Time: An Empirical Analysis of Law Student Time Management Deficiencies

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TIME: AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF LAW STUDENT TIME MANAGEMENT DEFICIENCIES

Christine P. Bartholomew*

This Article begins the much needed research on law students’ time famine. Time management complaints start early in students’ legal education and generally go unresolved. As a result, practicing attorneys identify time famine as a leading cause of job dissatisfaction. To better arm graduating students, law schools must treat time as an essential component of practice-readiness. Unfortunately, most law schools ignore their students’ time management concerns, despite growing calls for greater “skills” training in legal education.

To date, legal scholarship has overlooked psychological research on time management. Yet, this research is an essential starting point to effective instruction. Rather than viewing time management as a singular concept, this research shows it is actually multi-dimensional, compromised of multiple time structure skills and behaviors. This more nuanced understanding of time management means each dimension can be isolated, measured, and remediated. Rather than a shotgun approach, law schools can tailor instruction to law students’ specific deficiencies.

To help identify these deficiencies, this Article presents a psychometric study of 1Ls—the first study to ever quantify law students’ time management problems. The study identifies five specific dimensions 1Ls lack: perceived control, present orientation, structured routine, goal setting, and mechanics. Using this information, the Article offers tailored advice on incorporating skills across the curriculum to help remedy these deficiencies. By learning foundational time management skills during law school, students have at least a fighting chance of managing time famine in practice.

* Assistant Professor of Skills, SUNY Buffalo School of Law. The author would like to thank David Fagundes, John Schlegel, Mark Bartholomew, Chris Pashler, David Engel, Ian Gallacher, Monica Wallace, and Barbara Sherk for their insightful feedback. Thanks also to the organizers and participants of the 2012 Law & Society Conference and the 2012 LWI Scholars’ Forum, where an early version of this Article was presented. Finally, special thanks to Jessica Su for helping analyze the statistical data and to my research assistants, Jacob Sonner and Nicholas Pulvino.
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I. INTRODUCTION

The plea for practical skills training in law school is reaching a fever pitch. Hardly a week passes without a new article bemoaning the state of legal education.1 While initial calls for reform came primarily from the bench and the bar,2 now educators and students are joining the


2. Maureen Amigo, Hierarchy Maintained: Status and Gender Issues in Legal Writing
chorus for more skills education. Learning to “think like a lawyer” is no longer enough: students want better preparation for the tasks associated with practice. To ensure more than lip service to teaching practice-readiness, the push for skills is coupled with a push towards implementing outcome assessments aimed at evaluating how effectively law schools teach.

To some degree, legal education is taking this plea seriously and altering legal education accordingly. On July 6, 2012, the American Bar Association (ABA) issued an executive summary of its law school curricula. The survey noted, law schools “are engaged in efforts to review and revise their curriculum to produce practice ready professionals.” Some of the changes were voluntary while others have been forced on schools. Yet, change, marginal as it may be, is beginning. Schools are expanding their clinical offerings, expanding


4. The use of assessments in education is hardly a new idea. Undergraduate institutes have been using them for over twenty-five years. See Gregory S. Munro, Outcomes Assessment for Law Schools, 28 INST. L. SCH. TEACHING 21, 22 (2000). But the push for assessments in law school is still in its infancy. The American Bar Association is still in the midst of fleshing out the perimeters for the use of assessments in law schools. In July 2008, the ABA issued a report arguing that accreditation standards should be reframed to focus more on outcome measures. ABA Section of Legal Educ. and Admissions to the Bar, Report of the Outcome Measures Committee 54 (2008) [hereinafter OUTCOME MEASURES]. Subsequently, the ABA issued draft Standards aimed at ensuring accreditation was tied to ensuring students met learning goals. For a thorough discussion of the ABA’s efforts to reform accreditation by requiring assessments, see generally Victoria L. Van Zandt, Creating Assessment Plans for Introductory Legal Research & Writing Courses, 16 LEGAL WRITING: J. LEGAL WRITING INST. 313–17 (2010).


6. Id. at 14.

7. See, e.g., id. (discussing how some of the curricular changes stemmed from the changing job market and responses to the MacCrate Report, EDUCATING LAWYERS, AND BEST PRACTICES); AM. B. ASS’N, 2011–12 STANDARDS AND RULES OF PROCEDURE FOR APPROVAL OF LAW SCHOOLS 20 (2011) (modifying Rule 302’s skills training requirement); Jennifer S. Bard, “Practicing Medicine and Studying Law:” How Medical Schools Used to Have the Same Problems We Do and What We Can Learn from Their Efforts to Solve Them, 10 SEATTLE J. SOC. JUST. 135, 137–38 (2012) (“[T]he current efforts to add skills training are in direct response to the American Bar Association’s amendment of its standards for review to mandate that every student be required to have skills training beyond the first year.”); Daniel Thies, Rethinking Legal Education in Hard Times: the Recession, Practical Legal Education, and the New Job Market, 59 J. LEGAL EDUC. 598, 599 (2010) (discussing how the recession is forcing change in legal education); Judith Welch Wagner, Response: More Complicated than We Think, 59 J. LEGAL EDUC. 622, 623–33 (2010); Editorial, Legal Education Reform, N.Y. TIMES, Nov. 26, 2011, at A18 (discussing educational changes stemming from economic downturn).

8. See, e.g., Kerry Sloan, ABA: Law Schools Getting the Message on Practical Skills, NAT’L L.
their practical skills classes, and adding problem solving courses.\textsuperscript{9}

Although these advances should be praised, they are only the beginning. In determining what more is needed, the first step must be identifying the skills new attorneys most crave. Across the field, attorneys are complaining of time famine.\textsuperscript{10} Time famine, the feeling that there is never enough time for everything,\textsuperscript{11} is hardly a new problem. The need for time management instruction has long been recognized. In the groundbreaking 1992 MacCrate report, time management was identified as a key area for further instruction.\textsuperscript{12} The ABA has repeatedly echoed the need for time management training.\textsuperscript{13} Increased billing demands in practice have exacerbated the problem, making time management instruction more essential than ever.

Yet despite this clear need, the legal academy’s response to practitioners’ complaints of time famine has largely been silence. Most of the time, management training for lawyers comes from practitioner trade journals\textsuperscript{14} and even regular newspaper articles.\textsuperscript{15} Lawyers are
already often too far behind to receive time management training only after graduation. This makes finding the time to identify and remediate problems virtually impossible.

Starting time management training early helps law students to survive and thrive both in school and after graduation. But only a handful of law schools specifically incorporate time management into their orientation programs. To date, there has been little effort to educate the law school community on what time management really is, let alone how to solve the time famine problem. This has left a clear gap in legal education’s attempt to provide essential legal skills. A full understanding of time management is essential to teaching this skill in a way that can be measured using outcome assessments.

This Article begins to fill that gap by providing a thorough analysis of time management, as well as identifying law students’ specific deficiencies. To determine these deficiencies, I performed a study on SUNY Buffalo Law School students using two psychometric instruments. The empirical data from these tests, coupled with qualitative information on law students’ time management behaviors, set the groundwork for proposed solutions. Based on this information, the Article explores ways to remedy time famine suffered by law students and arm them for the demands of practice.

Part II of the Article explores the causes of the time crunch in legal education and practice. Part III looks at a potential solution to the time famine problem.


16. For example, both New York University and Villanova offering time management as part of the curriculum for law students. See VILLANOVA UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF LAW, http://www.law.villanova.edu/Current%20Students/ Academic%20Success/Time%20Management.aspx (last visited Feb. 1, 2013) (webpage of course offerings); NYU LAW, https://its.law.nyu.edu/eventcalendar/index.cfm?useAction=mainDetail&ida=18074&returnUrl=index.cfm%3Ffluseaction%3Dmain%26currentDate%3D2012%2F2011%26view%3Dday%26mode%3Dlist%26key%3D%26category%3D%26sponsor%3D%26audience%3D%26startMonth%3D%26startDay%3D%26startYear%3D%26endMonth%3D%26endDay%3D%26endYear%3D%26cycle%3D (last visited Feb. 1, 2013) (describing NYU4U: Time Management & the Law Student). Additionally, based in part on my research on the topic, SUNY Buffalo School of Law now includes time management training as part of 1Ls’ mandatory orientation.

17. While law school action has been minimal, the ABA has explicitly identified time management as an essential skill law schools should add to the curriculum. See MacCrator Report, supra note 3, at 331–32.
crunch: time management. This Part analyzes the evolution of time management research, including how current psychological research proves this concept is multidimensional. This Part continues with a discussion of how to quantify each dimension. Part IV analyzes the results of a 1L assessment using the research discussed in the prior Part and identifies the five time management skills law students most lack. Part V discusses who should be responsible for providing time management instruction, as well as specifically tailored, measurable teaching methods to help students build these skills. Catching and remediating time problems early in legal education should help future attorneys develop a foundational basis in time management, which is essential to academic and career success.

II. THE LEGAL TIME CRUNCH: FROM LAW SCHOOL TO PRACTICE

Time famine does not suddenly bloom upon graduation and entry into the legal profession. The roots form far earlier. The development of time famine from college through practice illustrates how important time management training is. Dissatisfaction with law school and law practice is now commonly discussed even outside the academy, resulting in decreased applications and increased anecdotal stories of the horrors of legal education and law firm life. Hence, there needs to be a focus on providing a fix sufficiently tailored to the loudest complaint of law students and practitioners: time.

A. Time Problems in Education

The modern undergraduate already lacks time skills. Rather than learning how to handle the time pressures associated with challenging course loads and outside demands, many students instead learn how to simplify their academic life. Students elect to take the easiest classes possible, “controlling college by shaping [class] schedules, taming

18. Nathan Koppel, Law School Loses its Allure as Jobs at Firms Are Scarce, WALL ST. J. (Mar. 17, 2011), http://online.wsj.com/article/SB10001424052748704396504576204692878631986.html (“The number of law-school applicants this year is down 11.5% from a year ago to 66,876, according to the Law School Admission Council Inc. The figure, which is a tally of applications for the fall 2011 class, is the lowest since 2001 at this stage of the process. The Council estimates that the application process is 86% complete, based on historical patterns.”).

professors and limiting workload.” In addition, college students are studying significantly less than prior generations. In the 1970s, two-thirds of students studied about two hours per day, with twenty-five percent of students hardly studying at all. By the early 2000s, there was a notable decline. Forty-five percent of college seniors reported studying a mere ten hours per week or less. Despite the increased ease and reduced effort devoted to education, college students already complain of time famine.

The seeds of time famine that begin sprouting in undergraduate education continue to grow during law school. First, law school’s time demands are far higher than in college. Second, students are entering law school with less foundational preparation than prior generations. Third, law school requires students to learn a new way of thinking, which takes time to develop. Finally, legal education takes a toll on students emotionally, further exacerbating time famine.

Law school requires virtually an inverse of the time structure reported by the average college student. Two hours per day does not cut it in legal education. Preparing for classes often requires a minimum of four hours for every hour of lecture. Both reviewing and outlining necessitate significant time commitments.

These days, students spend an average of less than two hours per day of study time, including doing research and writing papers, slightly less than was the case in earlier years. The time spent relaxing—really goofing off or working out—at an average of about three hours of a day is also less than twenty years ago by at least an hour. So, what are undergraduates doing the rest of the time? First, working in paid employment in average of two hours per day; second, doing a significant amount of club activities and volunteer work; third, doing some small amount of life administration—laundry, shopping, etc.; fourth, eating, maybe accounting for two hours a day; and fifth, lying about how much they spend on all of the other things they do, since all of their reported time cannot add up to more than twenty-two hours.

This is particularly interesting given college-aged students “have the most free time at [their] disposal compared to other adult age groups.” And this is particularly interesting given college-aged students “have the most free time at [their] disposal compared to other adult age groups.” And this is particularly interesting given college-aged students “have the most free time at [their] disposal compared to other adult age groups.” And this is particularly interesting given college-aged students “have the most free time at [their] disposal compared to other adult age groups.” And this is particularly interesting given college-aged students “have the most free time at [their] disposal compared to other adult age groups.” And this is particularly interesting given college-aged students “have the most free time at [their] disposal compared to other adult age groups.” And this is particularly interesting given college-aged students “have the most free time at [their] disposal compared to other adult age groups.

20. REBEKAH NATHAN, MY FRESHMAN YEAR: WHAT A PROFESSOR LEARNED BY BECOMING A STUDENT 113 (Cornell Univ. Press. 2005).

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Id.

23. This is particularly interesting given college-aged students “have the most free time at [their]
disposal compared to other adult age groups.” ANDREA ELISABETH MERCATANGE, STUDENTS’ PERCEPTIONS OF TIME AND ITS INFLUENCE ON LEISURE 15 (Ind. Univ. June 2009) (discussing undergraduates’ time pressures and related stress); see also J. P. ROBINSON & G. GODBEY, TIME FOR LIFE: THE SURPRISING WAYS AMERICANS USE THEIR TIME (1997).
working through material not fully grasped, sometimes with the aid of a professor in office hours or in study groups.

For many law students, law school presents the first significant experience with time pressures. Law students generally excelled in undergraduate studies, suggesting they have more time aptitude than their average peer. Law school is the first place these past high-performing students may face time management demands they cannot strategically avoid. This is particularly true in the first year of law school, where the curriculum is usually set with little to no student input as to instructor, the time and day of classes, nor the nature of the final exam. Not surprisingly, this causes a shock to the system for many 1Ls. It does not help that the overall quality of law school applicants has decreased. This only exacerbates time woes. Students are coming into law school less prepared, particularly in terms of analytical, writing, and research skills.

A recent study found that forty-five percent of students made no significant improvement in their critical thinking, reasoning or writing skills during the first two years of college. After four years, thirty-six percent showed no significant gains in these higher order skills. While this type of commitment to legal study is commendable, it only works if the time put in is actually useful and productive. Attempting to emulate this type of schedule without essential time management skills results in nothing more than the law school equivalent of padding one’s billables.

summary of strategy for success that is certainly comprehensive but far more than is needed by many students to achieve high degrees of academic success). While this type of commitment to legal study is commendable, it only works if the time put in is actually useful and productive. Attempting to emulate this type of schedule without essential time management skills results in nothing more than the law school equivalent of padding one’s billables.


28. See Joan Catherine Bohl, Generations X and Y in Law School: Practical Strategies for Teaching the “MTV/Google” Generation, 54 LOY. L. REV. 775, 788–89 (2008); Susan Hanley Kosse & David T. ButkRitchie, How Judges, Practitioners, and Legal Writing Teachers Assess the Writing Skills of New Law Graduates: A Comparative Study, 53 J. LEGAL EDUC. 80, 98–99 (2003). In addition, new law students are thrown into an educational environment that is also often markedly different from their prior experience. With the decline in the rigor of undergraduate studies, law students often face higher demands than expected on them in their prior academic pursuits. This cultural shock is only complicated given that students arrive at law school without basic study skills. See, e.g., Study: Most College Students Lack Skills, USA TODAY (Jan. 19, 2006), http://usatoday30.usatoday.com/news/education/2006-01-19-college-tasks_x.htm. Note taking and outlining are lost arts. See, e.g., Gayle A. Brazeau, Handouts in the Classroom: Is Note Taking a Lost Art?, 70 AM. J. PHARM. EDUC. 38 (2006).

