

STRESS AND TIME MANAGEMENT: THE DEVELOPMENT
OF AN AWARENESS AND TRAINING PROGRAM FOR
OLDER CHILDREN

CENTRE FOR NEWFOUNDLAND STUDIES

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**STRESS AND TIME MANAGEMENT: THE
DEVELOPMENT OF AN AWARENESS AND
TRAINING PROGRAM FOR OLDER
CHILDREN**

by

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Abstract

The following document is a report on a project which had as its primary goal to develop and implement a Stress and Time-Management Training and Awareness Program for older children between the ages of 10 and 12 in a selected rural Newfoundland school setting. Difficulties with time-management (especially as it relates to school work and intrapersonal concerns) were emphasized.

Following a thorough review of the research literature, the investigator developed six modules based on the research findings. MODULE I (Children and Stress) is designed to enhance children's awareness level of the stress concept and help them develop a variety of effective coping strategies. MODULE II (Learning To Say No! Assertiveness Training) provides activities that can be used to help children develop appropriate assertive responses. MODULE III (Goal Setting) deals with goal setting behaviours. Included are activities designed to help children develop more realistic and attainable goals. MODULE IV (Time Usage) is designed to help children become more aware of their current use of time with regard to school work and leisure activities. MODULE V (Prioritization) contains activities designed to help children learn how to prioritize tasks and activities according to their level of importance.

Finally, MODULE VI (Scheduling) provides children with strategies for scheduling weekly activities and events.

Eight children (mean age = 11.2) participated in the implementation phase of the program. As an addendum to the project, a brief evaluation of module I was conducted. In general, results of the evaluation indicated that the participants achieved the objectives of module I with a relatively high degree of success. More specifically, however, the results suggest that the participants achieved an adequate understanding of the general concept of stress.

Table of Contents

	Page
Acknowledgements	ii
Abstract	iii
CHAPTER I	8
Introduction	8
Purpose of the Project	8
Rationale and Significance	8
Definition of Terms	12
Limitations of the Project	12
CHAPTER II	14
Review of Related Literature	14
Concepts of Stress	14
Children and Stress	18
Sources of Stress	21
Signs of Stress	23
Stress in Schools	25
Strategies for Coping With Stress	27
Social Support and Stress	32
Stress Management Programs	37
Time Management Research	39

Concept of Time Management	42
Measurement of Time Management	45
Time Management and Academic Achievement	47
Student's Attitudes Toward Time Usage	50
The Effects of Time-Management Training Programs	57
Time Management Strategies	60
CHAPTER III	73
Project Design, Methodology, Procedure, and Evaluation	73
Project Design	73
Methodology	74
Subjects	76
Procedure	77
Evaluation	79
CHAPTER IV	81
Stress and Time management: An Awareness and Training Program for Older Children (Manual)	81
Module I (Children and Stress)	85
Module II (Learning To Say No! Assertiveness Traini . . .	120
Module III (Goal Setting)	137
Module IV (Using Your Time)	170
Module V (Prioritization)	182

Module VI (Creating a Schedule)	188
References	195
Appendices	209
Appendix A - School Board Approval	209
Appendix B - Parental Consent Form	212
Appendix C - Ethical Procedures	216
Appendix D - Stress Survey	219

CHAPTER I

Introduction

Purpose of the Project

The purpose of this project was to develop and implement a Stress and Time-Management Awareness and Training program for older children between the ages of 10 and 12 in a selected rural Newfoundland school setting. Difficulties with time-management, especially as it relates to school work and intrapersonal concerns, were emphasized along with coping strategies useful for addressing such difficulties. An addendum to the project was an evaluation of one module of the program (Module I: What Does Stress Mean) to allow for subsequent modifications.

Rationale and Significance

Over the years the phenomenon of stress and stress related issues has received much attention in the research literature, especially as it applies to the adult population. More recently, however, researchers have recognized that stress can have a significant effect on children, especially young children and adolescents. As a result, researchers are now encouraging the development of programs that will increase children's ability to recognize and to cope with stress (Henderson, Kelbey, & Engebretson, 1992; Omizo, Omizo, & Suzuki, 1988).

The identification of school life events that are perceived by children to be stressful have been researched by Dickey and Henderson (1989). The authors suggest that educators must investigate both children's perceptions of stressful life events and the coping mechanisms used to deal with these experiences. Such information would assist educators in the development and implementation of appropriate training programs. Such programs would help children utilize existing coping strategies and develop new ones. The authors stated that, "such a program can then extend into presentation and practice of positive techniques which children can learn and use for a healthier emotional and physical life" (p. 17).

In a recent study by Wellman (1990), levels and types of stress were examined among junior high school students (ages 12 to 14 years). The sample consisted of 212 students (118 females and 94 males) in a selected rural Newfoundland setting. The following stress-related factors were investigated: coping strategies, degree of participation in activities, and interest levels in specified activities. The data were collected via an instrument consisting of four scales. Student Scales I and II identified the level of stress and coping as perceived by each participant. Student scale III and IV measured the level of participation in activities and interests in activities. The items on scale I were divided by means of a factor analysis into five categories: Time Management; Intrapersonal; Locus of Control; Interpersonal; and Academic Expectations. An analysis of the results

revealed that difficulty with time management, especially as it relates to school-related activities, was ranked as the highest contributor to stress levels. Factors related to health and attitudes toward self and others (intrapersonal category) served as the second highest factor. The author suggests that "emphasis on any helping strategy should probably be on time management, especially in regard to scheduling school-related work" (p. 57).

In a similar study conducted by Mate (1991) 69 urban Newfoundland elementary school children in grades five and six were investigated on four factors: (a) sources and degrees of stress; (b) coping strategies; (c) leisure time usage; and (d) inter-individual differences in stress, coping strategies, and leisure time usage, according to selected biographical variables. Quantitative data were obtained via fixed response items in a questionnaire. Student Scale I dealt with interpersonal, intrapersonal, locus of control, and time management. Student Scale II measured coping strategies while scales III and IV dealt with leisure time activities. In *Causes and Manifestations of Stress* (Student Scale I), the sub-scales of Time Management, Interpersonal, Intrapersonal, and Locus of Control, in that order, were perceived as being most stressful. No significant differences were found between the sub-scales. A significant finding in this study (as with the Wellman study) was that time management was the highest rated sub-scale.

Pisarchick (1989) suggests that students who chronically mismanage their time provoke in others and in themselves undue amounts of stress.

Such students frequently have difficulty with the organization and utilization of time. Because of fear, low self-concept, confusion or poor habits they may: procrastinate, waste time, spend more time getting ready for a task than doing the task, lack planning and/or goal setting skills, leave tasks unfinished, do only what they are comfortable or successful doing (and thereby avoid doing what is necessary or required), spend time daydreaming, acting out or in some way being off task. In general, they may be out of sync with themselves and the world about them. (Pisarchick, 1989, p.

1)

Therefore, the investigator set out to develop a program for older children that would address these difficult issues. More specifically, a stress and time management awareness and training program was developed based on the findings of the research literature. Six modules are included in the program, each of which provide a number of activities designed to enhance awareness and increase coping strategies with regard to stress and time management behaviors.

Definition of Terms

Stressor - Stressor is defined by Wellman (1990) as "situations or events in life which are perceived to cause a degree of strain on the individual's resources to cope. There is a relationship between one's perception of the demand and one's perception of the ability to respond" (p. 5).

Stress - Stress is defined by Hiebert (1988) as "an integrated, multidimensional response, involving at least the physiological, cognitive, and behavioral systems, occurring when people perceive the demands of the situation to exceed their coping resources" (p. 226).

Perception - the individual's personal assessment of demand intensity and coping adequacy in determining the level of stress experienced (Hiebert, 1988).

Time-management - the use of organizational techniques to aid in employing one's time in the most efficient and effective manner possible (Cotton, 1990).

Limitations of the Project

1. The sample selected for this project may not be a representative sample and the subjects were not controlled for any biographical variables.

2. Only the first module of the program was evaluated. However, the primary purpose of the project was the development of the program model. As an addendum to the project, the investigator elected to conduct a brief qualitative evaluation of module I.
3. The development of the modules relating to time-management was based primarily on the adult literature, in the absence of significant literature on activities for children.

CHAPTER II

Review of Related Literature

Concepts of Stress

With the amount of attention that stress has received in both the media and professional literature, it is not surprising that the stress concept has become a popular topic of discussion. In recent years, this burgeoning field has prompted the writing of many books about the causes of stress, stress in selected populations, self-help methods for coping with stress, diets for stress, exercise for stress, stress in children, and stress management techniques (Cotton, 1990). Stress is a concept familiar to many people, but although most people generally understand its meaning, it is very difficult to define precisely. According to Patel (1991):

no single definition has been fully able to capture the nature of this complex concept. However, stress not only can be imposed by external demands but can also be generated from within by our hopes, fears, expectations, and beliefs. It follows that what is stressful to one person may be a refreshing challenge to another, depending upon his perception of the situation as well as his perception of his ability to cope with the situation. (p. 9)

Throughout the stress literature, many researchers refer to Hans Selye as the pioneer of stress research. Referred to as "the father of stress," Selye

(1974) believed that the concept of stress had its roots in physiological adaptation. Selye referred to physiological stress as "a response to any type of demand made on the body. Whatever the problem, it can be met only through one of two basic reaction forms: actively, through fight, or passively, by running away or putting up with it" (p. 17). Selye developed a stress model which he identified as the General Adaptation Syndrome (G.A.S.), or the Biological Stress Syndrome (Selye, 1974). The model has three stages: the alarm reaction stage, the stage of resistance, and the stage of exhaustion. The three phases of the G.A.S. are outlined below.

A. Alarm reaction. The body shows the changes characteristic of the first exposure to a stressor. At the same time, its resistance is diminished and, if the stressor is sufficiently strong (severe burns, extremes of temperature), death may result.

B. Stage of resistance. Resistance ensues if continued exposure to the stressor is compatible with adaptation. The bodily signs characteristic of the alarm reaction have virtually disappeared, and resistance rises above normal.

C. Stage of exhaustion. Following long-continued exposure to the same stressor, to which the body had become adjusted, eventually adaptation energy is exhausted. The signs of the alarm reaction reappear, but now they are irreversible, and the individual dies. (p.39)

More recently, researchers suggest that the stress concept should be described as "an integrated, multi-dimensional response involving at least the physiological, cognitive, and behavioral systems, occurring when people perceive the demands of a situation to exceed their coping response" (Hiebert, 1988, p. 226). Hiebert further stated that "the perception of stress" is a key component of the interactional model of stress: "Regardless of the accuracy of the person's appraisal of the situation and the coping resources available, a perceived inequity between demand and coping resources produces an increase in stress level" (p. 228). Hiebert describes the stress response from both a transitory and chronic perspective:

transitory stress ... the person encounters a demand, reacts, perceives the coping attempts as beginning to work, or the demand characteristics as abating, and the system returns to normal with very little harm done to the person's body ...

Chronic stress develops when individuals are in intensely demanding situations for long periods of time or if there is repeated activation of the stress response. (pp. 228-229)

Allen and Hiebert (1991) suggest that many theorists and researchers are currently moving towards this "transactional model of stress;"

transactional models hold that stress does not arise from the demands people face per say. Rather, stress arises when

people perceive the demands of the situation in which they are involved as overtaxing their resources for dealing with the situation (i.e., their own abilities and the assistance they can draw from others), and where dealing with the situation unsatisfactorily is seen to have dire consequences. At the most basic level, it is not the situation that people encounter that produce stress for them, but their perception of the inadequacy of their resources for dealing with the situation in a way they deem satisfactory. (pp. 19-20)

Not all stress is bad, however. According to Patel (1991), a certain amount of stress is necessary for our very existence as well as for our continued personal growth and development. Patel suggests that optimal levels of stress can be explained in the following manner:

- **Too Little Stress.** In this situation there is insufficient challenge to achieve a sense of personal accomplishment. Skills are underutilized. Lack of stimulation leads to boredom. There is a lack of purpose or meaning in life.

