Covey's time matrix and Mischel's Marshmallow test, a new understanding emerges. Moreover, equally unsurprising is the fact that the activities of Quadrants I, III and IV provide instant feedback (i.e. they all are very 'present' oriented). Marshmallow experiment and time management could be looked in the context of perceived control of time. Macan et al. (1990) introduced into time management research the variable *perceived control of time*, which is characterized by an employee's perception of having enough time to finish one's work and the ability to meet one's deadlines. To be able to keep plans and schedules in mind, to procrastinate little, and to experience a strong overall feeling that one has one's time in hand also constitute facets of this construct. Studies have examined perceived control of time as a predictor of job satisfaction, performance, and various indicators of well-being, such as tension, work strain, sorrow, pleasure, and health. Macan, Shahani, Dipboye and Phillips (1990), Macan (1994), Adams and Jex (1999), Claessens et al. (2004), and Schwable et al. (2009) found that perceived control of time is a meaningful predictor of job satisfaction and wellbeing and pointed out only weak correlations or even zero correlations with performance. Macan (1994), Adams and Jex (1999), Claessens et al. (2004) presented 'process models of time management', advocated perceived control of time as a mediator between time management behavior on the one hand and indicators of job satisfaction, well-being and performance on the other hand, and regarded perceived control of time an essential variable in time management research. Claessens et al. (2007) characterized time management behavior as a combination of time assessment, goal setting, planning, and monitoring activities. Findings of scientific experiments confirm most of the suppositions: Time management behavior is a predictor of perceived control of time, which at least partially mediates the relation between time management behavior and well-being as well as job satisfaction (Macan, 1994; Adams & Jex, 1999; Jex & Elacqua, 1999; Claessens, Van Eerde, Rutte & Roe, 2004). With process models of time management, Claessens, van Eerde, Rutte and Roe (2004) found weaker impact of perceived control of time on performance than that on job satisfaction and well-being whereas Macan (1994) didn't notice such impact at all. In nutshell, according to Macan (1994) and Claessens et al. (2004), the relations between (i) time management behavior as predictor variable and (ii) well-being and job satisfaction as outcome variables, mediated through perceived control of time, constitute the core of process models of time management. Basically, such models are driven by the rationale that time management behavior incorporates the clarification of goals; the reduction of goal conflicts; the development of appropriate strategies transforming goals into action; and an effective monitoring of goal progress, which ends with "a sense of mastery over how one allocates one's time" (Macan, 1994, p. 382). Now a days, it has been concluded that time management behavior is related to perceived control of time (Macan, 1994; Jex & Elacqua, 1999; Nonis & Sager, 2003; Pinneker, H'afner, Stock &

Oberst, 2009) and perceived control of time is related to well-being at work (Macan, Shahani, Dipboye & Phillips, 1990; Macan, 1994; Adams & Jex, 1999; Claessens, Van Erde, Rutte & Roe, 2004; Schwabe, H"afner, Stock & Hartmann, 2009).

While looking at the time matrix, it comes as no surprise that the self-development activities in Quadrant II are all future oriented and require the maximum delay of gratification, but also give the greatest benefits in the long run. That is, the children who displayed restraint and delayed gratification are likely to grow into adults who are good at self-management and make the effort required to concentrate on Quadrant II activities and consequently reap the greatest benefits in terms of self-development. Children who ate the marshmallow are likely to grow into adults who spend time in Quadrants I, III and IV activities postponing Quadrant II activities. To successfully follow any schedule, routine or time-management scheme, it requires delay in gratification, understanding of 'if-then causal links' i.e. self-management. In this sense, time management is self-management. According to Morano (1978), the way we manage out time is merely a reflection of our self- concept, of how we perceive the situation, of what our goals are. All these considerations inextricably woven together influence the way we use our time. Porter (1978) advocated the *four Cs related to self- and time management*, (i) *choice* i.e. having a tremendous array of possibilities, opportunities and ways to use time with different consequences in professional and personal lives; (ii) *Competition* i.e. as we live in a competitive world, hard work and productivity are required. We need to use our time effectively; (iii) *Commitment*: Remaining concerned about the vitality of our democratic institutions and our profession, having commitment of energy and time to keep us fully alive; and (iv) *Control*. Time is life, life is time; you waste your time, you waste your life; you control your time, you are in control of your life.