29. RICHARD ARUM & JOSIPA ROKSA, ACADEMICALLY ADrift: LIMITED LEARNING ON COLLEGE CAMPUSSES 121 (2011). Some argue the demise of writing skills is attributable to the decline of the high school senior research paper. See Neglected “R”, supra note 27, at 14 (stating the traditional senior research paper is “rapidly being abandoned.”). Id. at n.5.
These students are also less prepared for legal education’s reading load. Overall, Americans are reading less, and the current generation of law students is the demographic that, as young adults, read the least.\textsuperscript{31} Entering students are also not prepared to handle the research aspects of law school.\textsuperscript{32}

This lack of foundational skills takes its toll in law school. For example, strong fundamental reading abilities are essential. A deficit in basic reading skills forces law students to devote extra time to meet even baseline expectations. Reading for law school is notably different than other disciplines. Law students must learn to read with a deep level of comprehension—yet with a certain alacrity.\textsuperscript{34} While these reading skills can be taught, they are only truly developed with practice. This practice takes time, and during the first few months of law school, many students struggle to keep up with the reading.

Further, in those first few weeks, students are introduced not only to new ways of reading, but new ways of thinking.\textsuperscript{35} This adjustment requires a great deal of ramp up time. Rather than volunteering their initial reactions to a case, students must consider a variety of other issues, such as how the case fits with prior decisions, how to weight the competing policy justifications for a ruling, and how the holding may


\textsuperscript{32} See Kathryn Hensiak et al., Assessing Information Literacy Among First Year Law Students: A Survey to Measure Research Experiences and Perceptions, 96 L. LIB. J. 867, 868 (2004) (“[S]tudents begin law school without basic research skills.”).

\textsuperscript{33} See, e.g., LAUREL CURRIE OATES ET AL., THE LEGAL WRITING HANDBOOK: ANALYSIS, RESEARCH, AND WRITING 31 (3d ed. 2002) (“While in some type types of reading you can skip sections you do not completely understand, such a strategy does not work when you are doing legal reading. If the document, statute, or case is one that is relevant to your problem, you need to read and reread it until you are sure you understand it.”).

\textsuperscript{34} See CHRISTINE COUGHLIN ET AL., A LAWYER WRITES 34 (2008) (“Reading has two aspects: speed and comprehension. Generally, the faster you read, the less you will comprehend. Conversely, the more you read for comprehension, the slower you will read. A lawyer, however, needs to read fast and comprehend deeply.”).

\textsuperscript{35} HELENE SHAPO & MARSHALL SHAPO, LAW SCHOOL WITHOUT FEAR xiii (2009). Time constraints are far from the sole source of discontent in law school. Discussions of the effect of law school pedagogy and culture on 1Ls abound in academic writing. The complaints focus on the impact of the Socratic Method, the alienation and isolation in law school caused by high competition among students. See, e.g., Hess, supra note 26, at 77–81; Jennifer Jolly-Ryan, Promoting Mental Health in Law School: What Law Schools Can Do for Law Students to Help Them Become Happy, Mentally Healthy Lawyers, 48 U. LOUISVILLE L. REV. 95, 102–17 (2009).
apply to different facts. Not surprisingly, law students quickly begin complaining of a lack of time.36 Even if time management was not a problem for the student in the past, it becomes one.

Watching 1Ls study for their first set of exams illustrates how fundamentally unprepared students are for the self-directed studying needed to succeed in law school. Even the better students barely finish outlines before reading week.37 This leaves only the minimum time for practice tests—essential for adjusting to the time demands of racehorse exams.38 The really crunched students never complete outlines, instead relying on ones passed down from prior law students with little accounting for quality.39 For these students, taking practice exams is a time luxury that is simply too expensive.

In addition, law students often suffer time management problems because of hits to the ego inherent in legal studies.40 The majority of today’s law students were educated in a system that emphasized boosting self-esteem through high grades rather than rigorous standards.41 Law school suffers from its share of grade-inflation, no doubt. But there are not as many A’s available, particularly in law schools with strict grading curves.42 Consequently, the lack of feedback

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36. See G. Andrew H. Benjamin et al., The Role of Legal Education in Producing Psychological Distress among Law Students and Lawyers, 11 AM. B. FOUND. RES. J. 225, 243 (1986); see also Lawrence S. Krieger, Institutional Denial about the Dark Side of Law School, and Fresh Empirical Guidance for Constructively Breaking the Silence, 52 J. LEGAL EDUC. 112, 122–23 (2002) (“The arriving students showed healthy well-being, values, and motives—stronger, in fact, than a large undergraduate sample. Within six months, however, the law students experienced marked decreases in well-being and life satisfaction and marked increases in depression, negative affect, and physical symptoms. Perhaps more revealing, their overall motivation and valuing patterns shifted in undesirable (external/extrinsic) directions, with particular increases in the valuing of image and appearance and decreases in altruism and community orientation. These changes predict continuing decreases in life satisfaction and happiness, and they are fully consistent with the reports of distress, dissatisfaction, and loss of ethics and values among practicing lawyers.”).

37. In working with 1Ls, I am often asked to review outlines, particularly during the first semester of law school. Trying to meet the “reading week” deadline is consistently an issue as 1Ls attempt to balance the work demands of law school.

38. On a racehorse exam, successful completion hinges directly on a student carefully managing her time. Not surprisingly, the traditional racehorse exam is certainly not without its critics. See, e.g., Scott A. Schumacher, Learning to Write in Code: The Value of Using Legal Writing Exercises to Teach Tax Law, 4 PITT. TAX REV. 103, 107 n.20 (2007) (criticizing racehorse exams for failing to allow sufficient depth of analysis).


41. Bohl, supra note 28, at 788–89.

42. See, e.g., SpearIt, Priorities of Pedagogy: Classroom Justice in the Law School Setting, 48
in many doctrinal courses leaves students adrift without the positive affirmation of high grades. Some students overcompensate by spending an inordinate amount of time on their studies. To these students, such commitment is sometimes viewed as a badge of honor, with little reflection on the quality of time spent.

Law school time crunch problems often first appear in skill based classes, such as Legal Research and Writing (LRW). LRW requires students learn and immediately apply new critical reading and analysis skills. Most of these courses are designed around frequent submissions, which make it more difficult for students to hide temporal problems. Either the assignment is completed on time in a polished final form, or it isn’t. Self-denial and procrastination, the twin devils of time management, can hide far longer in a traditional lecture course, where a single final exam is the norm. Rather than acknowledge how far behind one is, a student can continue falling further and further behind in a doctrinal course. While a doctrinal professor may notice something amiss when the student is on call, it is difficult to distinguish between a student who has fallen behind from a student who simply didn’t understand a particular day’s reading.

In addition to class demands, students are spending a great deal of time on extracurricular tasks, including researching and obtaining summer jobs; working on journals; seeking out clinical experiences; and arguing on moot court teams. All of these opportunities add to the
workload. But given the tight legal market, such activities have quickly converted from bonus experiences to essential ones.

Law schools have made some effort to address student stressors. The recent push for practical, skills-oriented training is, at least in part, responsive to the empirical research showing the toll of legal study and practice.48 But some of the curricular redesigns increase time famine.

For example, while providing more practice-oriented training is to be applauded, providing skills-based training without teaching the mechanisms to implement those skills is nonsensical. Skills classes often require students juggle this training with their doctrinal course requirements. For students who lack time management, the result is lesser quality work across the board. A mere band-aid, this approach does not fully address student problems.49 If students were taught how to manage this juggling act, they would be better prepared for practice, from both a skills and professional expectations perspective.50

48. Law students experience levels of depression, anxiety, alcohol consumption, drug use, and stress far in excess of other graduate students. In some ways, these problems are specialized to law students rather than applying to other graduate students who are equally, if not more, overworked. Todd David Peterson & Elizabeth Waters Peterson, Stemming the Tide of Law Student Depression: What Law Schools Need to Learn from the Science of Positive Psychology, 9 YALE J. HEALTH POL’Y, L. & ETHICS 357, 358–59 (2009); see also Marilyn Heins et al., Law Students and Medical Students: A Comparison of Perceived Stress, 33 J. LEGAL EDUC. 511, 511–14 (1983) (discussing study showing that compared to medical students, law students have significantly higher levels of stress and alcohol abuse); Ruth Ann McKinney, Depression and Anxiety in Law Students: Are We Part of the Problem and Can We Be Part of the Solution, 8 L. WRITING: J. LEGAL WRITING INST. 229, 229–30 (2002) (discussing study finding that 40 percent of law school students may experience depression or other symptoms as a result of their law school experience and that “self reports of anxiety and depression are significantly higher among law students than either the general population or medical students”) (quoting Matthew M. Dammeyer & Narina Nunex, Anxiety and Depression Among Law Students: Current Knowledge and Future Directions, 23 J. & HUM. BEHAV. 55 (1999)). Anxiety and depression are not limited to 1Ls, but rather some symptom measures are high or higher for third-year students. Dammeyer & Nunex, supra, at 67.

49. The same is true for efforts to humanize the legal education process. While these efforts are noble in theory, they serve to make the adjustment into practice that much rougher. Christine Pedigo Bartholomew & Johanna Oreskovic, Normalizing Trepidation and Anxiety, 48 DUQUESNE L. REV. 349, 358–60 (2010) (discussing how efforts to make law schools softer are causing long term harm to students).

50. The focus should be on increasing skills training without watering down legal education. Otherwise, graduates will not develop the requisite rigor or stamina for practice. Robert M. Lloyd, Hard Law Firms and Soft Law Schools, 83 N.C. L. REV. 667, 677 (2005) (“Unfortunately, today’s [s]oft law schools do not prepare their graduates for reality. . . . While the practice of law has been getting [h]arder, law schools have been getting [s]ofter.”). In addition, this lack of rigor has long term negative consequences for the development of law. See, e.g., ROBERT J. SPITZER, SAVING THE CONSTITUTION FROM LAWYERS: HOW LEGAL TRAINING AND LAW REVIEWS DISTORT CONSTITUTIONAL MEANING 128 (Cambridge Univ. Press. 2008) (showing how a lack of rigor in law schools turned laughably bad arguments into law—“and no one is laughing now.”). Often, there is little incentive for professors, particularly untenured professors, to provide increased rigor in their courses. See, e.g., James Felton et al., Web-based Student Evaluations of Professors: The Relations Between Perceived Quality, Easiness, and Sexiness, 29 ASSESSMENT & EVALUATION HIGHER EDUC. 91, 92 (2004) (“[S]tudent evaluations of
B. The Time Crunch of Practice

Students bemoan the pressures of law school, but the time restraints of legal education are minimal compared to life in practice. The time famine problems that start in law school continue to plague attorneys throughout their career.\(^{51}\) While a multitude of stressors exist in practice, attorneys’ main complaint is the amount of time they spend on work.\(^{52}\) The time scarcity for attorneys crosses gender lines.\(^{53}\) One issue is lawyers’ schedules, but the true culprits are rising billable hour requirements. These requirements are harming not just lawyers but also their potential clients.

Lawyers’ schedules are conscripted by measures far outside their control. Hearing dates are set with little consideration to an attorney’s case load. The same is true with briefing schedules, which are formulaically set by procedural rules. Transactional attorneys are not saved from these scheduling demands. Often, administrative compliance or agency oversight force attorneys into unrealistic deadlines. To manage these complications, lawyers must have time management skills.

These time demands interfere with attempts at a work–life balance. For example, in 1990 the ABA Young Lawyer Section conducted a national longitudinal study of the legal profession with 3,000 professionals responding. Forty-five percent of these respondents claimed that their work schedules allowed them too little time for their families or themselves.\(^{54}\) The passage of time has done little to alleviate their professors dropped after their professors explicitly and summarily judged the students’ course performances.”).

51. See, e.g., Rebecca French, *Time In the Law*, 72 U. COLO. L. REV. 663, 742 (2001) (“Time management has become one of the biggest issues in the practice of law.”). This article also provides a fascinating historical perspective on the concept of time.


53. While a higher percentage of women report insufficient time, the number is on the rise for both men and women. State of the Legal Profession, supra note 10, at 24. At the same time, a recent study reported in Focus, the newsletter of the Women Lawyers Association of Michigan (WLAM), notes that women leave law firm practice at far higher rates than their male counterparts. Ronald D. Keefe, *Women in the Bar: Celebrating Milestones and Supporting Tomorrow’s Leaders*, MICH. B. J., June 2008 at 16.

54. State of the Legal Profession, supra note 10, at 22. “Other descriptive accounts of what it is like to be a lawyer today often paint a picture of working conditions remarkably similar to those of the
this problem. Seventeen years later, a 2007 MIT study again listed lack of work/life balance as the leading reason why women left law firms and among the top three reasons why men left.55 Practice becomes the jealous mistress, denying attorneys a life outside their relationship with their firm.56

Part of the problem is practice emphasizes the number of hours worked, not necessarily the value or quality of completed work.57 Meeting unrealistic billable minimums is increasingly a requirement for promotion.58 While billable hours are hardly a new problem, today’s associates face higher billing requirements than prior generations. The use of billable hours became widespread in the 1950s,59 and as years passed, the number of hours rose exponentially. By 2007, large firms’ billable hour requirements were in the 2,000–2,200 range.60 Moreover, this represents the billable hour requirement—not the billable hour reality which is markedly higher. Billing 2,500 to 3,000 hours is not uncommon.61 These figures are particularly troubling given two “billable hours” equals three actual hours worked.62

56. Crisis in Quality, supra note 10, at 3 (quoting an unnamed attorney at a conference as saying lawyers are complaining about being “asked not to dedicate, but to sacrifice their lives to the firm”); James J. Alfini & Joseph N. Van Vooren, Is There a Solution to the Problem of Lawyer Stress? The Law School Perspective, 10 J. L. & HEALTH 61, 63 (1995–96) (“[T]he single biggest complaint among attorneys is increasingly long workdays with decreasing time for personal and family life.”); see also ELWORK, supra note 10, at 25 (“The single most frequent complaint about the law is the ‘hours.’”).
57. Alfini & Van Vooren, supra note 56, at 63.
58. See State of the Legal Profession, supra note 10, at 23, 27.
60. By 1965, American lawyers billed between 1200 and 1600 hours annually. Liptak, supra note 59; Scott Turow, The Billable Hour Must Die, A.B.A.J. (Aug. 2007), http://www.abajournal.com/ magazine/article/the_billable_hour_must_die/; see also Carl T. Bogus, The Death of an Honorable Profession, 71 IND. L. J. 911, 924 (1996) (“[I]n the 1960s the median number of billable hours was about 1500 per year for partners and associates alike.”).
61. Liptak, supra note 59; see also Money Talks: In Order to Compete for Associates, Texas Firms Can’t Be Cheap, TEX. LAW., Apr. 3, 2000, at 15, 20 (“I think that the two, three, and four and five year constancy of 2,500, 2,600 hours is a killer for individuals and also for their families.”). The rise in billable hours is not without its critics. As one commentator has pointed out, there is “widespread consensus among practitioners, judges, recruiters and academics that hourly billing leads to punishing work schedules, unhappy lawyers, ill-served clients, over-lawyered cases, perverse incentives and outright fraud.” Id.
62. See Laurence H. Silberman, Will Lawyering Strangle Democratic Capitalism? A
These billing demands make work cycles unpredictable. Beyond generalized theories that August and December are slower months in litigation, attempts to predict whether one will be buried next month are laughable. Added to that, lawyers do not get sufficient vacation time as respite for the high billing periods. Less than fifty percent of attorneys actually take up to two weeks off. Thirty percent of lawyers are not even entitled to two full weeks’ vacation. This is far below ideal, particularly given the pressure of legal practice. Not surprisingly, the percentage of lawyers reporting they “frequently feel fatigued or worn out by the end of the day” is on the rise.