- **Optimal Stress.** Life is balanced and, despite ups and downs, perfectly manageable. Job satisfaction and a sense of achievement enable the person to cruise through daily work without much difficulty and to be pleasantly tired at the end of the day.

- **Too Much Stress.** There is a constant feeling of having too much to do every day. Despite emotional and physical exhaustion the person is unable to take time off to rest and play. He is in permanent overdrive but not achieving results as expected.

- **Breakdown.** If his efforts are continued the person may develop chronic neurotic tendencies or one of several psychosomatic illnesses.

Children and Stress

In discussing stress in childhood, Youngs (1985) suggests that continuous change, clarification of values, unexpected or unfamiliar situations, and forced choices are some of the many experiences that stress our children. This is compounded by children's lack of ability to cope effectively with these types of stressors as many of the mechanisms needed to cope have not yet been learned. Youngs adds that for those children who develop a sense of self-awareness and acquire effective strategies for dealing with everyday stress, they are more likely to be healthy and happy and have a zest for living. By learning effective coping strategies, children can embrace stress in a constructive manner to promote health, fitness, and self-development.

D'Aurora and Fimian (1988) studied the phenomena of stress and burn-out among American children and youth. The authors stated that:

Young people experience many different types of stress throughout life, some on a long-term and others on a short-term basis. The key to dealing effectively with this stress, however, rests in his/her ability to resolve the situations that prove stressful. It is also apparent that, if the occasionally conflicting aspects of stress remain unresolved, or if the student deals with stressful events for a prolonged period of time, s/he could experience burn out, a psychological condition manifested by any number of emotional or physical problems. (p. 44)

Larson and Ham (1993) suggest that students who encounter a greater number of life changes have more frequent experiences of negative affect - what is referred to as "emotional storm and stress." The authors further state that, as children become adolescents, the relationship between negative events and emotional experiences often increases, suggesting that early adolescence is a pivotal point in the development of positive versus negative adjustment to daily life.

As Gibbs (1989) states:

The very culture of children, of freedom and fantasy and kids teaching kids to play jacks, is collapsing under the weight of hectic family schedules. Children understand that they are being cheated out of childhood ... Eight-year-olds are taking

care of three-year-olds ... There is a sense that adults don't care about them ... It may be that the same loss of leisure among parents produces this pressure for rapid achievement and over-programming of children ... If parents see parenting largely as an investment of their precious time, they may end up viewing children as objects to be improved rather than to be nurtured at their own pace. (pp. 52-53).

According to Elkind (1981), many children are expected to grow up too quickly. Referring to them as "hurried children," Elkind states that:

Today's child has become the unwilling, unintended victim of overwhelming stress, the stress borne of rapid, bewildering social change and constantly rising expectations. The contemporary parent dwells in a pressure-cooker of competing demands, transitions, role changes, personal and professional uncertainties, over which he or she exerts slight direction. We seek release from stress whenever we can, and usually one sure ambit of our control is our home. Here, if no where else, we enjoy the fact (or illusion) of playing a determining role. If child-rearing necessarily entails stress, then by hurrying children to grow up, or by treating them as adults, we hope to remove a portion of our burden of worry

and anxiety and to enlist our children's aid in carrying life's load. (p. 3)

Sources of Stress

To investigate early adolescents' perception of stressful events and range of reactivity, Greene (1988) studied eighty-four male and female 4th-6th graders. Results of the study indicated that death of a pet received the highest frequency (69%), followed by death of a relative (60%), grades (32%), and illness/injury (32%). The mean number of affective responses and disruptive impacts associated with the stressors most frequently described by the sample were grades, exams, and homework. The distribution of stressors by domain revealed that 29% of the stressors fell within the category of personal loss, 16% within the school context category, and 12% within the peer related category. With regard to school-related stressors, two significant differences were found. First, females described a higher incidence of school related stress, and secondly, the incidence of school related stress increased with grade level for the entire sample. Finally, Greene pointed out that females reported a higher incidence of stressors related to school and to peers than did males.

In a study conducted by Dibrell and Yamamoto (1988), 46 children (17 girls and 29 boys) between the ages of four and ten years were interviewed (informal conversations) on stress related experiences. Results

of the study indicated the following cluster areas as sources of stress: (a) being lost or abandoned; (b) hospitalization; and (c) parental conflict. The authors suggest that adults should play a significant role in helping children deal with the issue of stress.

Adults can render assistance by providing an anchor so as not to leave children in the dark, cognitively and affectively.

Suitable explanations of the on-going or anticipated events, coupled with acceptance and clarification of attendant feelings, can provide a backdrop of security. Against that background, children may develop and play out their specific schemes of understanding and coping. The whole orientation needs to become a daily way of life, a general style of living.
(p. 22)

O'Brien (1988) reported the following sources of stress in children's lives: (a) parents experiencing high levels of stress; (b) pace of life in today's society; (c) pressure to succeed; and (d) fear and uncertainty.

Omizo et al. (1988) conducted an exploratory study of sixty children from grades 1 through 12 in an attempt to investigate stress symptomology. In general, results of the study indicate that different grade levels have similar and yet different kinds of stressors. Elementary school children experienced the following sources of stress: (a) family problems; (b) feeling inferior; (c) school-related problems; (d) discipline; and (e) general

anxiety. Stressors of intermediate students were: (a) general adolescent problems of adapting to their developmental changes; (b) peer pressure; (c) family problems; (d) not feeling in control; and (e) school-related problems. Decisions about future plans, choosing courses related to career aspirations, teacher-student relationships, peer pressure, substance abuse, and family problems were the major sources of stress for high school students. The symptoms of stress were categorized as psychological, physiological, behavioral, and emotional. In a study by Spirito, Stark, Grace, & Stamoulis (1991), 676 children and young adolescents (ages 9-13 years) were investigated to determine commonly experienced problems and the various strategies used to cope with these same events. Results of the study indicated four common stressors reported by the sample, all of which were the same across sex and age. The four common reported stressors were: parents, siblings, school, and friends.

Signs of Stress

In a recent study by Reese and Roosa (1991), elementary school-aged children (4th, 5th, and 6th graders) were investigated to examine the relationship between children's self-reports on major life stressors and symptomology. Through a survey technique children responded to items concerning major life stressors and to items assessing mental health symptoms. Results indicated that children were willing to identify

themselves with major life stressors, and that these self-reports were related to depression, alcohol use, global self-esteem, and personal competence.

Dickey and Henderson (1989) described the following as symptoms of stress: (a) headaches; (b) stomach problems; (c) mood swings; (d) belligerent behavior; and poor attention spans.

D'Aurora and Fimian (1988) describe the following stress symptomology:

- (a) emotional responses - anxiety, insecurity, pressure, vulnerability, anger, frustration, mixed up, upset, and nervous;
- (b) biobehavioral fatigue manifestations- stomach pain, dizziness, fatigue, defensiveness, crying, and/or the breakdown of friendships;
- (c) behavioral manifestations - getting into fights, talking back to teachers, picking on other students, yelling at other students, talking in class, or playing the class clown; and
- (d) physiological manifestations - getting headaches, stomach aches, and feeling sick in one's stomach.

O'Brien (1988) listed the following as symptoms of stress: (a) headaches; (b) eating problems; (c) out-of-control-crying; (d) sleeping problems; (e) general tiredness; (f) stomach upset; (g) shortness of breath; (h) dizziness/weakness; (i) grinding teeth; (j) irritability; (k) restless/excess energy; and (l) depression.

Omizo et al. (1988) described the following as symptoms of stress among children and adolescents: (a) depression; (b) impulsivity; (c) aggression; (d) being antisocial; (e) self-destructive; and (f) irritability.

Stress in Schools

Elkind (1981) suggests that our schools can be a major source of stress for young children - far greater than the stress of competition for grades and honours. Elkind adds that schools are out of touch with society's expectations and represent the past rather than the future. Children are doing poorly in school today, in part due to the lag between what the child is learning and what the world is doing. There is pressure by schools to get children to perform and produce, to learn as much as possible, as quickly as possible. According to Elkind,

school can stress children by hurrying them into dealing with threats of violence and crime; into stereotyped roles and attitudes; and into boring, no-end, meaningless activities.

Schools thus, often add to rather than subtract from the stress experienced by children in contemporary society" (p. 159).

In an article on student stress and burnout, D'Aurora and Fimian (1988) described nondata-based and empirical models of sources of student stress and their manifestations. Sources of student distress were described as follows:

1. Impending changes that may include school entry, location changes within and across schools, and the final school years;
2. Nonacceptance by peers;
3. Inability to make friends easily;
4. Inability to learn in school;
5. Inadequate leisure time; and
6. Poor grades.

After interviewing 141 primary children, Dickey and Henderson (1989) found the following stress types and descriptions within the school setting:

1. School work: tests, grades, and homework as well as understanding work assignments and completing creative projects correctly.
2. Peer relationships: peer pressure, friendships, sharing, playing and arguing.
3. Relationships with teachers: classroom management techniques, negative statements about friends and family, and approach to instruction.
4. Family events: parent relationships, child/parent relationships, siblings, pets and family injuries or crises.
5. Personal injury or loss: getting hurt, pushed or kicked, theft, emergency drills, and destruction or loss of personal belongings.

6. Loss of personal comfort, space, or time: school schedule, homework interfering with personal time, loss of recess time, noise in lunchroom, changing classes and teacher not present or absent.
7. Discipline: punitive procedures given by teachers and administrators.
8. Miscellaneous: statements not categorized in the other stressor types.

In a recent study by Bauwens & Hourcade (1992), 197 at-risk students from grades K-12 were investigated on school-based sources of stress. An open-ended standardized question was used to elicit the information. Results of the study indicated a total of 334 school-based stressors reported by the 197 respondents. These responses were Q-sorted into six major categories. These categories include: (a) School work (n = 127), (b) Social interactions (n = 46), (c) Treatment by teachers (n = 41), (d) Discipline and classroom management procedures, (e) Extracurricular activities (n = 22), and (f) Public performances (n = 20).

Strategies for Coping With Stress

Through interview and data coding procedures Band and Weisz (1988) conducted a qualitative study of 73 normal children (ages 6 to 12 years), to explore situational and developmental differences in coping efforts. Results of the study indicate that children as young as six years are

adequately aware of stress and coping in their own lives. They are able to report those events which they find stressful, describe their own efforts to cope, and evaluate the efficacy of those efforts. Styles of coping however, differed on situational and age factors. Primary coping strategies included direct problem-solving, problem-focused aggression, and problem-focused avoidance; the secondary coping strategies included social/spiritual support, emotion-focused avoidance, and pure cognition.

To examine their knowledge of the effectiveness of coping strategies for dealing with everyday problems, Berg (1989) studied 217 children and adolescents in grades five, eight, and eleven. In general, results of the study indicated that the level of effectiveness was highly dependent on the time at which the rating was made, whether the problem occurred inside or outside of the school, and the actual context of the everyday problem. Age and gender differences were found when comparing students' strategy knowledge with that of the teacher. Older adolescents and females' awareness of strategy knowledge were more consistent with the teachers' ratings. Students' strategy knowledge scores were significantly correlated with self, teacher, and parent ratings of their child's practical intellectual skills. As well, significant relationships were found between strategy knowledge scores and measures of academic achievement.

In a study by Altshuler and Ruble (1989), developmental changes in 72 primary and elementary children's (ages 5 to 12 years) coping strategies

were examined. More specifically, children were interviewed to determine the type of coping strategy used to manage frustration caused by waiting for a desired object (positive valence) and fear caused by waiting for an unpleasant event (negative valence) in uncontrollable situations. Results of the study indicate that avoidance strategies were the overwhelming choice of coping mentioned by children at all age levels. The most popular avoidance strategy, regardless of age, was behavior distraction and no other strategy ever reached a comparable proportion. An examination of social support revealed affective support mentioned more frequently than informational support at all ages (12% versus 2%). The youngest children preferred adult support, whereas the 7-8-year-olds preferred peer support. Interestingly, the 10-11-year-olds preferred adult support. Included in this study was a qualitative examination of the cognitive distraction strategy suggested by children in both positive and negative situations. In general, children at all ages suggested vague forms of coping (e.g., "think about something else"), and others suggested more specific forms (e.g., thinking about particular desirable things-favourite toys, holiday etc.). It is further suggested that children's ability to manage their emotions in uncontrollable situations by cognitive, in contrast to behavioral means, improve with age level and maturity. There were no significant differences across age groups.