These aspects of self management and self- development have long been pointed out and highlighted by our scriptures and great spiritual masters. Moreover, our Indian Vedanta provides an exhaustive science of effective living by focusing on these aspects in subtle manner. It helps us to understand ourselves and the world. Chinmayananda (1990) explained that the world is nothing but a concrete objective projection of one's subjective feelings and thoughts. All scriptures indicate the path towards the development of the inner personality. Spiritual knowledge based on such scriptures and teachings of ancient spiritual masters prescribes certain eternal values of life for man to practise and live upto. The most fundamental of these eternal values are the three disciplines, namely, (i) *Brahmacharya* (Self- control), (ii) *Ahimsa* (Non- injury) and (iii) *Satyam* (Truthfulness), which are prescribed for regulation of our physical, mental and intellectual layers of personality respectively.

(i) *Brahmacharya* means living in self- control with respect to all our sense enjoyments and does not mean their total self denial. The world of objects is meant for us to enjoy and the

scriptures do not deny us the freedom to enjoy them. They merely advise us to be masters of our enjoyments and not allow them to dominate and enslave us. Moreover, Swami Vivekananda (1989), advocated self-restraint as a manifestation of greater power than all outgoing action. Self-control tends to produce a mighty will, a character which made a Christ or a Buddha.

(ii) The second discipline at the mental level, *Ahimsa* means non-injury. *Ahimsa* does not mean non-killing or non-injury at the physical level. Sometimes we may have to be cruel and injurious externally even though our heart behind our actions is full of love and kindness. It is, therefore, to be understood as a mental attitude to our relationship with others in life.

(iii) The third discipline is *Satyam* or truthfulness, a value of life to be lived at the intellectual plane. *Satyam* enjoins that one should live honestly according to one's own intellectual convictions. Every one of us has ideals of his own, but only a few live up to them. People are led to compromise with their ideals when temptations induce them and when they fall a prey to their senses. This is *asatyam* or dishonest living. The dignity of man lies in living upto his own convictions at all times. Chinmayananda (1992) pointed out that uncontrolled and excessive indulgence in sensual enjoyments causes dissipation of one's personality and leads to sorrow and misery. Hence, our ancient benefactors formulated certain basic regulations of self-restraint and discipline for gaining a more permanent joy out of our relationship with the world of objects. This consummation is achieved by the wondrous equipment of the *mind- and- intellect*. In order that one may maintain a healthy relationship with the world and not fall under the suzerainty of the exigencies of life, the maintenance of healthy and powerful *mind- and- intellect* is of utmost importance. This means that one's emotions must be chaste and one's intellectual discrimination be subtle and clear. The intellect faculty has to be sharpened. The structure and composition of the individual *mind- and- intellect* are founded upon his own *vasanas*, which primarily determine the type of reactions and responses emanating from his person. Thus, when our *vasanas* or tendencies are dynamic, our thoughts and actions are dynamic and productive but when they are dull and inert, our thoughts and actions are lifeless and unproductive. The entire personality reconstruction, which provides the solution to man's progress, peace and prosperity, therefore, rests on the development of proper innate tendencies. Religion provides for such development by holding a mirror up to our nature and educating us on the realities of things. Thus, by purifying and reforming the *vasanas*, the *mind- and- intellect* get properly tuned up and perfected and with such equipment one is well armed to face any challenge in the world and to emerge victorious and ride over it. Here, it could be concluded well that western and modern concepts of management like time management find their subtle basis or origin in Indian Vedanta in terms of self-control. However, many such keys to the management laws and principles need to be unfolded.....

Conclusion

At workplace, time management is considered as a crucial key to success in all aspects. When such skills are taught, implemented, and rewarded at a workplace, greater benefits in the areas of productivity, harmony and financial success get noticed. Basically, time management has been studied mainly with an individual-differences or training-evaluation strategy. Given the recent theoretical developments in this area within psychology and economics (e.g., O'Donoghue & Rabin, 1999a; Fischer, 2001; Koch & Kleinmann, 2002), more and more researchers have to carry out empirical and non-empirical time-management research with a focus on why some people consider time management to be a problem. Such research would enrich the time management literature. 'The management of time', when studied in the contexts of matrix given by Covey (1989) and Marshmallow experiment fail to indicate a substantial and conclusive result. The answers to all these lie in the fundamental spiritual values of *Brahmacharya* (Self-control), *Ahimsa* (Non-injury) and *Satyam* (Truthfulness) which lay the effective foundation for self management. These aspects of self management and self-development, that have long been highlighted in Indian Vedanta and pointed out by great spiritual masters provide a subtle basis for western and modern concepts of management like time management.

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