In addition to physical and psychological tolls, this increase in

63. State of the Legal Profession, supra note 10, at 23; see also Schiltz, supra note 52, at 891. One North Carolina bar study found that in 1989, only 17% of attorneys took more than a single week of vacation. North Carolina Bar Ass’n, Report of the Quality of Life Task Force and Recommendations 4 (1991) [hereinafter North Carolina Bar Ass’n].
64. State of the Legal Profession, supra note 10, at 23.
66. Gerhard Stauss-Blasche et al., Effect of Vacation on Health: Moderating Factors of Vacation Outcome, 12 J. TRAVEL. MED. 94, 98 (2005) (“Individuals experiencing high level of work strain show greater improvements of well-being when relieved from this strain (e.g., during vacations) than do those who do not experience high works strain.”).
67. State of the Legal Profession, supra note 10, at 24 (noting in 1984, 61% of all lawyers reported fatigue by the end of the work week, but by 1990 the number rose to 71%).
68. Lawyers are generally less healthy than the general population, suffering from higher rates of hypertension, coronary artery disease, and miscarriage. See Schiltz, supra note 52, at 880. A study of female graduates of the University of California at Davis between 1968 and 1985 found that for pregnant attorneys who worked more than 45 hours per week (a relatively low number for a big firm attorney), miscarriage was three times more likely. See Marc B. Schenker et al., Self-Reported Stress and Reproductive Health of Female Lawyers, 39 J. OCCUPATIONAL & ENV’TTL. MED. 556, 557 (1997).
69. Attorneys top the list for professions with major depressive disorders. William Eaton et al., Occupations and the Prevalence of Major Depressive Disorder, 32 J. OCCUPATIONAL MED. 1079, 1081, 1085–86 (1999) (discussing a 1990 study by researchers at Johns Hopkins University demonstrating of 104 occupations surveyed, lawyers topped the list for major depressive disorders). Male attorneys are nearly three times more likely than the general population to suffer from a major affective disorder. See Schiltz, supra note 52, at 875 (finding among the general population 8.5% of males and 14.1% of females scored higher than the clinical cut off for major depression; among lawyers, the rates were 21% for males and 16% for females). This means higher levels of depression, anxiety, obsessive compulsive disorder, and not surprisingly, though none the less tragic, suicide rates for white, male lawyers are twice as high as for non-attorneys. See id. at 881.
70. For those saved from affective disorders and physical harm, the harm may just come in a different form. Lawyers suffer from anxiety, alcohol and other substance abuse problems at levels far higher than the general population. Further, attorneys suffer extraordinarily high divorce rates. See, e.g., Connie J. A. Beck et al., Lawyer Distress: Alcohol-Related Problems and other Psychiatric Concerns Among a Sample of Practicing Lawyers, 10 J.L. & HEALTH 1, 2 (1995); Lawrence S. Kroiger,
weekly work hours hurts one’s efficiency, as well as the quality of the work performed.71 Productivity decreases rapidly after the eighth hour of work in a day.72 This is also true for individuals who consistently devote forty-five to fifty hours per week to their jobs.73 Yet, it is a rare and lucky attorney who works nine to five.

Time famine is also adding to overall job dissatisfaction.74 In fact, lawyers identify time famine as a “significant cause” of the diminishing quality of lawyers’ health and lives.75 The number of attorneys who are dissatisfied with their careers continues to rise.76 Yet, given the poor economic climate, attorneys have far fewer options to respond to this billable hour pressure. Many leave practice altogether.77 Still others hope to make career changes to minimize the time crunch.78 But lateral


72. R. ALIC MACKENZIE, THE TIME TRAP 10 (1972). The harm of excess hours is most well-documented in the medical field. While it likely does not come as a surprise to anyone, the almost ridiculously long hours worked by medical residents comes at a cost to the quality of medical care provided. Christopher P. Landrigan et al., Effect of Reducing Interns’ Work Hours on Serious Medical Errors in Intensive Care Units, NEW ENG. J. MED. 351 (2004). Accordingly, in 2007, the Accreditation Council for Graduate Medical Education capped the number of hours residents can work. Yet, these caps still fall far short of recognizing that eight hours is the ideal max. Instead, the caps set by the Counsel limited the number of work-hours to 80 hours weekly, overnight call frequency to no more than one overnight every third day, 30 hour maximum straight shift, and 10 hours off between shift. See ACGME DUTY HOURS LANGUAGE, http://www.acgme-2010standards.org/pdf/monographs/jgme-monograph.pdf (last visited Apr. 14, 2013).

73. Fortney, supra note 71, at 288–91 (discussing how billable hour requirements are resulting in attorneys committing less pro bono hours); see generally WILLIAM G. ROSS, THE HONEST HOUR: THE ETHICS OF TIME-BASED BILLING BY ATTORNEYS’S 229–36 (1996) (discussing impact of hourly billing on attorneys’ public responsibility).

74. See, e.g., North Carolina Bar Ass’n, supra note 63, at 11 (identifying time famine as a primary cause of attorney dissatisfaction).

75. Crisis in Quality, supra note 10, at 3 (stating [attorneys] “do not have enough time for themselves and their families—what many have come to call ‘the time famine’”).

76. State of the Legal Profession, supra note 10, at 52 tbl.67 (reporting over 30% reduction in the number of lawyers who were very satisfied).

77. Some reports claim the practice of law pushes 40,000 lawyers to leave the profession annually. See, e.g., JEAN STEFANCIE & RICHARD DELGADO, HOW LAWYERS LOSE THEIR WAY: A PROFESSION FAILS ITS CREATIVE MINDS 51 (2005); Diana Nelson Jones, Legally Unhappy: Experts Worry about Growing Tide of Lawyers Abandoning Careers, PITTSBURGH POST-GAZETTE, May 4, 2005. This statistic is particularly startling given the total number of JDs and LLBs awarded for the 2009–10 academic year was 44,004. See Enrollment and Degrees Awarded, 1963–2010, ABA, http://www.americanbar.org/content/dam/aba/administrative/legal_education_and_admissions_to_the_bar/stats_1.authcheckdam.pdf (last visited July 26, 2012). Others question that figure, while still acknowledging a rise in the number of attorneys considering non-law options. See State of the Legal Profession, supra note 10, at 13 n.4.

78. Chuck Roberts, Prepare Now for the Oncoming Wave of Turnover, AM. B. ASS’N L. PRAC.
job opportunities are increasingly scarce, meaning the options are defaulting on expensive student loans or remaining in an unsatisfactory work environment. Efforts to minimize billable hours through part-time or reduced hour arrangements are often unsuccessful, resulting in less than five percent of attorneys working reduced hours.79

The problems of time famine go beyond harm to the attorneys themselves. Time is the most cited justification for attorneys failing to take pro bono cases.80 Poor time management is also one of the primary causes of malpractice.81 Hence, the harm is spreading from practitioners to the community needing their services.

III. THE PSYCHOLOGY OF TIME MANAGEMENT

Since time famine is practicing lawyers’ number one complaint, it should also be the number one concern to remedy in legal education. To best address this problem, law schools first need a more sophisticated understanding of what time management actually means, so they can arm students with these skills prior to practice. The burgeoning field of time management research provides not only a more nuanced understanding of this concept but also a template for identifying specific deficiencies.

A. What Is Time Management?

Interest in managing time is far from new. Time management was introduced in the 1950s as a means of dealing with job-related time issues.82 From the 1950s to the early 1980s, time management garnered...
widespread attention. In response, there were numerous books and programs developed during the ‘60s, ‘70s, and ‘80s promoting various time saving strategies. But these programs addressed time management in general terms, without hard data to back up proposed solutions.

All that changed in the late 1980s. Researchers began questioning the scientific legitimacy of popular time management advice. There was a desire to more fully explore time management, specifically to identify the requisite skills. This curiosity triggered a flurry of research that has taken on a life of its own during the last twenty years.

The research has led to a richer, more nuanced understanding. Prior to the late 1980s, time management was considered a unidimensional concept. Early researchers treated it as a skill itself: one either had the ability to manage time, or didn’t. The surge of empirical time management research in the late 1980s and early 1990s proved time management is a group of related aptitudes that can be broken down and quantified. Though psychologists disagree on the total number of

and prioritize these goals on a daily basis; and avoid work interruptions that inhibit completion of these goals.

83. Brigette J.C. Claessens, PERCEIVED CONTROL OF TIME: TIME MANAGEMENT AND PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS AT WORK, at Ch. 1 (2004) ("Since its introduction, there has been tremendous popular attention for the implementation of time management techniques at work and time management training programs. Nowadays, there are many books, articles, seminars, workshops, and general time management tips available and the large numbers of people have participated in time management training programs in some way. The popularity of time management is also expressed for instance in the 1,750,000 hits on ‘time management’ in an internet search.").


85. See id.

86. One of the leading time management researchers explained the lack of empirical research by stating, "Perhaps it is because time management is typically viewed as a fad and not held in very high esteem by researchers in the field." T.H. Macan, Time Management: Test of a Process Model, 79 J. APPLIED PSYCH. 381, 381 (1994) [hereinafter Macan 1994].

87. See Alexander Hafner & Armin Stock, Time Management Training and Perceived Control of Work, J. PSYCHOL. 429, 430 (2010). As the interest in empirical research flourished, much of the research focused on three groups: (1) employees of different organizations; (2) psychology students; and (3) employees with double workloads, i.e. working full-time while studying part-time or working full-time and running a household of children. Claessens et al., supra note 84, at 257.

88. Therese Macan et al., College Students’ Time Management: Correlations with Academic Performance & Stress, 82 J. EDUC. PSYCH. 760, 760 (1990) [hereinafter Macan 1990]. The research on time management training was constricted by this same flawed foundational assumption. Laura Ann Hellsten & Todd Rogers, Development and Preliminary Validation of the Time Management for Exercise Scale, 13 MEASUREMENT IN PHYSICAL EDUC. & EXERCISE SCI. 13, 17 (2009) (discussing how the use of an unidimensional view of time management is “threatened by construct under-representation and irrelevance.”).

89. Two key studies lead to this greater understanding of time management. First, in 1988, two psychologists, Bond and Feather, researched the psychological effects of unemployment. In particular, these researchers were studying whether the unstructured nature of time among the unemployed was associated with psychological problems, such as diminished mental health. M. Bond & N. Feather,
subscales, the bulk of the research suggests there are at least nine separate subscales: Sense of Purpose, Structured Routine, Present Orientation, Effective Organization, Persistence, Setting Goals and Priorities, Mechanics, Perceived Control of Time, and Preference for Organization.

Based on this research, psychologists learned that it is essential to distinguish between each facet. High scores in each of the subscales indicate different time skills. For example, high scorers on the Sense of Purpose subscale perceive importance and value in the ways they fill their time, are rarely bored, and generally see a purpose and meaning in their lives. In contrast, high scorers of the Structured Routine subscale tend to make plans in their personal lives, structure their time to realize these plans, follow daily routines, and can estimate the number of useful hours spent during a typical week. High scorers on Effective Organization have different strengths than those measured by Sense of Purpose or Structured Routine. They tend to spring into action easily, organize daily activities efficiently, and rarely drift aimlessly.

Some Correlates of Structure & Purpose in the Use of Time. 55 J. PERSONALITY & SOCIAL PSYCHOL. 321, 322–23 (1988) [hereinafter Bond & Feather]; N.T. Feather & M.J. Bond, Time Structure & Purposeful Activity Among Employed and Unemployed University Graduates, 56 J. OCCUPATIONAL PSYCHOL. 241, 243–44 (1983). As part of their research, these scientists developed the Time Structured Questionnaire (TSQ), a 26-item, five factor scale self-reporting questionnaire focused on the extent to which time was used in a structured, purposeful manner. Bond & Feather, supra, at 324. This test identifies that time structure can actually be broken into five separate components: Sense of Purpose, Structured Routine, Present Orientation, Effective Organization, and Persistence. Yet, while the development of the TSQ was a turning point in time management empirical research, the test focused more on how time is used rather than focusing more time management behaviors. J.A. Francis-Smythe, On the Relationship Between Time Management and Time Estimation, 90 BRIT. J. PSYCHOL. 334, 334–47 (1999). Then, in 1990, a group of researchers led by Therese Hoff Macan from University of Missouri—St. Louis developed the Time Management Behavior Scale (TMBS) a questionnaire aimed at assessing the behaviors critical to time management, as it was defined in popular literature at the time. See generally Macan 1990, supra note 88 (identifying the goals of the research). Both surveys confirmed that time management is multidimensional.

90. Compare Bond & Feather, supra note 89 at 325 (five factors), and Macan 1990, supra note 88, at 765 (four factors), with Hellsten & Rogers, supra note 88, at 17 (2009) (identifying four subscales: exercise importance, exercise document, ability to manage time for exercise, and setting exercise goals).


92. Id.; Francis-Smythe, supra note 89, at 345.

93. Bond & Feather, supra note 89, at 325.

94. Mudrack, supra note 91, at 224. Additional explanation of the subscales is available infra
This surge of time management research also confirmed the benefits of developing greater aptitudes on all nine scales. Notably, many of these benefits address the specific psychological tolls attorneys suffer. Those with higher subscale scores have greater psychological well-being, optimism about their future, fewer psychological symptoms, and less depression and hopelessness. These individuals generally have higher self-esteem, clearer purpose in life, greater job, school, and life satisfaction, and lower stress. Higher scores also correlated with more extroverted and Type A personalities—traits useful in the practice of law. Additionally, researchers found time management skills help mediate some of the work–family strain, as well as the strain between high demand/low autonomy jobs and emotional exhaustion. In terms of education, the research proved these subscales impacted college grades and produced more efficient study habits.