Dickey and Henderson (1989) describe the following coping strategies most often mentioned by primary children:

1. **Distraction:** engaging in some activity to divert attention away from the stressor;
2. **Redefinition:** viewing the stressor from a different cognitive perspective;
3. **Direct action:** pursuing a solution to eliminate or relieve the stressor;
4. **Catharsis:** physical or verbal expression of intense emotion;
5. **Acceptance:** resigning to the notion that nothing could be done;
6. **Social support:** seeking physical and/or verbal comfort from family, peers, or teachers;
7. **Relaxation:** engaging in an activity with the specifically expressed intent of relaxing; and
8. **Miscellaneous:** any response not categorized into the other coping strategy types.

A study by Stern & Zevon (1990) assessed the specific coping responses of 73 adolescents (ages 13 to 20 years) as a function of age, type of stressor, and quality of family environment. In general, results of the study indicate that adolescent's coping preferences are orderable and vary as a function of type of stressor, perceptions of the family environment, and age of the adolescent. The rank ordering of the coping strategy

preferences of the overall adolescent sample were as follows: (a) problem focused coping (58.9%), (b) seeking social support (58.3%), (c) tension reduction (55.0%), (d) wishful thinking (51.7%), (e) detachment (48.3%), (f) self-blame (46.7%), (g) focusing on the positive (45.0%), and keep to self (40.0%).

In a recent study by Hoffman, Levy-Shiff, Sohlberg, & Zarizki (1992), 119 male boys from four middle elementary and four junior high schools were investigated to determine developmental change in the impact of stressful life events and coping styles. The preadolescent subsample consisted of 51 fifth graders ranging in age from 10 to 11 years. The adolescent subsample consisted of 68 seventh- and eighth-grade boys ranging in age from 12 to 13 years. Results of the study indicated no significant differences in coping among preadolescent males. In the transition to adolescents there was an increased qualitative differentiation of emotionally from practically or cognitively oriented coping styles. A quantitatively greater use of cognitive coping was also observed. The authors also state that cognitively and practically oriented coping styles buffer the effects of stress, while emotionally oriented coping was considered counterproductive.

Wellman (1990) indicated a relatively low level of positive coping strategies among junior high school students (ages 12 to 14 years). According to Wellman, students are likely to deal with stress in a negative

or relatively passive manner, suggesting a limited repertoire of effective coping strategies.

Mate (1991) found the following coping strategies among fifth and sixth graders: complaining, talking to someone about the event, over-reaction, talking to someone about feelings, ignoring, eating well, accepting change, problem-solving, self-control of feelings, and sleeping well.

Spirito et al. (1991) found that coping strategies among children and young adolescents differed by age regardless of whether they responded to their own problem or a standard problem (i.e., being grounded by parents). In general, children (ages 9-11 years) were more likely to use cognitive restructuring, problem solving, emotional regulation, and wishful thinking more than young adolescents (age 14). On the other hand, few significant gender differences could be found in the use of coping strategies. On the standard problem (being grounded by parents), males tended to blame others, while females were more likely to use problem solving strategies.

Social Support and Stress

Dubow and Ullman (1989) developed a reliable and valid self-report instrument - Survey of Children's Social Support (SOCSS) in an effort to determine whether social support would mediate the relationship between stress and childhood adjustment. Using factor analysis procedures, 361 elementary school children (grades 3 to 6) were examined. Results

indicate that elementary school children may not be able to discriminate between emotional and informational support, but do perceive esteem-enhancing support as a separate function. Children were able to distinguish between family support, peer support, and teacher support. A number of social supports were identified; namely, parents, siblings, teachers, friends, coaches, therapists, and parents' friends. Females listed more members than males did and older children listed more members than younger children. Even though network size was unrelated to children's appraisals or frequency of social support, those who received more support reported more satisfaction.

Dubow and Tisak (1989) conducted a correlational study to investigate stressful life events and adjustment with third to sixth graders (N=361). More specifically, an emphasis was placed on the relation between stressful life events and behavioral and academic adjustment with particular emphasis on examining the main and stress-buffering effects of social support and social problem-solving skills. Results of the study indicate a moderate relationship between stressful life events and adjustment. More specifically, higher levels of social support and problem-solving skills tended to moderate the negative effects of stressful events on teacher-rated behavior problems. In contrast to the stress buffering effects on teacher-rated behavior problems, main effects on both social support and problem-solving were found on teacher-rated competent behaviors. As

well, stress-buffering effects were found for problem-solving on parent-rated problems. This was consistent with the results of teacher-rated problems. A stress-buffering effect was found for problem-solving skills on GPA and for family support on behavior problems. In predicting teacher-rated competent behaviors, a main effect was found for peer but not family support.

In a study conducted by Pryor-Brown and Cowen (1989), 503 fourth through sixth grade urban and suburban children were examined on stressful life events, support, and school adjustment. Through hierarchical multiple regression analysis results indicated that girls and suburban children were better adjusted than boys and urban children, and children who experienced a greater number of events were judged both by teachers and themselves to have more serious problems and fewer competencies. Support was also assessed in this study. The authors stated that, "support contributed positively beyond sex of child, place of residence, and number of events experienced to the prediction of adjustment status, as assessed through children's self-reports. (p. 218)

Frankel (1990) conducted two studies with early adolescent females (ages 11 to 14 years of age) to investigate perceived peer social support and social stress. Study I investigated the nature of peer social milieu perceptions while study II explored the relationship of perceptions to actual social network characteristics as reported by peers. Results of study I

indicated that even though the importance of intimacy and friendship increases with age, early adolescents feel equally supported and/or stressed by their social networks. It was also found that young adolescent girls perceived resources from the peer group separately from those of the best friend. The authors add that girls perceive multiple types of support and stress dimensions, and found emotional support to be highly important.

Results of study II are summarized below:

as predicted, popularity related to the perceived social stress factors but, contrary to expectations, did not relate to the social support factors... the more popular a girl was (going from controversial > rejected > neglected > average > popular), the less stress she reported. Controversial girls tended to rate more stressfulness than did neglected and popular girls. Girls who had received many positive nominations and many negative nominations (controversial girls) reported as much stress as did girls who received almost exclusively negative nominations (rejected). (p. 81)

In a study by Grannis (1992), 90 eighth-grade students in an inner-city school were investigated to examine the relationship between in-school stressor and support events, locus of control, distress, and academic achievement. With regard to support appraisal, Grannis made the following concluding remarks:

Despite its fairly strong correlation with Stressor Appraisal, Support Appraisal was not correlated with grade point average. Support events were reported more frequently by students who experienced higher levels of distress. This suggests that students (especially girls) received more support in the same contexts in which more stressful events occurred, but that the support did not generally reduce the levels of stress incurred. In a supplementary analysis, it was found that the correlation between stressor frequency and support frequency was significant for students with more external locus of control ($r[34] = .49, p, .01$), but very low for the more internal students ($r[40] = -0.6, n.s.$). (p. 23)

In a study by Windle (1992), a 2-wave longitudinal design, with a 6-month interval between measurements was used to study the interrelations between stressful life events, perceived social support from family and friends, and the internalizing (e.g., depressive symptoms) and externalizing (e.g., alcohol use and delinquent activity) of problems of a sample of 277 middle adolescents (mean age = 15.7 years). In general, results indicate that stressful life events in middle adolescents are significantly associated with both internalizing and externalizing behaviour problems. More specifically, stressful life events and low family support were associated with higher levels of alcohol consumption and other problem behaviours. Interestingly, stressful life events and low family support were statistically

significant predictors of problem behaviours for girls but not for boys. Little support was found for the stress-buffering effects of either family or friend social support.

In a study by Dubois, Felner, Brand, Adan, & Evans (1992), 166 early adolescents (mean age = 13.5 years) were employed in a 2-year longitudinal design to examine the relation of stressful life events and social supports to psychological distress and school performance. A prospective approach was used to examine the relation of Time 1 stress and support variables to Time 2 psychological distress and school performance. Results of the study indicated that intercorrelations among life stress events and social support variables were generally moderate. Initial ratings of students' psychological distress made a significant contribution to the prediction of follow-up ratings of distress obtained 2 years later. As well, psychological distress was significantly related to increased daily hassles and reduced family support at Time 2, whereas grades were more predictive of higher levels of friend support.

Stress Management Programs

The evidence for the negative impact of stress on children and young adolescents indicates a need for a variety of stress management programs and approaches for this population (Henderson et al. 1992; Johnson, 1986). Intervention programs have been developed to help

adolescents cope with specific life events such as school transitions (Jason and Burrows, 1983), and divorce (Pedro-Carroll and Cowen, 1985). More recently, researchers have developed stress inoculation training programs as a means of helping youths develop cognitive behavioral skills for coping with future stressful events (Hains and Szyjakowski, 1990; Hains, 1992). However, no studies could be found on stress reduction programs that focused on time management as a treatment among children and young adolescents.

In a recent study by Henderson et al. (1992), 65 third-graders were investigated to examine the effectiveness of a stress management program on children's locus of control orientation, self-concept, and the acquisition of appropriate coping strategies. Participants were randomly assigned to the experimental group ($n=33$), and the control group ($n=32$). Results of pre and post-test measures indicate significant differences between the two groups. The experimental group reported significantly higher post-test scores than the control group ($p < .01$) on the measure of locus of control. As well, the analysis of variance revealed that the experimental group scored significantly higher on sub-scale I of the self-concept measure than did the control group ($p < .05$), and reported significantly more appropriate coping strategies than the control group ($p < .0001$). Based on their findings, the authors suggest that school counselors should use stress management materials that teach both problem- and emotion-focused

coping. This would include using time management strategies to increase time for studying.

Time Management Research

According to Blyton, Hassard, Hill, and Starkey (1989), the evolution of strategic time management dates as far back as the Industrial Era when effective time management was believed to be fully dependent on the use of the clock. During the first half of this century, productivity was equated with increased speed at which tasks were completed, the extension of hours for completion, and increased financial profit. The authors add that it was not until the 1970's that consideration was given to structured time scheduling, time analysis, and qualitative vs quantitative time usage. It was also during this time that authors began to write books describing time management practices employed successfully by professionals and executives (Lakein, 1973). During the 1980s, time has become a valuable commodity, and time management training programs have become a growing business across North America (Ross, 1987).

As people grow more concerned about the quality of their lives, they're inevitably led to consider how they spend their time and how to manage it better. The result has been a quiet but pervasive boom in the time management business. The unherald fact is that more Canadians than ever are

paying more money and spending more time learning how not to be tyrannized by the clock. A Vancouver-based firm called Priority Management Systems Inc., without spending a nickel on advertising, is enrolling about 2,000 North Americans a month into its time management seminars and has been cited by Los Angeles based Entrepreneur magazine as North America's top management training franchise and one of the fastest growing. (Ross, 1987, p. 119)

Although no experimental empirical studies could be found among children and young adolescents, a number of articles have been written on the importance of time management skills for older adolescents (Pisarchick, 1989; Slade, 1986; Weston, 1981). Similar to the books written on time management (Lakein, 1973 & Bliss, 1976), the contents of these articles generally provide suggestions and strategies for developing effective time management skills. However, they do not address the more complex issues of time management, especially the relationships between time management, stress, attitudes, academic achievement, and whether or not time management training would promote more efficient time management behavior.

There are, however, a number of studies in the adult literature which have addressed the issue of time management and its relationship to a number of outcome variables, namely: academic achievement (Britton &

Tesser 1991; Macan, Shahani, Dipboye, & Phillips 1990), stress (Burton 1984; Eddy, Richardson, & Alberg 1982; Klas, Kendall-Woodward, & Kennedy 1985; Klas, L.D., Kennedy, L., & Kendall-Woodward 1984), attitudes (Anderssen, Myburg, van Zyl, & Wiid 1992; Macan et al. 1990), and time management behavior (Woolfolk & Woolfolk 1986).

As noted earlier, time management has been documented as a major source of stress among children and young adolescents (Wellman, 1990; Mate, 1991). Similar findings have been observed in the adult populations. For example, Klas et al. (1985) investigated 588 regular classroom teachers and 211 specialist teachers to determine sources and nature of stress in the teaching profession. Results of the investigation indicated that the category of Time Management was considered to be the most significant source of teacher stress. This finding was consistent with other researchers in this area (Klas et al. 1984; McMurray, 1982; & Wilson, 1980).

Other professionals experiencing time management as a major source of stress include: School Counsellors (Fairchild 1906; Sharples 1987; Stripling 1986; Wilkinson 1988), School Psychologists (Maher, 1981), and professionals in the business sector (Schuler, 1979). According to Schuler (1979):

the advantages of time management are significant, both from the personal and organizational points of view. Time

management means less stress for individuals, which means more efficient, satisfied, healthy employees, which in turn means more effective organizations. (p. 854)

Concept of Time Management

Britton and Glynn (1989) developed a theoretical cognitive model of time management which is intended to maximize an individual's intellectual productivity. To maximize mental time it is necessary to make use of a cognitive system that is based on three parts: the Goal Manager, the Task Planner, and the Scheduler.

The Goal Manager takes as input the person's desires and produces as output a list of goals and subgoals with priorities attached. The Task Planner takes as input the output of the Goal Manager-the prioritized list of goals and subgoals. The Planner operates upon those goals and subgoals and produces as output a list of tasks and subtasks with priorities attached. Goals are distinguished from tasks in that goals are objectives, whereas tasks are activities. ...The third component of the time manager is the Scheduler, which takes as input the output of the Task-Planner-the list of tasks and subtasks. The Scheduler produces a "To Do List," which is used to make the decision about what to do next. This

decision is then input to the mind, which then carries out the activity. When each activity is completed, the Scheduler is consulted about what to do next. (pp. 430-431)

The authors add that the individual's goals is the most important component of the mental management system. If poor quality goals are developed, it is more likely to lead to time management practices that are equally poor and rather invaluable.

Using a questionnaire technique, Macan, et al. (1990), collected data from 165 college students in an effort to assess their time management behaviors and attitudes, stress, and self-perceptions of performance and grade point average. A major finding of the study revealed that self-reported time management was found to be multidimensional, indicating that there are a number of facets to the concept of time management. Four independent factors were found: Factor 1 (Setting Goals and Priorities), and Factor 2 (Mechanics - Scheduling, Planning) represent what is commonly considered to be specific time management practices that are generally taught in time management training programs. Factor 3 (Perceived Control of Time), represents a person's perception of control of time and is considered to be less "behavioral" than the other three factors. Factor 4 (Preference for Disorganization) represents a person's preference for or lack of organization skills.

Referring to the "new time management" Phillips (1988) suggests that modern view of time management continues to emphasize the traditional concepts of control, planning, and prioritizing, but instead of beginning with goal setting, the new time management begins with the concept of "values clarification." It is here that the difficult question of personal values is explored. According to Phillips,

Values clarification is of the greatest importance in the new time management. Goals always almost imply "having," as in the goal "to own a new car," whereas value always constitute "being," as in the value "to be financially secure." If we are clear about our values, we will be able to move into goal setting - the first step toward action - with greater clarity and certainty. If we are not clear about our values, and the relationship between those values, we are in danger of generating goals that are either at odds with each other or, when achieved, are inconsistent with deeply held, but not clearly articulated, values. (p. 75)

In an article on the issue of time management, Rees (1986) suggests a time management framework (SOS) for those working specifically within social serving institutions such as schools. The author offers three sequential and interdependent groups of recommendations that make up SOS.

1. The first S in SOS consists of two steps: self-awareness - what the individual is doing within the work period and when these different types of activities are being performed; and self-control - implying that self-monitoring and some self-discipline may be required to reach the objective of not working longer and harder, but rather making more effective use of time spent on the job.
2. O - Organization. The individual must become acutely aware of the "pulse" of the organization and the general work patterns of that part of the organization that is particularly relevant.
3. S - Scheduling. The last S in SOS is scheduling. This component includes two aspects: planning and developing the schedules; and using and adhering to them. (pp. 10-13)

The author enforces the notion that time management is not merely intuitive. People are not born as efficient managers of time. Rather, they must develop these skills.

Measurement of Time Management

According to Macan et al. (1990), "there have been no systematic attempts to develop a psychometrically sound measure to assess conventional time management behaviors" (p. 760). The authors suggest that measures have been developed to assess various time related constructs, such as the one developed by Bond & Feather, (1988) but this

measure, like others, do not measure the conventional concepts of time management.

In a recent investigation, Bond & Feather (1988) reported findings from studies that used the Time Structure Questionnaire (TSQ) in an effort to determine the extent of its psychometric properties. The instrument is used to measure the degree to which individuals perceive their use of time as structured and purposeful (Feather & Bond, 1983). The authors reported that the TSQ has acceptable psychometric properties and was positively correlated with a sense of purpose in life, self-esteem, reported health, present standing and optimism about the future, Type A behavior, and more efficient study habits. As well, the TSQ was found to be negatively correlated with depression, psychological distress, anxiety, neuroticism, physical symptoms, hopelessness, and anomie.

Britton and Tesser (1991) developed a time management questionnaire consisting of 35 items in an attempt to assess college students' time management practices. To analyze the factors associated with the instrument, the items were subjected to a principal-components analysis and later rotated with a varimax solution. Three factors were established which accounted for 36% of the variance. The first factor was labelled Short-Range Planning - students who scored high on this factor reported organizing their day. The second factor was labelled Time Attitudes - students who scored high on this factor indicated that their time

was used constructively and felt in charge of the way they spent their time. The third factor was labelled Long-Ranged Planning - students who scored high on this factor tended to set long-term goals, kept track of important dates, and generally did not procrastinate.

In an examination of Superintendent's time management behaviors, Distasio (1985) developed the Executive Time Management Instrument (ETMI) as a means of measuring how well time is managed. Overall, the ETMI consists of five scales designed to measure the affective strengths and weaknesses of time management. According to the author, the ETMI is a statistically reliable and valid time management instrument. The content validity of the ETMI was considered to be .90 or more with a test-retest reliability coefficient of .97. The internal consistency reliability of the ETMI ranged between .62 and .81, as well as .92 for the total test score.

Time Management and Academic Achievement

Within the scholarly literature, researchers generally agree that intellectual and academic achievement require time (Barron, 1988; Tardif & Sternberg, 1988; Britton & Tesser, 1991). Researchers also agree that poor time management behaviors, such as not allocating time properly or last minute cramming for exams, can be a major source of stress and often result in poor academic performance (Gall, 1988; Longman & Atkinson,

1988). Logically then, time management practices should play a role in academic achievement and levels of stress (Britton & Tesser, 1991).

Morgan (1984) conducted a study to investigate the effects of time management training in a peer counseling format on college student's GPAs. Four groups were used in the study. The experimental group received training in time management, while the control group received unstructured peer counseling rap sessions. Two other volunteer groups were used for comparison purposes. Results of the study indicated no significant differences between the four groups on measures of grade point averages. The authors add that the lack of significance may be attributed to an insufficient amount of time to learn the time management skills.

The effects of time-management practices on college grades was the subject investigation by Britton and Tesser (1991). The study tested the hypothesis that college grade point average would be predicted by time-management practices among 90 male and female undergraduate students. To rule out the possibility that such skills are merely another side of the traditional view of aptitude, the authors assessed aptitude using the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and compared the independent contributions of time-management skills and aptitude to grade point average using a prospective design. In general, results of the study indicated that self-reports of time-management are related to academic achievement. Furthermore, the effects of time-management are

independent of SAT score and in this particular study, even stronger than the effects of SAT score.

Macan et al. (1990) found that college students who scored highly on the Time Management Behavior Scale (TMB) tended to report increases in self-rated performance as measured by self-perceptions and GPA. Interestingly, however, no significant correlations could be found between stress measures or self-reports on performance and attending a time management seminar or reading time management books.

In a study conducted by Smith (1990), questionnaire and achievement test data from 1584 seventh and ninth grade students were used to investigate the relationships between academic achievement and amounts of time devoted to various uses related to school, family, peers, and the mass media. The authors hypothesized that academic achievement would be positively associated with three of the time variables - time spent on homework, on leisure reading, and with the parent. Results of the study indicated that time spent on leisure reading had significant positive associations with overall achievement ($p < .05$) and reading achievement ($p < .001$). According to the authors, this finding suggests that the oldest mass medium, print, may promote academic achievement. Time spent on homework and with the parent failed to show any significant positive effects on achievement. One might hypothesize here that the quality,

rather than the amount, of time may contribute to increases in academic achievement. If so, time management training may facilitate this process.

Student's Attitudes Toward Time Usage

A number of researchers have indicated a need to study the phenomena of students' time-use attitudes, suggesting that students' attitudes and perspectives of time-usage is directly related to academic achievement. For example, Wolf & Savickas (1985), found systematic and significant links between students' time perspective and attributions for achievement. Gettinger (1985), found that students who spend and/or allocate an insufficient amount of time for learning tend to experience a direct negative effect on their level of academic achievement.

In a recent survey, Chaney (1991) found time management to be the number one source of stress among 58 percent of college business students (n= 108). This finding prompted Chaney to conducted further investigations into the time management concept. Using a survey technique, Chaney (1991) examined the most common time wasters and time management techniques among 278 high school and 431 college students. The greatest time waster reported by both college and high school students was procrastination. A total of 73.8 percent of college students indicated that they put things off, while 59.7 percent of high school students procrastinated. Results of the survey are on the next page.

Time Wasters	College		High School	
	No.	%	No.	%
Procrastination	318	73.8	166	59.7
Watching television	201	46.6	160	57.6
Visiting friends/socializing	192	44.6	131	47.1
Daydreaming	176	40.8	147	52.9
Figuring out how to do an assignment	166	38.5	112	40.3
Physical problems, such as lack of energy	154	35.7	93	33.5
Sleeping too much	120	27.8	83	29.9
Lack of planning	112	26.0	70	25.2
Waiting for others	109	25.3	96	34.5
Talking on the telephone	90	20.9	125	45.0

The time management technique used by the greatest percentage of college students was completing tasks in order of priority (73.3%). Planning ahead, such as putting out clothes the night before, was the time management technique reported by the largest percentage of high school students (63.7%). Results of the survey are outlined on the following page.

Time Management Techniques	College		High School	
	No.	%	No.	%
Completing tasks in order of priority	316	73.3	169	60.8
Making lists of things to do	308	71.5	136	48.9
Using telephone to avoid waiting or to save time	300	69.6	143	51.4
Consolidation (combining errands)	293	68.0	125	45.0
Planning ahead	249	57.8	177	63.7
Making use of time while waiting for others	246	57.1	152	54.7
Using a large calendar to schedule activities	209	48.5	135	48.6
Maintaining a regular physical exercise program	144	33.4	70	25.2

In recent years researchers have studied children's use of time in a number of areas including household work and leisure activities (Duncan & Sanik, 1989; Carpenter, Houston & Spera, 1989).

In a recent study conducted by Mate (1991) in an urban Newfoundland setting, an analysis of the rank order of the leisure time of children in terms of participation and interest in extracurricular activities indicated that friendship activities, independent interests, screen-related pursuits, studying, and home responsibilities were the primary areas of children's participation. In contrast, children's interest in leisure time included friendship activities, screen-related pursuits, and sports. The author adds that a significant difference existed between gender and the

interest in extracurricular activities. Females reported a higher level of interest in leisure time pursuits than males.