This swell of research also confirmed the dangers of lacking time management. Low scores in these subscales correlate with negative well-being indicators. For example, individuals with lower scores tend to have higher work tension and trait-procrastination. Individuals with low subscales share many traits with attorneys, such as a tendency to worry, and elevated rates of distress, depression, anxiety, hopelessness, and neuroticism.

95. See infra Part III(B) and accompanying footnotes discussing attorneys’ psychological tolls and dissatisfaction with practice.
98. Id. at 383 (internal citation omitted).
99. Bond & Feather, supra note 89, at 325; Macan 1990, supra note 88, at 764. In terms of attorneys, increasing job satisfaction is an important issue. Attorney job satisfaction declined precipitously between the 1980s and the 1990s. One study found that in 1984, 40 percent of lawyers were “very satisfied” with their work; by 1990, the number had dropped to 29 percent and by 1995, only about one in five or 20 percent of lawyers reported being “very satisfied.” Among new attorneys, the 1995 data indicated that 27 percent were somewhat or very dissatisfied with their legal careers and almost one-third reported that they would strongly consider leaving their current position during the next year. Schlitz, supra note 52, at 885.
102. Miranda Peeters and Christel Rutte, Time Management Behavior as a Moderator for the Job-Demand-Control Interaction, 10 J. OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH PSYCHOL. 64, 72 (2005).
105. Bond & Feather, supra note 89, at 325; William E. Kelly, No Time to Worry: The Relationship Between Worry, Time Structure, and Time Management, 35 PERSONALITY & INDIVIDUAL...
B. Time Management Research Flourishes

Psychologists’ discovery that time management is multidimensional opened the floodgates for further empirical research. In addition to developing the components and benefits of time management, researchers also uncovered how time management behaviors vary in different populations. For example, the subscales data for elementary school teachers differs from central office employees. Much of this research focused on education and provided a more robust understanding of issues facing students. Time management problems facing students differ by level of education. Different levels require different levels of self-regulation, particularly in terms of planning. Graduate students’ age also impacts time management skills: older respondents tend to achieve higher Present Orientation and Effective Organization scales than younger students.

Additionally, as the psychology community gained a better, more dynamic understanding of time management, research on training flourished. While there has been some dissension, the bulk of the time management research proves time management can be taught.

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106. Some credit changes in the global market with the increased importance of time in organizational literature. Wanda Orlikowsky & Joanne Yates, It’s about Time: Temporal Structuring in Organizations, 13 Org. Sci. 684 (2002) (discussing how the expanding global competition and increased demands for immediate availability of products and services has driven the interest in time studies). Others point to the general increase in people’s pace of life. Manfred Garhammer, Pace of Life and Enjoyment of Life, 3 J. HAPPINESS STUD. 217, 233 (2002) (contending the interest in time management studies is spurred by the increased pace of life which results in a contracting of time expenditure (e.g., eat faster, sleep less) and compressing actions (e.g., multitasking)).


108. Compare Peeters & Rutte, supra note 102, at 64, with Griffiths, supra note 107, at 5.

109. See, e.g., Liu et al., supra note 107, at 177–78 (discussing how time structure in middle-school students is limited to two subfactors, rather than the five generally found in undergraduate and adult populations).

110. See, e.g., id. at 174 (discussing how time demands for adolescents differ from adults or university students’ demands).

111. Mudrack, supra note 91, at 232.

112. At least four studies found that that time management training did result in individuals engaging in time management behavior more frequently that control groups not provided that training. Abby King et al., Enhancing Coping Behaviors in At-Risk Populations: The Effects of Time-
research suggests there are three key components to teaching time management.

First, it is essential to focus on the specific aspects of time management students lack.\textsuperscript{113} The goal is strong markers on all the subscales, as each represents a different, essential time management skill.\textsuperscript{114} Accordingly, assessment is necessary before remediating defects: effective time management training requires an understanding of what the specific student deficiencies are.

Second, Perceived Control may be the most important of all the subscales, so at least some substantive aspect of time management training needs to focus on helping students control time.\textsuperscript{115} Perceived Control measures an individual’s subjective view of whether there is sufficient time to meet a deadline.\textsuperscript{116} Perceived Control can be taught, with participants in such training reporting a greater feeling of time control.\textsuperscript{117} Increasing this subscale leads to gains on other time management subscales as well.\textsuperscript{118}

Third, self-directed time management instruction yields little benefit.\textsuperscript{119} Time management in combination with supervised practice is more effective than a traditional time management instructional session without subsequent supervision.\textsuperscript{120}

\begin{itemize}
\item Macan 1990, \textit{supra} note 88, at 767.
\item \textit{Id.} at 766–67; Bond & Feather, \textit{supra} note at 89, at 326–28.
\item \textit{See infra} Part IV(B) (discussing Perceived Control as a mediator).
\item Hafner & Stock, \textit{supra} note 87, at 430.
\item Theresee Macan, \textit{Time-Management Training: Effects on Time Behaviors, Attitudes, and Job Performance}, J. Psychol., 130, 229, 234 (1996). This study also found that time management training had no direct effect on job performance, job satisfaction, or stress: instead that impact was an outcome of increased Perceived Control. \textit{Id.} However, this finding was subsequently questioned in other studies that found direct training on time management behavior did have result in well-being indicators. Van Eerde, \textit{supra} note 112 (study finding that one month after time management training, trainees reported an increased ability to manage their time and a decrease in worrying and procrastination). Hence, training either on Perceived Control or on time management behaviors results in psychological and performance gains.
\item \textit{See infra} Part IV(B) (discussing Perceived Control as a mediator).
\item Barbara J. Adamson et al., \textit{Teaching Time & Organizational Management Skills to First Year Health Science Students: Does Training Make a Difference?}, 28 J. Further Higher Educ. 261, 273 (Aug. 2004).
\item Anita Woolfolk & Robert Woolfolk, \textit{Time management: An experimental Investigation}, 24 J. Sch. Psychol., 267, 272 (1986); see also Van Eerde, \textit{supra} note 112, at 424 (“Results showed that in the combined condition more reports were finished, the questionnaire was returned more promptly, and the self-reports of time management were higher.”).
\end{itemize}
With this fundamental understanding of time management in place, the next step is identifying law students’ deficiencies. To date, no published studies on time management has analyzed law students. Hence, prior to the study presented in this Article, it was not even certain that all nine subscales apply to law students. Further, there was no way to know whether the students were suffering any particularized time management problems or just suffering from problems similar to other graduate students or undergraduates.

Law students are a unique subset of college graduates. Often, they are the higher achievers in their graduating classes. Since academic success is linked to time management skills, one might assume that these students have acquired at least some time management behaviors—perhaps enough to succeed in undergraduate school though not necessarily enough to thrive in the heavily time-demanding environment of law school.

To evaluate law students, I selected two psychometric instruments and administered them to the Class of 2013 at SUNY Buffalo School of Law, The first, the Time Management Behavior Scale (TMBS), is the most elaborately validated time management measurement. This test is often administered with another measurement tool, the Time Structure Questionnaire (TSQ). When the tests are administered jointly, they provide a more well-rounded understanding of a specific population’s time management deficiencies. Together, the tests help quantify students’ time management aptitude using all nine subscales.

121. Cf. Liu et al., supra note 107, at 177–78 (finding middle school students have fewer time management subscales than college students).

122. As the survey was initially completed to evaluate SUNY Buffalo’s academic support offerings, the University’s Social Science IRB determined the survey did not require IRB approval. See Email from Christian Marks, SBRB Administrator, to author (July 19, 2012, 14:20 EST) (on file with author).

123. The questionnaire, the Time Management Behavior Scale or TMBS, was administered to 123 undergraduate students. The TMBS is a self-reporting questionnaire using a five point scale to measure the extent to which time management behaviors are used. This scale identified three separate time management behaviors. The first sub scale is Setting Goals and Priorities, which measures setting goals an individual wants or needs to accomplish and prioritizing to achieve goals. Second, Mechanics of Time Management, measures specific behaviors associated with managing time. Third, Preference for Organization, measures a general preference for organization in one’s work-space and task approach. The test also identified an outcome variable, Perceived Control of Time measures the degree to which individuals believe they can affect how their time is spent. Macan 1990, supra 88, at 761–66; see also Macan 1994, supra note 86 (building on prior TMBS research).

124. Comila Shahani et al., An Investigation of the Dispositional Nature of the Time Management Construct, Anxiety, Stress, & Coping 231, 234 (1993). Though the original version of the TMBS was longer, additional research on the measurement tool confirmed measure could be reduced from 76 to 28 items with the same reliability. Mudrack, supra note 91, at 238.

125. See, e.g., Kelly, supra note 103; Mudrack, supra note 91; Shahani et al., supra note 124.
Students self-reported by completing an online survey. The questions appeared in a five point response format that ranged from 1 = seldom to 5 = very often.\(^{126}\) The class consists of 219 students, with the following medians: GPA 3.48; LSAT 158; Age 24.\(^{127}\) It splits fifty-five percent male and forty-five percent female.\(^{128}\) The questionnaire was anonymous and voluntary, though students were encouraged to complete the survey by their Legal Research & Writing professors, the Vice Dean of Student Affairs, and a subset of their doctrinal faculty. In addition, fliers reminding students to take the survey were posted throughout the law school. The questionnaire was available for completion their 1L year, during the first two weeks of October.\(^{129}\) By the deadline, 121 students completed the survey,\(^{130}\) approximately fifty-five percent of the 1L class. This number is within the range or greater than most sample sizes in prior time psychological studies.\(^{131}\) Means, standard deviations, and internal consistencies of all measures used in this study are presented in Figure 1.\(^{132}\)

\(^{126}\) While the original TSQ format proposed by Feather presented a seven point range with 1 = never and 7 = always, having questions with different possible ranges would have added unnecessary confusion and potential problems with the survey results. See generally Mudrack, supra note 91. Accordingly, in line with other research using Mudrack’s truncated combined TSQ and MBSE study is worthwhile, I used a consistent five point range throughout the survey. This also made subcategory to subcategory comparison easier.


\(^{128}\) Id.

\(^{129}\) This timing was intended to coincide with one of the busiest times in the semester for 1Ls. This was intended to capture the most realistic numbers possible for student’s self-assessments. Had the questionnaire instead been administered during orientation, for example, students would not yet have a solid sense of the time pressures of law school.

\(^{130}\) C.P. BARTHOLOMEW, LAW STUDENTS’ TIME MANAGEMENT SUBSCALES SURVEY (SUNY Buffalo Oct. 2010) (on file with author) [hereinafter LAW STUDENT SURVEY].

\(^{131}\) See, e.g., Julian Barling et al., Time Management & Achievement Striving Interact to Predict Car Sale Performance, 81 J. APPLIED PSYCHOL. 821 (1996) (survey of 102 car salespersons); Griffiths, supra note 107, at 5 (survey of 120 central office employees or teleworkers); Dorothy Lang, Preventing Short-Term Strain Through Time-Management Coping, 6 WORK & STRESS 169 (1992) (survey of 96 undergraduate students); Lay & Schouwenberg, supra note 104 (survey of 65 psychology students); Poeters & Rutte, supra note 102, at 64 (survey of 123 elementary school teachers).

\(^{132}\) As the table indicates, the measures generally possess adequate consistency for research instruments (0.70), with the exception of routine (TSQ) and organization (TMBS). These lower internal consistencies are similar, though, to other studies utilizing these instruments. See, e.g., J.C. NUNNALLY, PSYCHOMETRIC THEORY 245 (2d ed. 1978) (finding reliability of near or exceeding 0.70 is required); Darryl Forsyth & EeMun Chen, The Relationship Between Different Email Management Strategies and the Perceived Control of Time, 10 DEPT MGMT. & INT’L BUS. 1, 9 (2006) (discussing how study of time management skills in conjunction with email folder management resulted in a coefficient alpha of 0.67).
These results confirmed that law students have all tested time management subscales. Unlike middle school students, where less than all the measured subscales exist, law students’ time management skills are measurable in nine, distinct categories.

The research is particularly useful for assessing time management strengths and weaknesses. The results of the survey identified some clear strengths. 1Ls had greater time management skills in every TSQ and TMBS subcategory than most undergraduate students. This makes some sense, in that law students are often better performers than many undergraduate peers.

When juxtaposed against other populations, the data shows TSQ and TMBS scores comparable to working adults in non-legal positions. Further, the ranking from strongest to weakest for each subscale is the same in both populations. Despite these similarities, other professions are not seeing startling rates of job flight and dissatisfaction like law. This may mean that lawyers need far stronger time management skills than other professionals.

Most law students scored high on Persistence and Preference for

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133. See Liu et al., supra note 107, at 177.
134. Compare LAW STUDENT SURVEY, supra note 130, with Macan 1990, supra note 88, at 764 tbl.2, and Bond & Feather, supra note 89, at 326 tbl.2.
135. Compare Mudrack, supra note 91, at 229 tbl.1, with LAW STUDENT SURVEY, supra note 130.
136. Compare Mudrack, supra note 91, at 229 tbl.1, with LAW STUDENT SURVEY, supra note 130.
Organization. This means students have already developed some essential time skills. The data indicates the students will generally see assignments through to completion. Even if an activity involves difficulty, those with high Persistence scores are less likely to give up. Persistence is also related to Type A personalities who tend to be more purposeful individuals that schedule activities and are accountable to deadlines. Further, individuals with high Persistence numbers tend to believe hard work pays off, which is a key to maintaining motivation. Given the challenging nature of law school and legal practice, high Persistence numbers will benefit law students.

Also, the students’ high Preference for Organization subscale is significant. This suggests the students are ripe for time management training. Individuals with high Preference for Organization markers prefer a systematic, ordered approach to task completion. Individuals with both high Preference for Organization and high Goal Setting numbers tend to have higher overall TSQ scores. Hence, providing law students with a systematic approach to managing assignments and goal completion plays directly into this preference.

But despite these strengths, the survey results highlight some notable weaknesses. The lowest numbers are for Present Orientation. Close behind are four subscales where the results cluster: Perceived Control, Mechanics of Time Management, Structured Routine, and Goal Setting. (See Figure 2).

137. LAW STUDENT SURVEY, supra note 130.
138. Mudrak, supra note 91, at 224.
139. Bond & Feather, supra note 89, at 325.
140. Cynthia Lee et al., The Effects of Type A Behavior Dimensions and Optimism on Coping Strategy, Health & Performance, 14 J. ORG. BEHAV. 143, 144 (1993).
Focusing on the subscales where the median score was below 3.50 helps ensure time management training is optimized to law students’ unique deficiencies. Given the students’ strengths in Persistence and Preference for Organization, any time management training on those scales would yield minimal potential gain. Instead, training should focus on the scales evidencing the most weakness: Present Orientation, Perceived Control, Goal Setting, Mechanics, and Routine. There is no statistically significant difference in the scores for these scales, so all five should be addressed in any law student training. While addressing other subscales may help on the margins, these five offer the most potential for a jump in the quality of law students’ time management capabilities.

A. Present Orientation

Students showed the greatest time management deficiencies in Present Orientation. Present Orientation evaluates a person’s time perspective, namely if the student focuses on the here and now. Examples of questions where students identified weakness include: “Do you spend time thinking about what your future might be like?” and “Do you spend time thinking about opportunities that you have missed?”

145. The numbers for Perceived Control and Mechanics are almost identical to Routine and Goal Setting figures. Just like with undergraduate students, Mechanics is one of the weaker areas. Compare LAW STUDENT SURVEY, supra note 130, with Macan 1990, supra note 88, at 764 tbl.2 (showing Mechanics averaged the lowest median score). This suggests incoming law students are already deficient in this subscale and nothing in the first months of legal education are remedying this pre-existing deficiency.

146. Bond & Feather, supra note 89, at 325.

147. Id. at 324.
Present Orientation aids satisfaction, goal formation, and achievement. Developing Present Orientation minimizes the negative emotions associated with the past (e.g., remorse or grief) or the future (e.g., anxiety) and increases solution skills. Low Present Orientation numbers are related to anomie, depression, anxiety, and neuroticism—descriptors applicable to lawyers. Lack of Present Orientation also inhibits one’s ability to efficiently utilize a given period of time. In general, reflection on past and future events is not a vice. Considering the future helps to identify goals and future aspirations while reflecting on the past helps one avoid repeating mistakes. But in terms of time management, focusing too much on the past or future interferes with focusing on the present.

150. Vincent J. Fortunato & John T. Furey, The Theory of MindTime: The Relationships Between Thinking Perspective and Time Perspective, 48 PERSONALITY & INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES 436, 438 (2010). Present orientation is also related to the psychological concept of mindfulness. Sobol-Kwapinska, supra note 148, at 434. Present orientation alone has its own problems. An individual who is presently oriented to the exclusion of any long term goals can often engage in hedonistic activities, avoidance activities, or other non-constructive conduct. See, e.g., Ilona Boniwell & Philip G. Zimbardo, Balancing Time Perspective in Pursuit of Optimal Functioning, in POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY IN PRACTICE 165, 169 (P. Alex Linely & Stephen Joseph eds., 2004); see also Brigitte J.C. Claessens et. al., Planning Behavior and Perceived Control of Time at Work, 25 J. ORG. BEHAV. 937, 938 (2004). Hence, it is important to develop this subscale in conjunction with other time management skills, particularly Goal Planning. The key is moving towards a balanced time perception. A balanced approach means the individual has the ability to switch between different types of orientation. This ensures that when times are busy, the individual is focused on working each day towards long term goals, but when times are slow, the person can enjoy that time for a greater work/life balance.
151. Bond & Feather, supra note 89, at 325.
152. Present Orientation is conceptually related to time perspective. To further complicate the concept, researchers have used the terms “time orientation” and “time perspective” interchangeably. Fortunato & Furey, supra note 150, at 438. However, time perspective literature focuses more on the divide between those who are future oriented versus those who are past oriented. Boniwell & Zimbardo, supra note 150, at 169.
153. Boniwell & Zimbardo, supra note 150, at 169; Louise Horstmanshof & Craig Zimitat, Future Time Orientation Predicts Academic Engagement Among First-Year University Students, 77 BRIT. J. EDUC. PSYCHOL. 703, 706 (2007). For past-oriented individuals, there can be an emphasis on nostalgia, mistakes made in the past, or concerns about changing things no longer changeable. Such individuals are reticent of change and avoid new experiences. There is also a noted relationship between depression and negative past orientation. Fortunato & Furey, supra note 150, at 438.
154. Future-oriented individuals focus on the consequences of their decisions and actions. Decisions are made with a future goal in mind. This future orientation has its benefits, particularly if that future orientation is positive. Some researchers argue that a positive future orientation leads to increased overall happiness and well-being. Future orientation is also linked to a high level of academic application and engagement. See, e.g., Horstmanshof & Zimitat, supra note 153, at 714–15. A future orientation has costs, however, such as delayed gratification and lack of present enjoyment. See generally Hefer Bembenutty & Stuart A. Karabenick, Inherent Association Between Academic Delay of Gratification, Future Time Perspective, and Self-Regulated Learning, 16 EDUC. PSYCHOL. REV. 35 (2004) (discussing relationship between future time orientation and delayed gratification).
The average law school class structure does little to help on this subscale. End-of-course exams force future-oriented thinking, with limited attention to what needs to be done on a given day to prepare for end-of-semester exams, let alone post-graduation success.

As the law school experience proceeds, missteps along the way invite new events to obsess over—at the cost of meeting the next deadline. Time spent reflecting on whether the student should have picked a different law school or a different graduate path makes it harder to finish the assigned work.\footnote{155}

Developing a strong time balance is particularly important for future lawyers. Practice is much like a Tetris game—there are stretches of time where the next assignments come in waves. All a lawyer can do is attempt to clear the assignment blocks before the stack gets too large to manage. Particularly during these challenging stretches, a lawyer lacks the luxury of focusing on the past or future to the exclusion of completing pending assignments.

Also, given the ebb and flow of life in practice, it is essential to help attorneys learn to take advantage of downtime—limited as it might be. Otherwise, the attorney suffers the consequences of endless working, both in terms of psychological and physiological consequences.\footnote{156} Hence, improving Present Orientation will help students in law school and beyond.

\subsection*{B. Perceived Control of Time}

Perceived Control also came back as a problem area for the survey respondents. Perceived Control refers to a person’s perception of having enough time to finish work and meet deadlines.\footnote{157} In addition, this subscale reflects the ability to keep schedules and plans in mind, avoid procrastinating, and experience a strong overall feeling that one has time in hand.\footnote{158}

Interestingly, for law students, procrastination isn’t so much the issue; instead, students are simply finding time slipping away. Students are working, but their personal perception is that they are not doing enough with their time. (See Figure 3). This deficiency has the potential of being a self-fulfilling prophecy, given how Perceived Control works.

\footnote{155. This is not to say students should avoid such reflection. To the contrary, such reflection should come prior to law school rather than during. I have counseled numerous 1Ls who subsequently decided to withdraw from law school. One trait these students share: they didn’t really consider why they went to law school in the first place. Had such contemplation taken place prior to applying, they could have been saved time, heartache, and a good deal of money.}

\footnote{156. Schiltz, supra note 52, at 874–82.}

\footnote{157. Hafner & Stock, supra note 87, at 430.}

\footnote{158. Id.}
Figure 3: Excerpted Perceived Control Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Median Response</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I understand the time it takes to accomplish tasks</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I spend a lot of time on unimportant tasks</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I find myself procrastinating on tasks that I do not like that must be done.</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel in control of my time.</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you ever feel that time just seems to slip away?</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think you do enough with your time?</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perceived Control is purely a question of perception, not necessarily reality. The more a person perceives having enough time to finish work and meet deadlines, the more likely that person will actually finish the work in a timely fashion. Even if one objectively has the requisite number of hours to complete a project, if he lacks Perceived Control, he will likely suffer more time management problems.

A lack of Perceived Control is more troubling than it might appear on the surface. In some ways, it is the single most important aspect of time management. Rather than just a component of time management, Perceived Control is also an outcome variable that mediates, to some extent, some of the positive benefits of time management skills, such

159. Id. (discussing relationship between Perceived Control and time management behaviors); Claessens et al., supra note 150, at 947.

160. “Mediation” for purposes of this discussion is defined as the influence of a third variable on the relationship “which represents the generative mechanism through which the focal independent variable is able to influence the dependent variable of interest.” See, e.g., Chang & Nguyen, supra note 143, at 193; Reuben M. Baron & David A. Kenny, The Moderator-Mediator Variable Distinction in Social Psychological Research: Conceptual, Strategic, and Statistical Considerations, 51 J. PERSONALITY & SOC. PSYCHOL. 1173 (1986).

161. The degree of mediation has been debated. Initially, Macan contended that perceived control of time did mediate between setting goals and priorities on the one hand and job satisfaction, job induced tensions, and somatic tensions on the other hand. In other researchers’ subsequent efforts to replicate Macan’s finding, Perceived Control only partially mediated specific time mechanisms and outcomes. See, e.g., Gary A. Adams & Steve M. Jex, Relationships Between Time Management, Control, Work-Family Conflict, and Strain, 4 J. OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH PSYCHOL. 72, 74–77 (1999) (in a study involving 522 working adults who enrolled as part-time students, found that Perceived Control of time mediated between Setting Goals, Mechanics, and Preference for Organization on the one hand, and health and job satisfaction on the other hand). Regardless of the question of degree, most research results confirm that Perceived Control of time is, at a minimum, a meaningful predictor of job satisfaction and well-being. Hafner & Stock, supra note 87, at 430.
as greater job satisfaction, fewer job-induced and somatic tensions, and greater well-being at work.\textsuperscript{162} Once a person’s Perceived Control increases, so does the person’s satisfaction and performance. Academic stress is lower for students with high Perceived Control.\textsuperscript{163} Teaching time management skills positively impacts a person’s Perceived Control. Hence, addressing the problems with this subscale in conjunction with Goal Setting, Routine, and Mechanics should result in greater overall well-being.

\textit{C. Goal Setting}

Next, 1Ls’ Goal Setting abilities are lacking. For example, seventy percent of students do not frequently review their goals to determine if they need revision. (See Figure 4). Close to fifty percent of students do not frequently break complex, difficult projects down into smaller manageable tasks. (See Figure 5).

\textbf{Figure 4}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{figure4.png}
\caption{Q: I review my goals to determine if they need revising}
\end{figure}

\begin{itemize}
\item True about as often as not (25.0%)
\item Very often (5.0%)
\item Frequently (25.0%)
\item Occasionally (30.8%)
\item Seldom (14.2%)
\end{itemize}

\begin{footnotesize}
\textsuperscript{162} Adams & Jex, \textit{supra} note 161, at 73; Claessens et al., \textit{supra} note 150, at 938; Macan 1994, \textit{supra} note 86, at 382–83; Macan 1990, \textit{supra} note 88, at 765.
\textsuperscript{163} Ranjita Misra & Michelle McKean, \textit{College Students’ Academic Stress and Its Relation to Their Anxiety, Time Management, and Leisure Satisfaction}, 16 AM. J. HEALTH STUD. 41, 42 (2000).
\end{footnotesize}
The Setting Goals and Prioritizing subscale evaluates whether an individual creates short and long term goals, then prioritizes among them. Developing an increased awareness of one’s goals is an essential foundational requirement of time management training. Without this awareness, it is difficult to identify and plan how to reach those goals.

Goal Setting is linked with self-reported job performance, grade point average, job satisfaction, and health. The higher an individual’s planning behavior, the less likely that individual is to suffer from strain, somatic tension, and role ambiguity. This subscale is significantly related to Routine, Effective Organization, Sense of Purpose, and Persistence factors. Hence, the more work done developing this area of time management, the more gains for these other

164. Van Eerde, supra note 112, at 423.
165. See generally id. Questions relevant to this time management behavior include: “Do you review goals to determine if they need revising?” “Do you break complex, difficult projects down into smaller manageable tasks?” “During a workday do you evaluate how well you follow the schedule you have set down for yourself?” “Do you set deadlines for yourself when you set out to accomplish a task?” Macan 1990, supra note 88, at 762.
169. Adams & Jex, supra note 161, at 73.
170. Jex & Elacqua, supra note 91, at 183.
171. Claessens et al., supra note 150, at 938.
173. Shahani et al., supra note 124, at 235.
subscales. Individuals with low scores in Goal Setting are often procrastinators.\footnote{174}{Lay & Schouwenburg, \textit{supra} note 104, at 655.}

Notably, the law students had solid Persistence scores.\footnote{175}{See \textit{LAW STUDENT SURVEY, supra} note 130.} Persistence and Goal Setting typically go hand in hand\footnote{176}{Yitzhak Fried & Linda Haynes Slowik, \textit{Enriching Goal-Setting Theory With Time: An Integrated Approach}, 29 \textit{ACAD. MGMT. REV.} 404, 407 (2004) (discussing how challenging goals increase people’s motivation and persistence to complete the task).}, those who set high goals persist longer than those with low goals.\footnote{177}{Edwin A. Locke & Gary P. Latham, \textit{Work Motivation and Satisfaction: Light at the End of the Tunnel}, 1 \textsc{Psychol. Sci.} 240, 242 (1990) (internal citations omitted) (“People with high goals are not satisfied until they reach their goals or get as close to them as they can; people with high self-efficacy persist in the face of difficulty, because they are convinced that they can succeed.”).} Yet, for law students, that relationship is missing. This suggests the students are working hard but without sufficiently identified incremental and end goals. This disconnect creates time management problems. Without high-quality goals in place, the entire time management process fails.\footnote{178}{Time management, as a process, requires starting from a high quality end goal. The higher the quality of the goal setting, the greater the self-satisfaction and the less the defensesiveness associated with reaching those goals. Barry J. Zimmerman, \textit{Goal Setting: A Key Proactive Source of Academic Self-Regulation}, in \textit{Motivation & Self-Regulated Learning: Theory, Research, and Applications} 267, 269 (Dale H. Schunk & Barry J. Zimmerman eds., 2008). From that end goal, students then need to identify a series of steps to meet those goals. Without these, attempting to create a schedule of accomplishing the goals cannot be done.}

High-quality goals have several characteristics. First, similar to Perceived Control, individuals have a greater commitment to a goal if personal attainment is important.\footnote{179}{Self-efficacy is connected to goal achievement. \textit{See} Barry Zimmerman et al., \textit{Self-Motivation for Academic Attainment: The Role of Self-Efficacy Beliefs and Personal Goal Setting}, 29 \textit{AM. EDUC. RES. J.} 663, 672 (1992).} Some researchers argue self-set goals are ideal,\footnote{180}{See, \textit{e.g.}, Miriam Erez, \textit{Feedback: A Necessary Condition for the Goal Setting-Performance Relationship}, 62 \textit{J. APPLIED PSYCHOL.} 624, 627 (1977).} while others found externally assigned goals result in the same level of achievement.\footnote{181}{See, \textit{e.g.}, Edwin A. Locke & Gary P. Latham, \textit{Building a Practically Useful Theory of Goal Setting and Task Motivation}, 57 \textit{AM. PSYCHOL.} 705, 707-08 (2002) (summarizing nearly four decades of empirical research); Kenneth N. Wexley & Timothy T. Baldwin, \textit{Posttraining Strategies for Facilitating Positive Transfer: An Empirical Exploration}, 29 \textit{ACAD. MGMT. J.} 503, 512 (1986) (finding goal setting is the key to time management training regardless of whether goals are personally assigned or provided by someone else).} What is clear, though, is goal achievement is more likely if there are efforts made to enhance an individual’s belief that the goal is attainable.\footnote{182}{Zimmerman et al., \textit{supra} note 179, at 671–74 (discussing relationship between self-efficacy and goal achievement).}

Second, daily goals are better than weekly goals.\footnote{183}{Albert Bandura & Dale H. Schunk, \textit{Cultivating Competence, Self-Efficacy, and Intrinsic Interest Through Proximal Self-Motivation}, 41 \textit{J. PERSONALITY & SOC. PSYCHOL.} 586, 595 (1981).} Short term
planning is particularly important in the academic setting, as it is positively correlated with GPA. 184 Short term planning is also essential in environments—like the practice of law—where the demands frequently and rapidly change. 185

Third, in the education setting, goals focused on the learning process, not performance outcomes, are best. 186 Accordingly, setting a goal to get an “A” in a class is not as useful to goal achievement as a goal to understand a given subject matter. That said, the more specific the goal, the easier it is to gauge progress. 187

The more of these criteria a goal satisfies, the higher the goal’s quality. Examples of high quality goals might be: “Today, my goal is to learn what constitutes consideration.” Or, “this hour, my goal is to analyze these cases for my draft memo.” Each of these sample goals is specific, short term, and focused on the learning process more than the performance outcome.