Wellman (1990), examined rural Newfoundland junior high school students' levels of participation and interest in extracurricular activities. In general, results of the study indicated a high level of participation in unorganized sports rather than organized sports. The author adds that this may be a result of the competitive and restrictive nature of organized sports within the school and community settings. As well, students generally showed a high interest in those activities in which they participated and there were no grade differences in level of participation in activities and level of interest in activities. However, there was a significant sex effect in both areas; females had a higher level of both participation and interest in activities than males.

In a study conducted by Mauldin & Meeks (1990) 492 children between the ages of 3 and 17 were investigated to determine differences in time spent in household work, leisure activities, school, paid work, personal care, and sleep. Results of the study are summarized below:

Children in this study spend, on average, 5 to 6 hours in leisure activities, 1/2 to 3/4 of an hour in household work, about 6 hours in school or school related activities, 2 to 4 hours in personal care and 9 to 10 hours sleeping on the weekday. Males spent more time in leisure activities and less

time in household work and personal care than females. Similar patterns in time allocation emerge on weekends as well. However, both males and females appear to spend more time in leisure activities, household work, paid work, personal care, and sleep on weekend days. ...During the week, males spend more time in leisure activities than females, while females spend more time in household work and personal care than males. (p. 551)

Ben-Baruch, Bruno, and Horn (1987) conducted an empirical investigation of 353 elementary and secondary school students in an attempt to examine student's attitudes towards time usage. Using factor analytic techniques, four constructs were developed. The four constructs accounted for 26% of the variance for the entire sample and are described as follows:

1. **Instinctive.** The use of time is dictated by the present moment or by immediate instincts.
2. **Traditional.** The use of time as dictated by higher authority.
3. **Opportunity.** The use of time as dictated by market or economic forces.
4. **Integrated.** The use of time as dictated by feelings and the combination of the previous three.

In a study by Anderssen et al. (1992), 364 students consisting of grades 8, 10, and 12 were investigated to determine their attitudes towards time usage. Results from factor analysis yielded three constructs. These constructs are described as follows:

Egoistic Time Orientation. The immediate satisfaction of needs is important. There is a low tolerance of interference with pleasurable activities and a tendency to perpetuate activities that give immediate satisfaction.

Conscientious Time Orientation. Planning is essential. There is a willingness to sacrifice in the present to obtain future benefits. Action is taken to ensure that expectations of self or others are met. A futuristic orientation is noted.

Passive Fatalistic Orientation. The inability to solve problems or to shape the future, a focus on here and now pleasure, a passive attitude toward solving present and past problems, an unpleasant awareness of the present and future, and a sense of relative deprivation are noted. There also is a preference for the past. The past, the present, and the future are viewed as problematic and dissatisfying.

The passive fatalistic orientation of students differ significantly between the lower and higher grades. Grade eight students show the highest score on this dimension. This finding supports the notion that adolescent's coping skills increase as they mature.

Analysis of the total group indicates an initial decrease in scores from 8th to 10th grade, followed by an increase in conscientious time use from 10th to 12th grade. According to the authors, the decrease in conscientious time use between grade eight and ten can be ascribed to the notion that the locus of control of adolescents changes from external to internal as they mature.

Egoistic time use changes significantly only in the first two years of high school. Scores on this dimension increase for the total group as well as for males and females separately from grade 8 to grade 10. No significant changes were ascertained between grade 10 and 12. This finding implies that adolescents are, up to a certain level, more egoistic in time use. This process can be related to the development of identity, characterized by an increase in awareness of the self. When the personal identity of the self becomes more secure, it can be expected that the egoistic time-use attitude will be less prominent.

Macan et al. (1990) found that College student's Time Management Behavior (as measure by the Time Management Behavior Scale) was significantly correlated with a number of measurable outcome variables. More specifically, it was found that higher scores on the TMB resulted in less role ambiguity, less somatic tension, and greater job and life satisfaction. There was a significant relationship between the overall TMB score and age ($r = 0.18, p < .05$), indicating that older subjects reported

engaging in more time management behaviors than younger subjects; females were significantly better time managers than males ($r = -0.23, p < .05$); and Type A behavior pattern was correlated in the expected direction with Factor 1 (Setting Goals and Priorities). A significant relationship between Internal Prime Time (Lakein, 1973) and time management was found ($r = 0.33, p < .0001$), indicating that morning persons engaged in more frequent time management behaviors. As well, a significant correlation was also found between scores on time management and attending time management seminars, but not between overall TMB score and whether one read books on time management.

The Effects of Time-Management Training Programs

A number of researchers have indicated positive effects from time management training. For example, Hanel (1981) reported more time management behaviors from co-workers after training with a self-instructional time management manual. Hall and Hursh (1982) found increases in self-reported time spent on high priority tasks after subjects read a time management manual. King, Winett, and Lovett, (1986) demonstrated significantly greater increases in working wife's knowledge of time and stress factors after receiving training in time management practices. Significant increases were also noted in self-efficacy regarding time management behaviors following the training session.

A study by Woolfolk and Woolfolk (1986) demonstrated that brief training in time management can have immediate and even long-term effects on the performance of preservice teachers at a time in their training when time pressures are great. Four groups were used in the study. Experimental Group 1 received basic training in time management and, in addition, received training in two specific time management procedures (written planning and self-monitoring). Experimental Group 2 received basic training in time management, while the control group received no training. Significant differences among the groups were observed in the expected direction. The authors suggest that general time management skills and more specific study skills may be especially appropriate topics in-service training and for consultation, since both teachers and their students can benefit from learning to study, plan, and use time more effectively.

A program for training school psychologists in time management was developed by Maher (1981). Derived from a behavioral problem-solving framework, the training program consists of four steps: orientation to time management, time management problem analysis, plan development and implementation, and plan evaluation. Two school psychologists served as subjects for the pilot study. Two measurement domains (percentage of time devoted to professional service activities and quality of services provided) were used to evaluate the relationship between professional response time and how useful that response is in

terms of the service quality provided before and after time management training. More specifically, both subjects were assessed in relation to four measures: completeness of psychological assessment reports; completeness of counselling programs; teacher satisfaction with quality of IEP planning; and perceptions of school psychology practitioners about the practical utility of the training program. In general, results of the study indicated that time management training appears to have increased the percentage of time spent on IEP planning and evaluation, and behavioral counselling. While the quality of assessment activities was not affected, more complete counselling programs were developed. Teacher satisfaction with IEP planning and evaluation assistance increased following training, and overall time management training was judged to be worthwhile by a panel of practitioners.

The effects of teaching decision making and time management skills on pregnant teens' self-efficacy was the subject of investigation for Hubbard (1991). Using an experimental research design, the pregnant teens engaged in a 10-session program designed to increase teens' self-efficacy in these areas. Pre- and post-testing was administered to both the experimental and control groups to determine the effectiveness of the program. Results of the study indicate that all mean scores for the experimental group improved, demonstrating increased levels of self-efficacy following the post-test. The authors speculated that if group size

and length of sessions were increased, the mean scores may have reached significant levels.

Time Management Strategies

In an article entitled "teaching time awareness in the classroom," Weston (1981) suggests the following time management strategies be taught when teaching junior and senior high school students: (a) utilizing spare time within the classroom for the "to do list," (b) sticking to deadlines/dues dates for assignments, homework, and tests, (c) placing emphasis where it should be, and (d) contributing to an enthusiastic school atmosphere.

A paper presented at the International Conference of the Association for Children and Adults with Learning Disabilities discussed the importance of time management skills for young learning disabled individuals (Pisarchick, 1989). According to Pisarchick, the most effective method of teaching time management skills is to model the skills yourself. "Time management" is not accidentally "caught," it must be "taught" directly and by "staged" example (p. 1). Some ways the teacher can role model the desired behaviors are:

1. Set daily, weekly, monthly, and grade period goals for themselves as instructor and share them with the class;

2. Check off accomplishments on a "to do" list, with fanfare in front of the class;
3. Evaluate time delays, interruptions and missed deadlines with the class;
4. Attempt to always start class on time and end with sufficient time for a smooth transition to the next class or activity;
5. Always take time to give adequate directions, explanations of expected behavior and classroom procedures;
6. Include practice time before expecting students to demonstrate achievement;
7. Check regularly to make sure that all students understand directions and class assignments (rather than asking "do you understand" ask a student to stand and repeat the directions);
8. When lessons are completed, take time to draw conclusions and re-identify learning objectives;
9. When assigning homework, take time to "connect" it to previously learned material;
10. Be aware of the time it takes to carry out class assignments and homework, and allow proper time. (Try doing your own assignments without the key, periodically);

11. When making long range assignments, use frequent calendar reminders. (When possible, use an outline and suggest interim deadlines for each phase of a major assignment). (pp. 4-5)

In an article on organizational skills for students with learning disabilities, Slade (1986) discussed a number of essential underlying skills necessary to achieve order. Among them are: categorizing, following routines, breaking tasks into parts, sequencing, managing time, exploring options, and making decisions. The author states that "these interdependent skills provide the foundations upon which more complex organizational skills can be developed. Practice in each of these areas will increase the LD student's overall ability to become organized" (p. 262). With respect to specifically managing time, it is suggested that LD students need to learn that tasks of varying length and complexity place different demands on their time and that they need to develop the ability to predict the length of time that each step, activity, or set of activities will take.

In a review of the literature regarding effective time management skills for school counsellors, Thibeault (1990) suggested the following strategies for managing time more effectively.

1. Prioritization of tasks, delegation of responsibility, and ongoing control of paperwork contribute to effective and more professional performance;

2. Organization and coordination are crucial in providing effective services;
3. Counsellors can increase their effectiveness by designing and following short and long term goals and objectives, prioritizing tasks, recruiting staff and volunteers, and maintaining an organized work environment;
4. Counsellors might alleviate time management problems by sharing time management problems with administrators, inservice training, or coursework focusing on organization.

One author suggests that many time-management training workshops fail to provide the essential ingredients necessary for effect time management. According to English (1989):

techniques that are not based on the realities of human behavior cannot fit meaningfully into real-life, real-time modus operandi. ...time management training suffers from the same inadequacies that afflict much of management training - the triumph of technique and clever quotes over substance. ...real change focuses not on technique but on the way people think about themselves, their colleagues, and their work. (p. 77)

The author suggests that in order to make a difference for individuals and their organizations, time management programs must adhere to the following principles:

1. **Train the work group.** Training individuals in isolation does not work; companies should either send the whole group or bring in a trainer. Team skills require team training, and thus, the time management process can become an organic part of the group's interactive process.
2. **Train for real people.** Due to the process of habituation, many time management ideas are not realistic (i.e., to do lists and stick-ups). We habituate ourselves to them as part of the regular environment and simply forget to notice them. To avoid the habituation trap, individuals need to vary both the type and manner in which they use time-management techniques.
3. **Train for mental change.** Some individuals see no problems with their organizational skills. As a result, they need to be taught to think differently about their work. Simply teaching them new ways to get organized would have little effect.
4. **Train to do, not to not do.** Through psychological rewards, train people to perform desirable behaviors, rather than expending time and energy on attempting to eliminate undesirable ones. For

example, provide psychological rewards for being on time rather than providing consequences for being late.

The author states that, "time management is neither a technique nor a system. Like time itself, time management is a conceptual, psychological, and sociocultural process; any successful technique must take that process into account" (p. 78). The author further adds that time management training achieves little total effect for the dollars spent. English offers the following reasons for his claim:

1. **Time is biological.** Often meetings are scheduled during time-frames when people are at their lowest energy levels.
2. **Time is conceptual.** Executives think they have a time management problem because they spend too much time in meetings, talking on the telephone, and consulting with clients. It would seem logical that an executive would engage in those types of activities on a regular basis.
3. **Time is psychological.** Time goes by slowly when one is bored, but quickly when one is having fun, or fully occupied. Some people have no concept of "what time it is" while others have a "sense of time."
4. **Time is communication.** One reason why people are late, disorganized, or unproductive is the sociocultural properties of time. A person's time is a statement of social status and even self-worth.

5. **Time is as complex as we are.** Some individuals are highly disorganized, while others are overly meticulous, almost obsessive-compulsive, and still others fall somewhere in between these two extremes. It is by no means simplistic.