High quality goals also help with prioritizing. The two concepts are linked: once a goal is set, an efficient person needs to prioritize tasks in terms of which are most essential to reaching that goal. Training with a focus on teaching participants how to prioritize using a decision making schedule helps students differentiate between important and urgent tasks. 188 This ensures that when time resources are limited, time is still used efficiently.

D. Mechanics

Once short term goals are identified, the next step is short term planning. Mechanics are the planning and scheduling skills needed to achieve one’s goals. 189 This includes planning one’s activities. 190

184. Britton & Tesser, supra note 103, at 408.
185. Id. at 409.
188. In one training study, instructors helped teach how to distinguish and prioritize between tasks with the aid of a decision-making schedule:
This schedule has four cells with advice for planning: If a task is not urgent or important, don’t do the task; when the task is urgent but not important, try to delegate the task to someone else; when a task is urgent and important, do it yourself and make time for it; if a task is important but not urgent, plan to do it later.
Van Eerde, supra note 112, at 426.
189. Mudrack, supra note 91, at 226.
Unfortunately, students are also deficient in this area.\footnote{LAW STUDENT SURVEY, supra note 130.}

Strong Mechanics ensure the day to day mechanisms one uses to organize\footnote{Short range planning skills are more important than long term planning time management skills, at least in terms of academic achievement. See Gregory D. Wells, \textit{Time Management and Academic Achievement}, (unpublished thesis, University of Windsor, Ontario, Canada, 1993) (examining the relationship between time management and academic achievement). In a study of 86 students from University of Windsor, short-range planning was found to be positively and significantly correlated to GPA (0.28). The study also found that confidence in time decisions was positively related to GPAs. Taken together, short-range planning and confidence were stronger predictors of academic achievement than aptitude tests.} and utilize time are well-developed.\footnote{Jan Francis-Smythe, \textit{Time Management in Timing the Future: The Case for a Time-Based Prospective Memory} 143–44 (Joseph Glicksohn & Michael S. Myslobodsky eds., 2006).} This includes practices like using a calendar, keeping notes, and advance planning.\footnote{Macan 1994, supra note 86, at 385.} Mechanics are essential to success, as they are significantly correlated to higher GPA, self-rated performance, and life satisfaction.\footnote{Macan 1990, supra note 88, at 765.} Additionally, high scorers in this subscale tend to have higher cognitive rather than emotional responses.\footnote{See Misra & McKean, supra note 163, at 47 (noting benefits applied to male and female students). There is some question as to the role of gender for this subscale. One study found increased Mechanics scores only lowered behavior, emotional, and physiological reactions to stressors for women. \textit{Id.}}

Surveying a few of the students’ responses to Mechanics questions highlights the problem. At least half the students do not plan out activities sufficiently in advance. In fact, for approximately forty percent of the class, scheduling one week out is a rarity. (See Figure 6).

**Figure 6**

Q: I schedule activities at least one week in advance

![Chart showing the frequency of scheduling activities at least one week in advance.](chart.png)

13.3% Very often
23.3% Frequently
14.2% Seldom
25.0% Occasionally

24.2% True about as often as not
Students also fail to use a daily activity log. (See Figure 7). For a future lawyer, this is a significant issue. The billable hour structure forces lawyers to track their life, generally in such minute detail so as to itemize their day in six minute intervals. To do this, lawyers must utilize a daily log. Trying to recreate their day at the day’s end leads to inaccuracies. In evaluating retroactive time spent, individuals tend to overestimate or underestimate time—rarely, if ever, estimating accurately. For lawyers who bill their time spent to clients responsible for paying for that time, the inability to utilize a daily log transforms a time management issue into an ethical one.

**Figure 7**

**E. Structured Routine**

Lastly, students fell short on Structured Routine. Structured Routine looks at whether an individual uses planning and routine activity to structure time. The concept of routine is related to, but separate from the Mechanics’ planning component. While a plan can vary based on circumstances, Routine focuses on a pattern of conduct in relation to a

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198. Bond & Feather, *supra* note 89, at 325. Interestingly, Structured Routine is one subscale where gender matters. While TSQ numbers are generally unrelated to gender, Structured Routine numbers tend to be higher for women. *Id.* at 326.
particular set of activities within a defined situation. Questions for this time management component include: “Do you plan your activities so that they fall into a particular pattern during the day?” “Do you have a daily routine which you follow?”

Of all the subscales, Structured Routine is one of the lesser researched areas. That said, some information is known. Individuals with high Structured Routine numbers tend to make plans, structure time to achieve those plans, and follow daily routines. These characteristics have significant benefits. They are associated with less hopelessness, less anomie, less extraversion, lower anxiety, more optimism about the present and the future, more Type A behavior, and stronger work ethic. These individuals are also more likely to report higher self-esteem and less depression. Given the pervasive depression and anxiety in law students and practitioners, developing Routine is a priority.

Though research varies, high Structured Routine numbers may indicate better time estimations for future tasks. Even if only minimal gains are made in future task estimates by strengthening Structure Routine, it is worth the effort. Task estimates are key to creating any schedule. Without the ability to roughly estimate how long a project will take, the chance of staying on schedule decreases.

Unfortunately, Structured Routine is something 1Ls lack. For example, more than fifty percent of them do not frequently structure activities to fall into a particular pattern. (See Figures 8 and 9.)

199. Bond & Feather, supra note 89, at 328.
200. Id. at 324.
201. Mudrack, supra note 91, at 224.
203. See Sue J. Hepworth, Moderating Factors of the Psychological Impact of Unemployment, 53 J. OCCUPATIONAL PSYCHOL. 139, 143 (1980) (studying the ability to occupy one’s time as a good mental health predictor); Feather & Bond, supra note 89, at 250. But see Bond & Feather, supra note 89, at 325 (finding self-esteem, depression, psychological distress, and psychical symptoms unrelated to the Structured Routine factor).
204. Francis-Smythe & Robertson, supra note 89, at 345.
205. As one psychologist explains:

If actual task duration is consistently underestimated the individual will run out of time, and not manage to complete all of the planned activities in the available time. On the other hand, if duration is consistently overestimated, then the individual may find time left over which, if realized earlier, could perhaps be used to do something else.

Burt & Kemp, supra note 197, at 157.
Though not as high, the numbers on estimating useful time spent in the last week are troubling. More than forty-seven percent cannot frequently provide this type of estimate. (See Figure 10.) Without reflection on how long it took to complete past tasks, attempts to allocate time to future tasks takes a hit. This is particularly true in law school, where students are developing new skills. Without reflection on how long it took, for example, to brief a case, it would be difficult to estimate how long it will take to complete the next night’s homework.
The five subscales where students fell short relate to different aspects of time—ranging from initially beginning a project (Present Orientation and Goal Setting) through task completion (Perceived Control, Mechanics, and Routine). Hence, to remediate these deficiencies, all five should be taught, not any single one in isolation.

Providing tailored time management solutions during law school could help them respond to time famine in practice. Time management training can be effective. However, for it to work, it has to be more than a self-directed, minimal involvement program. Instead, an approach across the law school curriculum is

2013] LAW STUDENT TIME DEFICIENCIES 935

V. TAKING LESSONS IN TIME MANAGEMENT AND INCORPORATING THEM IN LAW SCHOOL

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Time management training can be effective. However, for it to work, it has to be more than a self-directed, minimal involvement program. Instead, an approach across the law school curriculum is
needed. This ensures students see time management as a vital part of their academic development.

One of the best parts of the training is how easy many of the solutions are to teach. To help develop these skills, professors do not need any specialized instruction or more than the basic understanding of the time management subscales. Hence, there is a real opportunity to make an impact on the quality of law students’ and lawyers’ abilities. But before discussing particular solutions, one elephant in the room must be addressed: who should take responsibility for this training; law schools or practitioners? If law schools, in what courses? These questions are explored next.

A. Taking Responsibility

At present, there is a fight between law schools and the profession—chiefly in terms of who should teach practical skills. Law schools contend legal practitioners are not sufficiently mentoring and teaching young attorneys. Legal practitioners retort that they do not have the financial luxuries to dedicate the amount of non-billable time it takes to provide that kind of apprenticeship. Instead, they argue law schools should shoulder the responsibility.

Until the two sides can agree on some type of solution, those most harmed by the debate are newly graduating law students. They do not get the training needed for success in law school and can’t expect to get

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209. Adamson et al., supra note 119, at 273.

210. Consider the split reactions to the Massachusetts Bar Association’s recent study which advocates for law schools to emulate the medical school model. Mass.Bar Ass’n, Report of the Task Force on Law, the Economy, and Underemployment, Beginning the Conversation 1 (May 17, 2012) (urging Massachusetts law schools to emulate medical and dental schools and “reinvent the third year…to hone their legal writing skills, beyond that offered through traditional first year legal writing programs”). But see Bard, supra note 7, at 139 (refuting “the assumption that medical schools have a long-and-developed tradition of teaching skills to their students”).

211. See, e.g., infra note 213; Dru Stevenson, Should Law Schools Focus on Lawyering Skills?, CIRCUIT SPLITs.COM (May 16, 2012), http://www.circuitsplits.com/2012/05/should-law-schools-focus-on-lawyering-skills.html.

212. See, e.g., Bard, supra note 7, at 183 (“The worsening economic climate has made firms far less willing to serve as training centers because clients are no longer willing to subsidize the training of new lawyers by paying them full rates for the time they bill.”); Barbara J. Busharis & Suzanne E. Rowe, The Gordian Knot: Uniting Skills and Substance in Employment Discrimination and Federal Taxation Courses, 33 J. MARSHALL L. REV. 303, 304 (2000) (“Time constraints and financial pressures have reduced the time practicing attorneys can spend mentoring beginning lawyers; however, members of the bar increasingly demand that students arrive for their first jobs with more than minimal competence in practical lawyering skills.”).
it during practice.\textsuperscript{213} While the sink or swim nature of practice is hardly new,\textsuperscript{214} the waters weren’t quite this dangerous before. If an attorney does not somehow independently figure out how to succeed, there is a growing queue of substitutes to select from.\textsuperscript{215}

Since time management problems manifest during the educational process and continue into practice, the question of ownership must first be answered by law schools. Granted, the legal practice has some responsibility on this front as well.\textsuperscript{216} There needs to be some sensitivity to easing junior associates into practice without overburdening them to the point of burn out. But, the first and more fully developed time management instruction must begin in law school. Teaching 1Ls time management skills and reinforcing those skills throughout their legal education increases the likelihood of preparing graduates for at least a portion of the time famine.

The next question is who in the law school should teach time management skills. At present, for those schools offering this training, it is primarily relegated to orientation programs, academic success programs, and LRW courses.\textsuperscript{217} This is insufficient. Teaching time management skills requires teaching students how to rethink their approaches to handling the day to day aspects of their lives. This is, in essence, a type of behavior modification.\textsuperscript{218} Students are being asked to think about assignments, planning, and execution of that planning in new ways. These skills need to be reinforced throughout law school’s

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\textsuperscript{214} Bartholomew & Oreskovic, supra note 49, at 363–65.

\textsuperscript{215} See, e.g., Class of 2011 Has Lowest Employment Rate Since Class of 1994, NALP BULLETIN (July 2012), http://www.nalp.org/0712research (“The overall employment rate for the Class of 2011 was 85.6% of graduates for whom employment status was known, the lowest rate since 1994, continuing a decline that started in 2008.”); Joe Palazzolo, Law Grads Face Brutal Job Market, WALL ST. J. (June 25, 2012), http://online.wsj.com/article/SB10001424052702304458604577486623469958142.html (“Nationwide, only 55% of the class of 2011 had full-time jobs that required a law degree nine months after graduation.”).

\textsuperscript{216} This is particularly true for addressing the initial increased time management demands associated with practice. See Part II(B) and accompanying notes, supra (discussing the time demands of practice).

\textsuperscript{217} Time management training requires retraining how a person relates to time, both in terms of specific behaviors and ways to structure time. Macan 1990, supra note 88, at 767;

\textsuperscript{218} By the phrase “behavior modification,” I mean the term literally rather than as a psychological term of art. In time management literature, cognitive behavior modification is not a term used to describe time management training. Yet, teaching time management does modify specific time-related behaviors.
curriculum all three years to ensure the most prepared students possible. 219

The proposition that all law professors need to help will inevitably be controversial. 220 Some doctrinal professors may feel incorporating time management distracts from the intellectual focus of their teaching. 221 To this group of scholars, teaching time management is simply not their problem. 222

Quite frankly, this argument misses the point. Until a law student or future attorney has extra time in the day, such legal thought goes wasted without an opportunity for application. 223 Without wading too far into the theory vs. skills debate, there are several, straightforward responses. First, focusing legal education on helping lawyers generate such great ideas is commendable, but only if it is tempered with providing the requisite skills to help attorneys implement them. 224 Part of “thinking like a lawyer” is generating solutions in the limited time a lawyer has for the task.

Second, teaching time management skills is far from time consuming
for the educator. Developing these skills does not cost a lot of valuable class time. Admittedly, it may take some tweaking of how material and assignments are presented; there is a ramp up cost. But once the revisions to a course are made, they can be used repeatedly in subsequent years.