The following time management strategies were suggested by Schuler (1979):

1. Become aware of your job duties, authority and responsibility and their importance.
2. Become aware of your own skills, needs, and abilities.
3. Become aware of how you currently allocate your time on the job.
4. Learn how to conserve, control, and make time where needed.
5. Define what is expected and how it should be done.
6. When delegating authority, specify the level of initiative or type of authority the individual is to be given.
7. Give feedback to the delegated employee on the results of the duties performed.

In an article by Nichols (1983), the principles of planning, organizing, and controlling were considered key elements to managing time of busy social workers. These concepts are outlined below:

1. **Planning** - Clarifying one's long-term and short-range goals, determining what actions will promote their accomplishment, and setting priorities, are key elements in the planning process.
2. **Organizing** - Once planning has provided the context within which time management takes place, the emphasis shifts to how to reach the goals which have been set. Organizing refers to establishing work patterns which minimize wasteful uses of time and maximize productive ones.
3. **Controlling** - Planning provides direction; organizing schedules and allocates time; and controlling assures that the work patterns are being followed and are effective in helping the social worker move toward the accomplishment of career goals. (pp. 79-80)

Alexander (1981) suggests that many managers and administrators have a difficult time making progress on major tasks and special projects. This is primarily due to the fact that many people avoid those tasks which are complex and ambiguous, and tend to focus on those considered by most to be simple and concrete. The author suggests the following strategies which are specifically aimed at dealing with the complex aspect of high-ambiguity tasks and projects:

1. **Use the five-minute brainstorm.** Take five minutes to break the task down into as many smaller activities as felt needed to complete the project.

2. **Work on high payoff activities.** Identify those critical elements in the project, that when completed will make a major contribution to the overall completion of the task.
3. **Focus attention on the smaller, individual activities.** Begin your work on the smaller parts of the project, those you feel you can complete with relative ease. This will lead to initial success and feelings of accomplishment rather than feeling overwhelmed which may lead to procrastination.
4. **Block out an adequate length of time.** Try to avoid beginning a project just a few minutes before lunch or business meeting. Be aware that different projects require different amounts of time to complete.
5. **Work when you are at your best.** Work on your project when you are mentally alert and functioning well. This may be during the morning, afternoon, or evening, what Lakein (1973) refers to as "internal prime time."
6. **Start each session with something easy.** Begin the project with an easier task and then move to a more difficult one.
7. **Redefine the project.** Discuss your project with other associates. They may be able to provide you with other methods of completing the same task in a shorter amount of time.

8. **Control interruptions.** The author states that this may be the most important suggestion of all as many projects require detailed attention. Control incoming telephone calls, drop-in visitors, and incoming mail during working sessions.

For those projects that require a long-term duration of effort, the following suggestions are offered:

1. **Determine a realistic time commitment per week.** It is helpful to specify in advance the amount of time you are going to allocate to the project per week. Initially, you should allot a conservative amount of time to the project.
2. **Specify tasks in advance.** At the end of each work session write down what aspect of the long-term project you will be working on next.
3. **Establish a regular time for working on long-term projects.** Working on a regular schedule can become habit forming. It then becomes automatic to begin working on a project. Avoid scheduling other activities during this time.
4. **Establish deadlines for intermediate progress points.** Set self-imposed deadlines for short-term tasks which can be completed in a short period of time. These short-term points can act as both motivator and reinforcement for the completion of the project.
5. **Switch to other aspects of a 'overall' task.** Continuous work on the same task may lead to boredom and/or frustration, which may

cause you to give up. This may be avoided by switching from one activity to another.

6. Avoid the activity trap. While breaking down the project into smaller tasks is considered a good strategy, avoid those tasks that do not actually contribute to the overall completion of the project.

7. Limit the number of major projects. There is a only limited amount of time to work on a major project each week. Always remember that it is better to make real progress on one, or possibly two, major projects, than none at all.

8. Record your ongoing progress each week. Use a visual chart to monitor your weekly progress. Record the activity that you have completed and the one that you will be working on next. This will allow you the opportunity to determine if you are allocating enough or too much time to a specific task or the overall project. In turn, you will probably be more successful in meeting the project's completion date.

Finally, Bittle (1991) offered twelve keys to achieving time mastery:

1. Find out where your time goes by keeping a daily log of your activities.

2. Learn why your time goes where it does so that you can determine productive and non-productive uses of time.
3. Minimize your time commitments by taking on an amount of work that you can comfortably handle.
4. Sort out what needs to be done from what can be wait until later through prioritization.
5. Cut down on time-wasting activities.
6. Be ruthless about distractions by saying no to people who are demanding of your time.
7. Locate information in a hurry as information seeking can occupy 20 percent off your time.
8. Build a time control plan that fits your job and your own unique personality. One way to achieve this goal is to prepare a daily agenda.
9. Break the procrastination habit by identifying the causes of procrastination, and erecting barriers to its temptations.
10. Use other people's time to your advantage through successful delegation.
11. Be creative with the use of your time by using time-effective methods of completing tasks (i.e., brainstorming strategies that will help you complete a task).

12. Add hours to your time budget by working smarter, not harder.

Make use of modern technology - including the telephone, electronic mail, and the FAX machine.

CHAPTER III

Project Design, Methodology, Procedure, and Evaluation

Project Design

The design of this project can be best described as a research and development project which has as its primary goal to take research knowledge and incorporate it into a product that can be used in the schools. In other words, the purpose of this project was to contribute to bridging the gap that sometimes exists between educational research and educational practice. According to Borg and Gall (1989), "the focus of present-day research and development projects appears to be primarily on program development" (p. 782). The steps involved in research and development consist of reviewing research findings relevant to the program to be developed, developing the program based on these findings, field testing it in a setting where it will eventually be used, and revising the program based on feedback from the field-testing stage. In this particular project, the program was developed based on research findings and implemented in a school setting. While no quantitative evaluations were conducted, a brief qualitative evaluation of MODULE I (What Does Stress Mean) was performed as an addendum to the project.

Methodology

Initially, the author conducted a thorough review of the research literature on stress and stress related issues among children and young adolescents. In general, the research findings provided the rationale for the development of the entire stress and time-management program. More specifically however, the research findings on child and adolescent stress provided the rationale and basis for the development of MODULE I (Children and Stress).

The development of Module II (Learning To Say No! Assertiveness Training) was based on the underlying premise that older children and young adolescents need to develop assertive skills as a means of coping with potentially stressful situations. This would include instances when a child's time is being overly taxed by peers and/or adults. Considering that learning to say NO is an essential component of effective time management (Macan et al. 1990), developing a module on assertiveness training was considered important if children are going to be successful in developing effective time-management behaviors.

In reviewing the time-management literature, many authors suggest that developing realistic and attainable goals (goal setting behavior) was an important aspect of effective time-management (Britton & Glynn, 1989; Macan et al. 1990; Britton & Tesser, 1991; Youngs 1991). It was the

research findings of these and other researchers that formed the rationale and basis for the development of MODULE III (Goal Setting).

A number of researchers have examined students' attitudes toward time usage (Ben-Baruch et al. 1987; Britton & Tesser, 1991; Anderssen et al. 1992). Others have suggested that students' attitudes toward time-usage is directly related to academic achievement (Wolf & Savickas, 1985; Gettinger, 1985). These research findings led to the development of MODULE IV (Time Usage) which was designed primarily as a self-awareness component of the program. Its primary goal was to help students become more aware of their current use of time with regard to school work and leisure activities.

MODULE V (Prioritization) was based on the "ABC" concept developed by Lakein (1973). Lakein suggests that we all have numerous tasks that need completion. However, some tasks are more important than others and therefore we need to determine which tasks should be completed first, second, and so on. Other researchers have also suggested that prioritization of tasks and activities are essential if one is to develop affective time-management behaviors (Macan et al. 1989; Phillips, 1988).

In general, the development of MODULE VI (Scheduling) was based on the research findings and suggestions of the time-management literature. A number of researchers have suggested that the scheduling of

tasks and activities is an essential skill if one is to become an efficient time manager (Britton & Glynn, 1989; Macan et al. 1990; Rees, 1986).

Given that the vast majority of research on time-management has been conducted with the adult population, considerable attention was given to meeting the developmental needs of the target group. In other words, all attempts were made to ensure that the content of the program paralleled the developmental and cognitive levels and needs of the children involved in the program. As well, all attempts were made to ensure that program content paralleled the performance objectives in content and process. Adhering to this principle would, to some degree, strengthen content validity. It is important to note that the content of the program modules were based primarily on the findings and suggestions of the literature review.

Subjects

The primary objective of the project was the development of a stress and time-management awareness and training program for older children based upon research on stress, time-management, and children's developmental needs. The investigator elected, as an addendum, to present the program as an initial trial to a selected sample of students and to include a brief qualitative evaluation of module I. The sample for this project was selected from Immaculate Conception School, a

primary/elementary school within the Roman Catholic School Board for St. John's, Newfoundland. The current population of the school is approximately 300 students with, a teaching staff of 23. Although the program can be modified to accommodate larger numbers of students, only eight students were used in this project, as it was designed primarily for a small group treatment. Five female and three male subjects were randomly selected from two grade five classes to make up the entire sample of eight subjects. The mean age of the participants was 11.2 years.

Procedure

In general, the literature review provided the rationale and basis for the development of the entire program. Common themes as well as specific research findings throughout the literature provided a framework consisting of six modules with each module outlining specific program objectives. Once the module titles were established and objectives outlined, numerous data bases and curriculum programs were examined to decide which activities and approaches (content) would best parallel the objectives of each module. A significant number of activities and approaches used in the program were taken from programs intended for adults. These activities and approaches were modified to meet the developmental and cognitive levels and needs of older children between the ages of 10 and 12.

Once the development of the program was completed the next step was to randomly select subjects to participate in the training program. The Roman Catholic School Board for St. John's, as well as the participating school, (Immaculate Conception) was contacted and permission was granted to proceed with the selection of subjects and implementation of the program. A letter requesting approval (Appendix A) as well as an ethical statement (Appendix C) was sent to the Roman Catholic School Board for St. John's.

The parents of the children were contacted before the start date. Each parent was provided with an outline of the program and was requested to sign a consent form giving permission for their child to participate in the training program (Appendix B). An ethical statement (Appendix C) explaining how information within the group would be handled was also provided. The participants were scheduled to meet twice per week for six weeks with each session lasting a duration of 40 minutes. Throughout each session students were given an opportunity to complete the selected activities and discuss the outcomes with the group leader and other group members. At the end of MODULE I (Children and Stress), the participants were asked to complete a brief evaluation.

Evaluation

It was not the purpose of this project to conduct a formal quantitative or qualitative evaluation. Again, the project's purpose was to develop the program itself. However, each of the eight participants in the program were asked to complete a brief evaluation of MODULE I (Children and Stress). The evaluation was conducted in a classroom setting by the group leader at the end of module I. The purpose of the evaluation was to determine at what level the participants achieved the objectives stated at the beginning of the module. A likert scale consisting of six questions was developed to evaluate the objectives. Each participant had to rate themselves from 1 to 5, with 1 being the lowest rating and 5 being the highest. A copy of the scale can be found in appendix D.

In general, results of the evaluation indicated that the participants achieved the objectives of module I with a relatively high degree of success, with an overall group mean of 3.92. The mean score of each question for the entire group is outlined on the next page.

<u>Questions</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>
1. I feel I understand what stress means.	4.25
2. I am aware of some of the early warning signs of stress.	3.75
3. I know what causes stress.	3.63
4. I understand how stress affects me personally.	4.13
5. I am aware of my own level of stress.	4.75
6. I feel I can handle stressful situations.	3.00

CHAPTER IV

Stress and Time-Management:

An Awareness and Training Program for Older Children

(Manual)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Module I (Children and Stress)	85
Rationale and Performance Objectives	86
Stress Concept	87
The Biology of Stress	87
The Psychology of Stress	90
Activity (How Would You React?)	91
What Causes Stress?	93
Activity (What Causes Stress in My Life?)	94
The Effects of Stress	95
Activity (How Does Stress Affect Me?)	96
School Stress	99
Activity (School Stress Profile For Students)	100
Coping With Stress	109
Progressive Relaxation	109
Activity (Mirrors)	111
Creative Relaxation	112
Activity (Rain and Snow)	114
Nutrition and Exercise	116

	83
Module II (Learning To Say No! Assertiveness Training)	120
Rationale and Performance Objectives	121
Characteristics of Passive Behavior	122
Characteristics of Aggressive behavior	123
Characteristics of Assertive Behavior	124
Activity (Basic Assertive Rights)	125
Activity (Assertiveness Inventory)	128
Responding Assertively	132
Activity (Developing Assertive Responses)	133
Feelings List	135
Module III (Goal Setting)	137
Rationale and Performance Objectives	138
Why Setting Goals is Important	139
Identifying Obstacles to Goal Setting	140
Activity (Where Do You want to go?)	143
Activity (Failure Is Not fatal!)	145
Keys to Goal Setting	147
Acres of Diamonds	149
Activity (Identifying Your Acres Of Diamonds)	151
Activity (Finding Your Areas Of Excellence)	152
Having A Number One Goal	154
Activity (Determining Your Number One Goal)	155

	84
Setting Yourself Up for Success	159
Six Steps for Goal Setting	159
Rewarding Your Accomplishments	162
Activity (What's Important To You)	162
Activity (Evaluating Your Goal)	165
Module IV (Using Your Time)	170
Rationale and Performance Objectives	171
Activity (Assignment Before Class)	171
Activity (Where Has the Day Gone)	175
Activity (Evaluating Students' Organizational Use of Time)	178
Answer Key	180
Module V (Prioritization)	182
Rationale and Performance Objective	183
Activity (Prioritization: The "ABC" System)	184
Activity (To Do List)	186
Module VI (Creating a Schedule)	188
Rationale and Performance Objective	189
What Should You Keep in Mind When You are Planning Your Time	189
Activity (Creating your Schedule)	190

MODULE 1
CHILDREN AND STRESS

Rationale and Performance Objectives

As both children and adults, we are taught all about health, but rarely how to prevent tension. Nor are we generally taught how to reduce anxiety and stress. Yet the ability to manage stress is especially necessary in a young person's life, since so much of his or her existence involves continual change, clarification of values, and forced choices. Unexpected or unfamiliar situations requiring as-yet-unlearned coping skills produce a great deal of stress for children. Children who develop self-awareness and effective methods for managing the stresses that occur in everyday life are likely to be healthy and happy and have a zest and zeal for living. By learning the goals and principles of coping, children can draw vitality from stress and use it constructively to promote health, fitness, and self-development (Youngs, 1985).

At the end of this module, students will:

1. become aware of what stress means.
2. become aware of the early warning signs of stress.
3. become aware of what causes stress.
4. become aware how stress affects them.
5. become aware of their own level of stress.

STRESS CONCEPT

Often when people think of stress, they think of the demands that face them on a daily basis, what is more specifically referred to as daily hassles or stressors. Others think of stress as "catch-all" term for describing the ills of society, and still others think that stress exists only in a person's mind. The notion that stress is merely terminology or "just exists in a person's mind" is simply not true. Stress is a reaction of the body to daily events and to our perceptions of these events. More specifically, stress is composed of both a biological and psychological component, each of which must be understood if one is to truly grasp the "STRESS CONCEPT."

The Biology of Stress

Stress is the nonspecific response of the body to any demand made upon it. It is a chemical reaction within the body that occurs when there is a basic need to maintain life and to resist or adapt to the changing external and internal influences. In other words, the body is called upon to adjust in order to maintain normality in response to the stressor. The chemical reaction that occurs when the body encounters a stressful situation can be explained in three stages: (1) alarm reaction, (2) resistance, and (3) exhaustion.

ALARM REACTION. In the alarm reaction stage, the individual encounters a situation that is perceived to be stressful (i.e., the individual

believes that they are unable to deal effectively with the situation). Automatically, the body undergoes physiological changes in an attempt to prepare the individual for the "**Fight or Flight Response**" - the body's response to the need to protect itself. For example, the hormone adrenaline is increased during stressful periods to help the individual escape from a potentially dangerous situation - like being hit by a speeding car. Adrenaline will speed up pulse rate and increase blood pressure, enabling the body to provide you with fuel necessary for a quick escape (flight). The following examples will help illustrate to students the alarm reaction stage. Ask students if they have experienced some of these or similar responses.

1. Have you ever had "knots," or "butterflies" in your stomach, (like the time when you were getting ready to write an exam or talk in front of the class). These feelings let you know that you are experiencing stress. To help prepare you for your exam, the blood leaves your stomach area and goes to the brain where it is needed for thinking and concentration purposes.
2. Can you remember trying to catch your breath after being scared (like the time you were chased by your neighbour's dog)? Do you remember how fast your heart was pounding? Your breathing gets faster because your lungs are trying to get oxygen to those leg muscles so that you can run faster. Likewise, those muscles need an

increase in fuel, so your heart beats faster in an attempt to supply those muscles with more blood.

3. Have you ever noticed that when you work really hard your body begins to perspire (like when your running in gym class). The perspiration helps cool the body so that it doesn't overheat. Otherwise you would probably get extremely hot and faint. It's sort of like a safety mechanism so that no harm occurs to your body.

RESISTANT STAGE. Almost immediately following a stressful experience, (i.e., after you escaped the speeding car) your body attempts to return to its normal state (i.e., the way you felt before you saw the car speeding toward you). Ask students what changes they would expect to find in their body during this stage. The following examples are characteristic of the resistant stage and will further illustrate this point.

- Lowered heart rate (heart stops pounding).
- Lowered respiration (breathing slows down).
- Lowered body temperature (you begin to cool down).
- Muscles begin to relax (you feel less tense).

EXHAUSTION STAGE. When an individual is exposed to a stressor for a long period of time (chronic stress), the body enters what is referred to as the exhaustion stage. At this point your body's energy supply is constantly in a state of depletion and your ability to function normally and withstand further stress, is lowered significantly. Consider the eight-year-old minor

hockey player or figure skater who is constantly being ridiculed by their parents because they are not performing as well as their peer. After six weeks of negative feedback, the child exhibits the following signs/symptoms of stress.

- Increased aggression at school.
- Inability to sleep by night.
- Loss of appetite.
- Feelings of failure.
- Headaches.
- Attention/Concentration difficulties.
- Excessive worrying.

The Psychology of Stress

Stress is generally determined by individuals' perceptions of whether or not they believe they have the resources to cope with a particular situation or event. In other words, an individual's reaction to a potentially stressful experience is greatly determined by how they interpret the event. Two people may interpret the same experience in very different ways. The following activity is designed to help children become aware of how people react to potentially stressful situations. Ask students to read the following scenario between Bill and Susan and answer the questions that follow.

ACTIVITY**HOW WOULD YOU REACT?**

Upon entering the school Monday morning, Bill realizes that the homework he completed the night before is not in his school bag. He is supposed to give the completed work to his teacher at the beginning of the first period. He begins to get extremely nervous, looking everywhere and asking everyone if they have seen his homework. He gets sooo frustrated that he begins to say nasty things to his classmates and becomes very unfriendly with his teacher when she asks for his work. Bill never finds his homework and he complains of a headache all day.

Susan, on the other hand, had the same thing happen to her but had a very different reaction. Susan politely asked her friends for help, but unfortunately they too had little success in finding her homework. Susan sat down and began to think of where she may have left her work. She immediately called home and asked her mother to check in her bedroom. Susan's mother found the completed work on her desk. Susan calmly explained the situation to her teacher and told her that she would bring the completed work in the next day, with a message from her mother explaining what had happened. Susan had a great day at school!!!

You will notice in this situation that both Bill and Susan had the same experience. However, both reacted in very different ways.

Who do you think handled the situation better? Explain why.

Can you think of a time when you had a stressful experience? If yes, describe what happened and how you reacted.

If you were ever in the same situation again, do you think you would do anything different? If yes, give an example.

WHAT CAUSES STRESS?

Once children have an understanding of the concept of stress, they need to become aware of the sources of stress and what stresses them personally. The purpose of this exercise is raise the students' own level of self-awareness in this area. The examples shown on the following page are typically stressful for older children. Ask students to read each one, and place a tic next to the one that applies to them. In the spaces provided, ask students to add some of their own.

ACTIVITY**WHAT CAUSES STRESS IN MY LIFE?**

I feel stressed when...

- My parents get upset with me.
- I have an argument with my best friend.
- I don't have the money to buy the things that I would like.
- I don't feel very attractive.
- I have too much to do and not enough time to do it.
- I loan money to friends and they don't repay it.

THE EFFECTS OF STRESS

Stress can have physical, emotional, and behavioral affects on people. Below you will find examples of how stress can affect older children in each of these areas. Ask students to read the examples that follow, and tic the ones which apply to them. In the spaces provided, students may wish to add other ways they are affected by stress.

ACTIVITY**HOW DOES STRESS AFFECT ME?**

Stress affects me **PHYSICALLY** in the following ways:

- My muscles get tight.
- My hands get cold and/or sweaty.
- My stomach feels upset.
- I can't sleep.
- My heart beats fast.
- I suddenly have lots of energy.
- I get very tired.
- I lose my appetite, or eat lots of junk food.

Stress affects me **EMOTIONALLY** in the following ways:

- I get nervous easily.
- I feel sad and/or cry a lot.
- I get angry and/or want to hit someone.
- I worry a lot.
- I am irritable and/or feel depressed.
- I feel negative about myself.
- I can't concentrate like I want to.

Stress affects my **BEHAVIOR** in the following ways:

- I don't care about completing my homework.
- I eat a lot of junk food.
- I do drugs and/or alcohol as a way of coping.
- I don't care about how I look.
- I always try to get peoples' attention.
- I usually blame other people for my own mistakes.
- I often get into fights.
- I often tell lies.

SCHOOL STRESS

Students can experience a great deal of stress within the school setting. On average, students spend nearly 13 years of their lives in school from kindergarten to grade 12. This translates into approximately 15,000 hours of their time. The following **SCHOOL STRESS PROFILE** is a rating scale designed to help students self-evaluate the areas and frequency of sources of school based stress. Students are to answer all 48 items and then transfer their total score to the scoring profile. Students are encouraged to share their responses with other students, teachers, and/or parents.

ACTIVITY
SCHOOL STRESS PROFILE FOR STUDENTS

Directions: Circle one number for each item. 1 = never; 2 = sometimes;
3 = often.