Third, at this point in time, teaching this skill is a moral and ethical issue. As an academy, we have to take some responsibility for our graduating students’ success . . . or failure. With junior attorneys leaving practice in droves, at least in part because of time famine, we no longer have the luxury of faculty members ignoring the issue. This is particularly true given legal education’s increasing cost. By some measures, more than half of practitioners leave the field before they finish paying for the very education needed to get hired. Hence, by ignoring time management problems, the legal academy is contributing to our graduates’ debt problems.

Fourth, while LRW courses are an ideal place to start implementing time management, they are already asked to carry too much of the “skills load” at most schools. LWR is often the bastard child of legal

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225. See Orpen, supra note 208 (describing some of the effective types of time management programs).

226. Some reports claim that the practice of law pushes 40,000 lawyers to leave the profession annually. See, e.g., Jones, supra note 77. This statistic is particularly startling given that the total number of J.D.S and LLBs awarded for the 2009–10 academic year was 44,004. See Enrollment and Degrees Awarded, 1963–2010, ABA, http://www.americanbar.org/content/dam/aba/administrative/legal_education_and_admissions_to_the_bar/stats_1.authcheckdam.pdf (last visited Apr. 17, 2013).

227. See Jones, supra note 77.


229. The standard repayment plan calls for 120 equal monthly payments over ten years, roughly half the time it takes for so many young lawyers to leave practice. Philip G. Schrag & Charles W. Pruett, Coordinating Loan Repayment Assistance Programs with New Federal Legislation, 60 J. LEGAL EDUC. 583, 586 (2011). Law schools have a disincentive to address this problem. So long as practitioners leave practice, the need for new lawyers remains—as does the corresponding need to educate more students to fill those positions. Yet, given the decreased enrollment numbers in law schools nationwide, in conjunction with the raising costs of legal education, the time has come to really analyze why so many lawyers hate what they do. See Koppel, supra note 18 (discussing decreased law school enrollment numbers).

230. This burden is compounded by the submission and feedback cycle associated with most LRW courses. See Kathryn M. Stanchi & Jan M. Levine, Gender and Legal Writing: Law Schools’ Dirty Little Secrets, 16 BERKELEY WOMEN’S L.J. 3, 7 n.21, 20 n.91 (2001) (describing how teaching LRW courses require more work than doctrinal courses).
education, assigned with teaching everything from professionalism to composition to analysis to ethics, depending on the school. Other courses should share the responsibility.

Accordingly, to address time famine in legal education and practice, the buy-in needs to be across the curriculum. Legal education could combat the time management issue on multiple fronts: through academic support programs like orientations, in doctrinal courses, and in skills classes. This multi-faceted approach would emphasize the importance of time management and allow constant reinforcement.

With the issue of who should teach time management addressed, the focus now turns to what can be done. Many of the suggestions may seem rudimentary at first. Where these suggestions differ, though, is that they are specifically tailored to the narrow time management issues law students have. Hence, rather than a shotgun approach to teaching time management, law schools can instead offer a focused, measured, and thus hopefully more productive means of remediying some of the problems.

B. The Fix

In analyzing the data on 1Ls’ time management deficiencies, an interesting phenomenon became apparent: many of the solutions to the problems overlap. This means that with some minor adjustments, we can do a great deal to help students cope with time famine. The critical instruction falls into three categories: teaching students to break down tasks, teaching time allocation skills, and teaching techniques to


233. The need to integrate practical skills across the curriculum has been advocated by others though remains an ideal rather than reality. See, e.g., Alice M. Noble-Allgire, Desegregating the Law School Curriculum: How to Integrate More of the Skills and Values Identified by the MacCrate Report Into a Doctrinal Course, 3 NEV. L. J. 32 (2003); Carol McCrehan Parker, Writing Throughout the Curriculum: Why Law Schools Need It and How to Achieve It, 76 NEB. L. REV. 561 (1997).

234. By introducing time management concepts as part of students’ orientation, students are primed to understand that their prior coping skills may be insufficient and new techniques must be explored. By reinforcing time management skills in doctrinal classes, particularly those incorporating a writing component, students understand that time management is not a concept unique to LRW but rather a skill necessary for efficient legal work more generally.
implement those allocations.235

1. Teaching Students to Break Down Tasks

Teaching students how to break down assignments addresses three of
students’ time management deficiencies—Present Orientation,
Perceived Control, and Goal Setting. As a shorthand, this strategy can
be called “chunking.” In this Article, “chunking” means dividing a
project into smaller, more manageable units, which can be planned and
controlled. These smaller chunks make the project more achievable.236
Once a project is viewed as a set of short term goals to achieve a long
term goal, an individual’s Perceived Control improves.237 A student can
track her progress by using the short term goals as markers.238 These
markers also help with Present Orientation. At a minimum, they make
reflection on past missteps less relevant. More importantly, they help
maintain some rein on future-oriented thinking since the focus is on the
here and now.239

Despite the value of chunking, students regularly ignore this key time
management technique.240 Merely recommending students break down
tasks will not suffice: they need to be required to engage in chunking
until this skill becomes second nature. Law school orientation and
courses offer multiple opportunities to teach chunking.

235. This three step model is similar to the phases of self-regulated learning: preaction phase,
action phase, and postaction phase. See, e.g., Heinz Heckhausen & Julius Kuhl, From Wishes to
Actions: The Dead Ends and Short Cuts on the Long Way to Action, in GOAL DIRECTED BEHAVIOR: THE
CONCEPT OF ACTION IN PSYCHOLOGY 134–59 (Michael Frese & John Sabini eds., 1985). Much like
self-regulated learning, time management training requires retraining one’s mind into adopting
and implementing strategies for academic success. Accordingly, modeling a solution of self-regulated
learning theory means students not only develop time management skills, but get the added value of
improving their self-regulated learning, which in turn increases one’s self-efficacy and motivation. See
Heidrun Stoeger & Albert Ziegler, Evaluation of Classroom Based Training to Improve Self-Regulation
in Time Management Tasks During Homework Activities with Fourth Graders, 3 METACOGNITION
LEARNING 207 (2008) (discussing how increased self-regulatory skills and self-efficacy increases
motivation).

236. Walter H. Gmelch, Stress for Success, 22 THEORY INTO PRACTICE 7, 12 (1983) (discussing
how breaking larger projects into smaller chunks also minimizes stress and chance of burnout); C.A.J.
McLauchlan, Time Management, 14 J. ACCIDENTAL EMERGENCY MED. 345, 346 (1997); John R. Slate
et al., Study Skills of Students at a Post-Secondary Vocational-Technical Institute, 35 J. INDUS.
TEACHER ED. 57, 59 (Winter 1998).

237. These smaller markers allow students to better track their task completion. Once they get a
sense that the tasks can be done in the given amount of time, their confidence in their available time
will in turn increase. This confidence is central to Perceived Control. See Part IV(B), supra (discussing
Perceived Control).

238. Bandura, supra note 187, at 49.

239. Bond & Feather, supra note 89, at 325.

240. Misra & McKean, supra note 163, at 42; Robert Brown, Helping Students Confront and Deal
First, orientation programs should include a component on Goal Setting. Students need to examine their motivations and goals for their law school experience. As a professor who teaches during orientation, I ask many students what they want from their law school experience. Invariably, the answer is something like, “I want to be a lawyer.” This type of generalized goal is useless in terms of constructive planning. Students should be asked to identify more concrete goals early on. Then, once these long term goals are identified, professors involved in orientation should help students generate short term goals aimed at achieving these long term goals.

Given 1Ls’ lack of goal setting skills, the starting point may be a list of sample goals to begin a cogent brainstorming session. To minimize using precious orientation time on this task, it could be handled through pre-orientation readings on goal setting and assignments asking students to generate personal goals. These goals can then be discussed in a later group setting.

While this practice should start at orientation, goal setting also has relevance to doctrinal courses. In classes with more traditional, end of term exams or classes with more of a doctrinal than skills bent, students need instruction on how to break down courses into digestible units. This allows students to think of their courses as a series of related concepts, rather than a single, amorphous concept. For example, rather than a student attempting to set goals to learn “Torts,” the student’s goal setting would be greatly enhanced if she viewed Torts as intentional torts, negligence, economic torts, products liability, and nuisance. While on its face this may seem like an oversimplification of a course, it allows students to see both the forest and the trees. It also illustrates how to take large chunks of legal knowledge and see them as identifiable goals.

By understanding the building blocks, students begin to set short term goals—which are exactly what is needed for time management.

241. This goal suffers from being an outcome oriented goal as well as not sufficiently precise. See Part IV(C) and accompanying notes, supra (discussing the characteristics of high quality goals).
242. See id.
243. See Part IV(C), supra (discussing characteristics of high quality goals).
244. An added benefit of a group discussion is peer awareness. When peers are engaged in the time management training, it helps with self-management. Van Erde, supra note 112, at 431.
245. Some early time management research called breaking tasks into smaller parts the “salami technique.” See Brown, supra note 240, at 88 (internal citation omitted) (“Bliss (1978) calls this approach the ‘salami technique,’ suggesting that although the idea of eating a whole salami is unappetizing, taken a slice at a time, it can be quite tasty.”).
246. This in turn increases Perceived Control because it helps students see how the larger project, which may seem overwhelming, is actually a sum of various tasks achievable within the student’s time restraints. See Part IV(B), supra.
247. Britton & Tesser, supra note 103, at 407 (discussing how short term plans are more effective...
Professors can help students identify these blocks by improving syllabi, clarifying course objectives, and requiring outlines.

First, a strong syllabus can play a large part in breaking down a course. A syllabus provides an opportunity for the professor to show the relationship between parts and a whole. In reviewing syllabi for this research, I found many syllabi are not going quite far enough to help show the connection between the chunks of information and the end goal.

For example, compare these two entries for a hypothetical first year Contracts course. Assume the fourth class lecture is on promissory estoppel. The professor has some options on how to structure the syllabus entry for this class:

**Sample syllabus entry #1**

| Lecture 4 (2/12) | Promissory estoppel | Pg. 16–48 |

**Sample syllabus entry #2**

| Lecture 4 (2/12) | Requirements for Enforcement: Consideration: Substitutes: Promissory Estoppel | Pg. 16–48 |

Sample #1 may be straightforward, but it fails to illustrate the relationship between this concept and the larger educational concept, namely an understanding of an enforceable contract. While Sample #2 is just a minor revision of the entry, students can instantly see how Lecture 4 fits together with prior lectures.

Second, students need instruction on what the course objectives are, and there is no one better to define those objectives than the professor than long term plans for time management). Short range planning is particularly helpful for academic achievement, as measured by GPA. Id. at 409.


249. Generally, the mindset on syllabi is they serve little purpose beyond posting readings. See, e.g., Burnele V. Powell, *A Defense of the Socratic Method: An Interview with Martin B. Louis (1934–94)*, 73 N.C. L. REV. 957, 983 (1995) (describing a syllabus as “fairly monkey-work” and arguing “There’s nothing in a syllabus that’s education beyond the obvious [what do we read tomorrow]?”).
who designed the course. Then, using these objectives to generate long term goals, students should be encouraged to set individual short term goals aimed at achieving the larger objectives. The more specific and focused on the learning process, the more useful the goal.

Expecting new law students to self-identify goals as 1Ls is unrealistic, but over time, professors can taper off the amount of assistance students receive in generating these goals. Even a mere fifteen minutes twice in the semester could begin to make progress on goal setting and planning. This is not a major redesign but rather a minor modification with potential for substantive gain.

Though a bit more time consuming, another option is having professors identify short term goals at the start of each lecture. A professor would ideally start by recapping a few key concepts from the prior class and itemizing the key concepts he intends to cover during that lecture. This allows students to track how larger concepts can be broken down, as well as giving students some markers to help pace themselves.

Third, incremental and attack outlines provide a strong teaching opportunity for Goal Setting and Perceived Control. Incremental outlines help ensure students generate short term learning goals regarding specific course concepts. Though short, they are

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250. Given the push towards outcome assessments in legal education, setting and sharing these objectives has added benefits. Not only does it help students with goal setting, it helps ensure a better structured, more successful course. See, e.g., OUTCOME MEASURES, supra note 4. This reform attempt geared at providing practical markers for evaluating legal education is not without its critics. See, e.g., Sarah Randag, ABA Effort to Add Outcomes to Accreditation Standards Rolls Law Deans, ABA J. (Feb 22, 2010 4:35 PM CDT), http://www.abajournal.com/news/article/aba_effort_to_add_outcomes_to_accreditation_standards_rolls_law_deans/; Statement By New England Deans Concerning the Proposed Revision of the ABA Standards Regarding Outcome Assessments (2009) (supporting the general idea of outcome assessments but advocating that each school must be free to come up with individualized assessments rather than a uniform of measures which would allow schools to be measured against other schools).

251. See Part IV(C), supra. (discussing characteristics of high quality goals); see also Dale H. Schunk, Goal-Setting and Self-Efficacy During Self-Regulated Learning, 25 EDUC. PSYCHOL. 71, 76 (1990) (explaining how short term goals boost self-regulated learning, increased self-efficacy, and higher levels of motivation).

252. See Mirian E. Felsenburg & Laura P. Graham, Beginning Legal Writers in Their Own Words: Why the First Weeks of Legal Writing Are So Tough and What We Can Do About It, 16 LEGAL WRITING J. LEGAL WRITING INST. 223, 254–56 (2011) (discussing students’ misconceptions about what they will study in law school). This is particularly true for first generation law students, namely those without the benefit of lawyer family members or mentors. Id.

253. Both these skills help with Perceived Control. See Part IV(B), supra.

254. While there are exceptionally few law review articles talking about attack outlines, students are well aware of what these are. See, e.g., Dorothy H. Evensen, To Group or Not to Group: Students’ Perceptions of Collaborative Learning Activities in Law School, 28 S. ILL. U. L. J. 343, 346 (2004) (discussing students’ strategies for creating attack outlines—one of the few law review articles to even acknowledge attack outlines exist in law school). The internet is chockfull of sample attack outlines and blogs discussing them. See, e.g., Before the Exam—The One-Page Outline, LAWNERDS.COM,
deceptively difficult to draft, as they require students weed through information and prioritize between details. This prioritizing is analogous to Goal Setting. Collecting outlines helps establish Routine in the first year. In later years, mere reminders that it is a good time to catch up on outlines would keep students thinking about and applying time management skills.

2. Teaching Time Allocation

Viewing learning as a set of achievable short term goals won’t fight time famine without the next steps: (1) generating tasks, and (2) creating a plan for allocating time to complete those tasks.

Generating tasks requires students to convert goals into concrete tasks. While a goal is abstract, a task is more the “to-do” list item that ensures the goal is achievable. This transitive ability is required to build Routine and Mechanics. Some students struggle with identifying what tasks are necessary to meet law school short term goals. Consequently, professors should help develop this essential skill by discussing potential tasks aimed at achieving learning goals.

Once these “to-do” lists become part of students’ time management arsenal, instruction should focus on how to allocate time. Time allocation is essential to Routine, Mechanics, and Perceived Control.

Time is a limited resource—the goal with any strong time management regime is to allocate time efficiently.

http://lawnerds.com/guide/oulining.html#BeforetheExam (last visited Nov. 2, 2012) (“In the final week before the exam, if not before, you should condense your outline into one page. This page—known as an attack outline—serves as a checklist of issues as you read the exam. The attack outline helps you organize your answer, remind you of key points and to make sure that you haven’t missed an issue. The attack outline transforms good students into outstanding students.”); Dood, Outlines from my 3 years at GW (2012 Grad), TOP-LAW-SCHOOLS.COM (April 21, 2009 11:29 AM), http://www.top-law-schools.com/forums/viewtopic.php?f=11&t=82410 (posting 3Ls’ attack outlines from all three years of law school). There is even one webpage strictly devoted to selling attack outlines, though I would hardly attest to their worth from the limited sample available. See TONY BREEDEN’S ATTACK SHEETS!, https://www.attacksheets.com (last visited Nov. 2, 2012).

255. Just recommending students complete these incremental outlines is not enough, given students’ propensity to ignore chunking advice. See Misra & McKean, supra note 163, at 41 (discussing how students fail to follow advice on breaking larger tasks into more manageable chunks).

256. Van Eerde, supra note 112, at 430–31 (discussing how goal-orientated task generating is effective to combat procrastination); see also Peter M. Gollwitzer & Veronika Brandstatter, Implementation Intentions and Effective Goal Pursuit, 73 J. PERSONALITY & SOC. PSYCHOL. 186, 186 (1997) (discussing linking goals and tasks).

257. See Part IV(B), (D), (E), supra (explaining Routine, Mechanics, and Perceived Control subscales).

258. See Claessens et al., supra note 84, at 256 (defining self management as the “performance of multiple tasks within a certain time period”).
time is spent.259 Although a basic premise, few students actually know how they spend their time. Law school can offer several ways to develop time reflection.

Students should be encouraged from the start of their legal education to view it as a job with set work hours each week.260 This message should be included in orientation and reinforced across the law school experience by administrators and educators. Just as in “real life,” some weeks may require additional hours of work but generally the baseline remains forty hours per week.261 By creating this mindset, the quantity of allocable time remains constant, which in turn helps develop Routine.262

To allocate the forty hours, students need awareness of how long tasks take. The human mind is notorious for its inability to quantify time.263 There is little point in a student planning to spend two hours brainstorming an idea if she later does not stick to that allocation. When using a timing device, focus is maintained—thus avoiding problems with procrastination and distracters.264

In addition to a timing device, time logs are a starting place to evaluate time famine complaints.265 As Alex MacKenzie, a well-
respected time management researcher, explains:

The time inventory, or log, is necessary because the painful task of changing our habits requires far more conviction than we can build from learning about the experience of others. We need the amazing revelation of the great portion of time we are wasting to provide the determination to manage ourselves more effectively in this respect.266

In the technological era, the traditional paper and pen journal can be substituted with an on-line time audit.267 Whatever the medium, students should self-monitor their time use.268

Integrating this concept into the law classroom setting is straightforward. Professors can require students keep a mandatory task billing sheet or its equivalent for at least some assignments.269 To ensure its efficacy, students need to be told the total numbers of hours reported is irrelevant—this is not an exercise in padding time but rather an opportunity to reflect on how the student completes tasks. By making it a required submission, professors can ensure that it is taken seriously.270

This type of exercise provides insight into several key aspects of one’s teaching.271 It allows a professor to see how much time students spend on the class, whether the professor’s instructions are sufficiently clear to ensure students are not distracted by side issues, and an understanding of how students analyze the steps necessary to complete the assignments. It also allows professors an opportunity to evaluate


266. McKENZIE, supra note 72, at 20–21.


269. Many professors are already requiring students to keep billing records, which suggests this is far from a burdensome task for professors or students. See, e.g., Robert C. Illig, Teaching Transactional Skills Through Simulations in Upper-Level Courses: Three Exemplars, 2009 TRANSACTIONS: TENN. J. BUS. L. 15, 34 n.29 (2009); Spencer L. Sinoms, Navigating Through the Fog: Teaching Legal Research and Writing Students to Master Indeterminacy Through Structure and Process, 56 J. LEGAL EDUC. 356, 369 (2006); Nancy Ver Steegh, Using Externships to Introduce Family Law Students to New Professional Roles, 43 FAM. CT. REV. 137, 142 (2005).

270. I require a billing sheet with the final fall semester assignment in my year-long LRW course. Though the billing sheet is not graded, no final submission is complete without it. I find that the billing sheet helps solidify the tasks required for generating legal documents, and this exercise pays off in the second semester of the course with students having a stronger understanding of Goal Setting, Routine, and Perceived Control.

whether students are generating tasks productive to achieving the end goals.  

3. Sticking to It

Next, once tasks and time reflection skills are in place, the last piece of the time management training focuses on how to establish daily time organization practices. Students need more advice than, “just prepare a schedule and stick with it.” They need guidance on how to actually stick with it. While the solutions proffered primarily focus on Mechanics and Routine, they also improve Goal Setting and Perceived Control. Described generally, the third and final set of proposed solutions focus on developing: (1) calendaring systems; (2) note taking; and (3) markers for assessing progress.

a. Calendaring Systems

Calendaring is an essential lawyering skill that needs modeling and application in legal education. Any lawyer worth his billable rate uses some type of calendaring system—not just to avoid malpractice, but because remembering deadlines for a myriad of cases is next to impossible. Yet in contrast, at least a third of law students do not keep an appointment book or calendar.

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272. Stated differently, providing feedback on the entries has the added benefit of improving Goal setting. See Locke & Latham, supra note 177, at 241 (discussing how feedback is a key aspect of goal achievement). For professors who hold conferences or office hours with students, this information is invaluable. It allows individualized feedback on how to guide students towards better, more efficient performance. Further, if a student fails to meet the deadline or says she wishes she had more time to complete the project, the time log is a starting part for evaluating whether the student simply didn’t spend enough time on the assignment or misspent her time.

273. See, e.g., PARRISH & KNOX, supra note 24, at 61 (“Ensuring adequate preparation of time for each and every class will require setting a study schedule and sticking with it. You will create a schedule. You will stick with it. You will schedule three hours of study time for every hour of class. I do not mean three hours a week for each class you have. I mean three hours each week for every hour you are in class. If you meet for twelve hours during a week, you will schedule approximately thirty six hours of studying time for the week (What, you say—that’s more than forty hours a week! Heaven forbid. Welcome to real life, kiddo!).”)

274. Mark Bassingthwaighte, Understanding & Minimizing the Risks of Administrative Legal Malpractice Claims, 23 LAW. PC § (July 1, 2006) (“According to the American Bar Association Standing Committee on Lawyers’ Professional Liability, the top five administrative malpractice risks are procrastination, failure to calendar, clerical error, failure to react and failure to file documents.”); David B. Wilkins, Who Should Regulate Lawyers?, 105 HARV. L. REV. 799, 832 (1992) (“Anecdotal evidence suggests that the threat of malpractice liability has caused corporate lawyers to institute a number of preventative measures, such as circulating master calendars, keeping better track of their time, and implementing continuing legal education courses.”); William H. Gates, The Newest Data on Lawyers’ Malpractice Claims, 70 A.B.A. J. 78, 80 (Apr. 1984) (most common attorney failing was failure to calendar properly).

275. Notably, 43.3% of students very often use an appointment book, which is promising.
To help on this front, courses need to utilize calendars.\textsuperscript{276} By forcing students to start using calendars, they improve Mechanics and develop Routine.\textsuperscript{277} On syllabi, readings and topics should be presented by date, not just by topic or lecture number. Even better, given the rise of electronic course management systems like TWEN and Blackboard, assignments and deadlines can be posted on a calendar. This will allow students to see how a calendar system can help to manage a series of deadlines, so students can model this behavior in organizing assignments in law school and later in practice.

In addition, since students are already preparing “to-do” lists, these lists should be tied into calendars. It is the next logical step in developing Mechanics. Students should be asked to allocate the “to-do” items across a calendar with those calendars collected, particularly in the 1L year, to ensure compliance.\textsuperscript{278} Calendaring should include not only the date a task will be done, but also the time during that day. Students should be reminded that attempting to complete numerous tasks in large chunks of time is not as productive as spacing out the tasks with scheduled breaks to ensure enhanced efficiency and quality.\textsuperscript{279} This is particularly true for writing assignments, where attempting to write large chunks of a submission in a single sitting leads to procrastination, as well as the dreaded writer’s block.\textsuperscript{280}

\textit{b. Note Taking}

In addition to calendaring, note taking helps ensure timely task completion. Note taking is a basic study and time management skill with application in law school and in practice. Yet, it is also an area where students need further instruction.\textsuperscript{281} This is particularly true in the

\begin{footnotesize}
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\item 276. Some courses already understand how important calendaring skills are and require students to calendar. See, e.g., John Sonteng et al., \textit{Learning By Doing: Preparing Law Students for the Practice of Law}, 21 WM. MITCHELL L. REV. 111, 118 (1995) (discussing using calendars as part of a practicum).
\item 277. Mechanics is significantly correlated to Routine. Shahani et al., supra note 124, at 236. Calendaring allows students to memorialize their planning behavior inherent to Routine. See Bond & Feather, supra note 89, at 328.
\item 278. See Misra & McKean, supra note163, at 42 (discussing how just suggesting planning is not enough because students often ignore the advice). With free electronic calendaring options, such as Google calendars (\textsc{Google Calendar}, http://google.com/calendar (last visited July 31, 2012)) and Cozi calendaring apps (\textsc{Cozi}, http://www.cozi.com (last visited July 31, 2012)), students can easily adopt a calendaring system and print an extra copy for submission.
\item 279. Britton & Tesser, supra note 103, at 406.
\item 281. Jolly-Ryan, supra note 35, at 126 (“Some students take lousy notes or no notes at all in
computer age, where the tendency is for students to transcribe lectures rather than take notes.\textsuperscript{282} Strong note taking skills are analogous to prioritizing\textsuperscript{283}—which is a key part of Goal Setting. Traditional note taking skills require students to sort and prioritize information.\textsuperscript{284} Details are left out with the emphasis placed on higher priority information.

There are multiple different ways a professor can develop note taking skills, all of which are fairly straightforward. First, professors should consider giving at least some assignments orally, even just readings or exercises. No written details for the assignment should be handed out: unless the student takes accurate notes, the assignment should be difficult to complete. This way, students are required to take accurate notes and begin developing note taking skills.

Second, for each lecture, a professor should collect notes from a designated person or group of people depending on class size. Submitting notes ensures students develop note taking, while also having the added benefit of potentially increasing students’ interest in the course.\textsuperscript{285} This allows the professor to gauge potential areas of confusion as well as weak students. It also lets professors provide feedback on Mechanics.\textsuperscript{286} In reviewing the notes, look for whether students are identifying the primary propositions. Strong notes consistently identify more concepts as a whole, but additionally place emphasis on the important concepts.\textsuperscript{287}

Third, professors should require students bring notepads to office

\textsuperscript{282.} See, e.g., Kevin Yamamoto, \textit{Banning Laptops in the Classroom: Is it Worth the Hassles?}, 57 J. LEGAL EDUC. 477, 502–03 (2007) (discussing the problems of law school notes that transcribe lectures rather than identifying important information).

\textsuperscript{283.} See Gilles O. Einstein et al., \textit{Note-Taking, Individual Differences, and Memory for Lecture Information}, 77 J. EDUC. PSYCH. 522, 522 (1985) (discussing how note taking encourages more elaborate processing of individual ideas as well as greater organization of lecture material); see also Richard E. Mayer, \textit{Elaboration Techniques that Increase the Meaningfulness of Technical Test: an Experimental Test of the Learning Strategy Hypothesis}, 72 J. EDUC. PSYCH. 770, 770–84 (1980), (discussing how strong note taking skills “encourage relational processing and the identification of superordinate concepts . . .”).

\textsuperscript{284.} Einstein et al., supra note 283, at 523.


\textsuperscript{286.} See Locke & Latham, supra note 177, at 241 (discussing how feedback is a key aspect of goal achievement).

\textsuperscript{287.} Bonnie Potts, \textit{Improving the Quality of Student Notes}, ERIC/AE Digest (1993).
hours or individual conferences. Rarely this spontaneously occurs. Instead, students will come in with laptops not yet turned on or, worse, ask for a piece of paper to take notes. Not only does this create an impression of a lack of professionalism, it also invites time famine problems.

c. Encourage Reflection on the Success of Task Completion

Finally, the last part of teaching time management is encouraging students to cogitate on their personal time management techniques. Professors should encourage students to reflect on their time allocations, “to-do” lists, and calendars to see what is working, and more importantly, what it isn’t. This type of reflection has two main benefits. First, it helps students become more aware of their specific time issues, as well as forcing the type of self-reflection necessary to modify their behavior going forward. By having students observe and reflect on their time strategies, they are able to make adaptive inferences, meaning the type of inferences essential to improving time management. Repeating this self-reflection process over several cycles is ideal, as it allows students to adjust and try different strategies.

Second, it helps students see the link between time management and their learning outcomes. This link is essential to motivating students to continue using these skills, despite the learning curve inherent in developing a new skill. This type of self-reflection is the necessary last step to the time management training.


289. To incorporate this time-management self-reflection in law school, students should be asked to evaluate their goal setting and task achievement at key points in a given course. An ideal time for such self-reflection is after a midterm or submission of a writing assignment for a class. Students should be asked to review their calendar of tasks, billing records, and any other time tracking mechanisms they use. At most, these reflective memos would be a page, thus making the time a professor would need to devote to reviewing them minimal. But the key aspect of this portion of time management training is reinforcing the value of time management skills.

290. This type of self-evaluation is often referenced to as “strategic outcome monitoring” and is considered a key part of developing self-regulated learning skills. See, e.g., Stoeger & Ziegler, supra note 235, at 209.


293. Id.
management instruction cycle. It not only ensures effort spent on sticking to time allocations is successful, but it also ensures the entire time management process develops the skills future lawyers most need to combat the time demands of practice.

VI. CONCLUSION

This Article is the starting point for further research on legal time management. It provides a preliminary understanding of law students’ time management deficiencies. Time restraints in practice are not going away. While suggestions to reduce the temporal pressures of legal practice have been floated, such reform is unlikely in the near future. Accordingly, efforts to address time famine in the legal profession are left to legal education. Luckily, as this Article discusses, it might not take much to help. None of the suggestions proffered require great expenditures of time, money, or effort by law school faculties or administrators. None of the suggestions substantively detract from the existing curriculum offered by law schools. Instead, these are just tweaks at the edges of the existing curriculum. But these tweaks are essential. Without them, law students will continue entering practice ill-prepared for the realities that await them.