INTERPERSONAL

- | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|
| 01. | When in school, I like to be by myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 02. | Peers do not include me in their activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 03. | I worry about what other students are thinking
about me. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 04. | I frequently tell other students what to do. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 05. | I am easily influenced by peers. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 06. | I like to be the leader of the group. | 1 | 2 | 3 |

Total Items 1 - 6. _____

SELF-CONCEPT

- | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|
| 07. | I feel that other students do not like me. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 08. | I worry about what my family thinks about me as a student. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 09. | It bothers me to back out of a possible fight with other students. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 10. | I see myself as a loner in the school environment. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 11. | I do not feel good about myself in school. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 12. | Other students act friendly toward me. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 13. | Other students would describe me as calm, cool, and collected. | 1 | 2 | 3 |

Total items 7 - 13. _____

SELF-CONTROL

- | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|
| 14. | I feel I can't control what happens to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 15. | I let other students tell me what to do. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 16. | When I do something wrong in school, there is very little I can do to change it. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 17. | In school, I am blamed for things that are not my fault. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 18. | When another student is angry with me, there is little I can do to change his mind. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 19. | I let other students take charge of things. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 20. | If there is a fight, I feel like I want to join in. | 1 | 2 | 3 |

Total Items 14 - 20. _____

COPING SKILLS

- | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|
| 21. | In school, I often lose control of myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 22. | If I see a fight at school, I feel threatened. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 23. | I get upset when I see fighting in school. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 24. | In school, I am often so angry that I feel like hitting someone. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 25. | If someone is angry with me, I can avoid getting into a fight by working it out with him or her. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 26. | When I get angry in school, it's usually for a reason I can understand. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 27. | When there is a problem, I feel like letting other students decide what to do. | 1 | 2 | 3 |

Total items 21 - 27. _____

PROBLEM-SOLVING

- | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|
| 28. | I have trouble solving my school-related problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 29. | I try to get my own way. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 30. | I get upset or angry when things go wrong. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 31. | I can't tell friends how I feel about things. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 32. | I try to avoid facing school problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 33. | I need a friend to help with my problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 34. | I don't think planning ahead makes things turn out better. | 1 | 2 | 3 |

Total items 28 -34. _____

SCHOOL

- | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|
| 35. | I worry about school. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 36. | I feel nervous as school. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 37. | I wish I did not have to go to school. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 38. | I have trouble doing my school work. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 39. | I am not interested in school work. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 40. | I do not have good friends at school. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 41. | When I am in school, I wish I were someplace else. | 1 | 2 | 3 |

Total items 35 - 41. _____

PHYSICAL/BEHAVIORAL SIGNS OF STRESS

- | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|
| 42. | I feel upset at school. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 43. | I feel I can't find time to relax or rest. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 44. | I feel I can't stay still. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 45. | I get sad or depressed. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 46. | I get stomach aches or headaches. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 47. | I find myself overloaded with too much to do. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 48. | I have trouble sleeping at night. | 1 | 2 | 3 |

Total Items 42 - 48. _____

Instructions for Scoring

1. After you have completed items 1 - 48, total the scores in each section and enter it in the corresponding box on the scoring chart.
2. Add up all your category scores and enter the number in the box after Total Overall Score. If you divide the total score by seven, you will find your average score for the total test, and this should be entered at the bottom of the scoring chart.
3. Plot your score on the dotted line with an "X" and draw a line between your scoring "Xs" so that a clear profile of your stress evaluation is visible.
4. Check your level on the same line as either low, moderate, or high.

STRESS

LOW MODERATE HIGH

SCORE 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21

Interpersonal _____

Self-concept _____

Self-control _____

Coping skills _____

Problem solving _____

School _____

Physical/Behavioral

Signs of Stress _____

TOTAL OVERALL LOW MODERATE HIGH

SCORE _____

AVERAGE SCORE _____

COPING WITH STRESS

There is an increasing amount of information indicating that children need to develop skills that will enable them to cope effectively with stress. The purpose of the following exercises is to make children aware of stress management techniques that they can use to help reduce their own level of stress and anxiety.

Progressive Relaxation

Progressive relaxation is a technique that involves the progressive relaxation of one muscle group after another, with emphasis on comparing the difference between tension and relaxation. Individuals using this technique must be able to identify muscle groups and learn how to contract them so that tension and relaxation can be experienced. Progressive relaxation techniques have generally been successfully used with adults. However, they can equally and successfully be used with children when variations are applied.

Before engaging in progressive relaxation, it is important to adhere to the following guidelines to ensure safety and increased success.

1. This technique requires time and the more often it is practised, the more proficient children will become in using this skill on their own.

2. This technique will require 20 to 30 minutes of a child's time.
3. The time of day that this technique is be used optimally will vary from child to child. Each child needs to become aware of what time would be most appropriate for them. For example, some children may find studying highly stressful. This technique would be highly appropriate before and after a study session.
4. It is important to find a comfortable place to practice these tensing and relaxing exercises. Once again, this will depend on the individual, as one may prefer a couch, another a chair, and still another may prefer to lie on the floor.
5. Consideration should be given to the amount of time given to the tensing and relaxation of the muscles. A general rule of thumb is to maintain tension for approximately four to six seconds and relax for eight to ten seconds.
6. Controlled breathing is equally important during progressive muscle relaxation techniques. Breathing makes it easier to relax and is most effective when it is done deeply and slowly. One should inhale deeply when the muscles are tensed and exhale slowly as the muscles are relaxed.

ACTIVITY**MIRRORS**

One effective method of using progressive relaxation with children is to play the game of "MIRRORS." In this game the adult takes a position opposite the child (or several children) and the child is required to imitate what he/she (the adult) does. In other words, the child mirrors the movements of the adult. In the following sequence of events, the children are asked to tense for five seconds and then to relax and feel the tension leaving the body for ten seconds.

1. Squeeze your eyes shut - tightly - hold it, relax.
2. Push your lips together, very tightly - hold it, relax.
3. Press your tongue to the roof of your mouth - hold it - relax.
4. Shrug your shoulders up towards your ears - hold it - relax - feel the tension leaving your shoulders.
5. With both hands make a fist as tight as you can - feel the tension building - relax. Feel the tension leaving your hands.
6. Make a fist with your right hand. Feel the right hand getting tense while your left hand is relaxing - relax your right hand.
7. Make a fist with your left hand. Feel the left hand getting tense while your right hand is relaxing - relax your left hand.

8. Pull your stomach way in toward your back - hold it - relax - feel the tension leaving.
9. Push your knees together - hard - hold it. Relax.
10. Pull your toes towards your knees, way up. Hold it, hold it, relax. Feel the tension leaving your legs.
11. Point your toes. Hold it - relax.
12. Now tighten every muscle in your body - hold it - relax your entire body. Let your entire body get very limp - relaxed and comfortable.

Creative Relaxation

Creativity and childhood have a natural relationship because children are naturally creative. Likewise, for children the very essence of creative expression is movement. Combining this creativity with body movement provides children with a natural medium for self-expression and enables them to control stress more effectively. During creative relaxation a child or group of children create a movement(s) designed to tense and relax individual muscles, muscle groups or the entire body.

Before engaging in creative movement exercises, it is important to consider the following suggestions.

1. Creative movement exercises are intended to be conducted in an informal atmosphere, with a minimal amount of formal structuring.
2. Children will show varying degrees of creativity, and therefore guidance and encouragement will be needed depending on the situation and children involved.
3. The voice of the leader will have a dramatic effect on the success of the activity. A soft gentle tone will tend to produce slower movements, while a sharp or loud tone will probably produce more vigorous movements. Remember, the goal here is to experience tensing and relaxing. The tone of the leader's voice can profoundly influence this experience.
4. The format for conducting this activity is intended only as a general procedure. Individuals should inject their own creative ideas when conducting this type of exercise. You may even wish to create some of your own activities using the following format as a possible guide: (a) the name of the activity, (b) suggested leader input, (c) some possible children's responses, and (d) suggested evaluation procedures.
5. When conducting this activity, one should provide ample opportunity for freedom of movement. Some children may wish to fall to the

floor as a means of expression and therefore a soft landing area should be provided.

ACTIVITY

RAIN AND SNOW

This activity will probably produce an experience that most children can relate to. Experience has shown that when children are asked to imitate rain, they tend to make their body tense. When imitating snow, they tend to relax their body. One might hypothesize that rain is associated with heavy and snow with light. The discussion should be guided in this general direction.

One good way of introducing this activity is to ask the difference between rain and snow.

RESPONSES

- Rain is wetter than snow.
- Rain comes down harder than snow.
- Snow is white, rain does not have a color.
- It is more fun playing in the snow than it is in the rain.
- My mother doesn't care if I play in the snow, but she does not like to have me play in the rain.

LEADER

You have suggested some very interesting ways in which snow and rain are different. Now, how do you think it would make you feel to pretend you are rain - and then snow?

RESPONSES

Children express different feelings.

LEADER

You have told many different ways it could feel to be like rain and snow. Now let us pretend we are one and then the other. I will say "RAIN," and then I will say "SNOW." (The leader alternates calling out "RAIN" and "SNOW" as the children try to create movements in the form of these elements).

EVALUATION

Which did you like being best - pretending you were rain or pretending you were snow?

How did it feel to be like rain?

How did it feel to be like snow?

When did it feel more restful - when you were rain or when you were snow?

Did you feel heavier when you were rain?

Did you feel lighter when you were snow?

Which one gave you the better feeling?

NOTE: The following concepts may be helpful in developing similar exercises.

- "COLD AND HOT"

- "HARD AND SOFT"

NUTRITION AND EXERCISE

The benefits of good nutrition and regular exercise are almost impossible to exaggerate. A varied, well-balanced diet is one of the basic cornerstones of healthy living, ensuring that mind and body have the opportunity to function at their peak levels. The value of physical activity and exercise as a means of controlling stress is well documented by various authorities. Recent research shows that powerful brain chemicals are released during vigorous exercise. These are called endorphins, morphine-like substances associated with happiness and well-being. This is why exercise can often dispel negative mental states such as depression or

anxiety. In addition, exercise is the ideal outlet for accumulated tension, bottled-up aggression, and frustration, neutralizing mental as well as muscular stress. Evidence suggests that aerobically fit individuals are more resistant to the physiological and psychological effects of stress, and that aerobically fit individuals may recover more quickly from stress.

For children and young adolescents, one of the most important characteristics of life is movement. In essence, children are creatures of movement. Practically all children - unless there is an incapacitating impairment - will engage in physical activity if given the opportunity to do so. They run, jump, climb and play games requiring these and other movement skills. They should be encouraged to engage in physical exercise and provided with many opportunities to do so.

Following is a summary of some of the benefits of exercise and good nutrition.

- increased blood circulation
- increased assistance to heart
- increased oxygen supply to the body
- improved digestion
- balanced emotions
- increased resistance to disease

- reduced fatigue
- strengthened muscles, bones, and ligaments
- improved body image
- sharpened mental abilities
- enhancement of ability to handle stressful encounters
- benefits from the body's endorphins
- increased self-confidence

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MODULE II
LEARNING TO SAY NO!
ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING

Rationale and Performance Objectives

One of the most common sources of stress for children is not being able to communicate to others what they are feeling and thinking. Children need to develop assertiveness skills so they can confidently confront situations that would typically produce anxiety, frustration, and guilt, and would otherwise cause them to deny their own feelings and emotions. This confidence is especially important if children are to be effective in making difficult decisions. Assertiveness skills provide effective communications, and they enable children not only to be receptive but also to assert their rights without using intimidation or being intimidated. Assertiveness skills are necessary for managing the conflicts of everyday life.

At the end of this module students will:

1. be able to distinguish among passive, aggressive and assertive behaviors.
2. become aware of an individual's basic assertive rights.
3. become aware of their own level of assertiveness.
4. develop appropriate assertive responses.

Characteristics of Passive Behavior

Passive behavior is often called "being shy" or "being quiet." People who demonstrate passive behavior often have difficulty expressing their feelings or opinions, and don't realize they have the right to think for themselves and make their own decisions. As a result, they often fail to achieve their goals and often end up feeling hurt.

Characteristics of passive behavior include:

1. being shy around other people
2. feeling guilty about saying no
3. weak voice when talking to others
4. afraid to say no to other people
5. lack of eye contact when talking or listening to someone
6. thinking that your own feelings, opinions, rights, and ideas are not important

Characteristics of Aggressive Behavior

Aggressive behavior is mean and angry behavior that people use to try and get what they want. People who are aggressive tend to verbally attack others with a loud and demanding voice, often using accusations and sarcasm. Aggressive people tend to label the behavior and attitudes of others. They often make decisions for others with little regard for others' feelings, rights, and ideas.

Characteristics of aggressive behavior include:

1. direct eye contact (cold staring)
2. rigid posture (folding arms)
3. sarcastic remarks toward others
4. wrongly accusing others
5. a loud, demanding voice
6. cramming your personal space
7. blaming others
8. making decisions for other people
9. always wanting their own way
10. clenched hands and finger pointing

Characteristics of Assertive Behavior

Acting assertively means being able to stand up for your rights and express what you believe, feel, and want in a direct, honest and appropriate way that respects the rights of the other person. Assertive people strive to reach their goals without hurting others and are willing to take risks and responsibility for their own behavior.

Characteristics of assertive behavior include:

1. appropriate eye contact
2. an appearance of being calm
3. statements that begin with "I"
4. a voice that is both strong and firm
5. direct and honest expression of feelings and beliefs
6. consideration of alternatives

ACTIVITY**BASIC ASSERTIVE RIGHTS**

People who are assertive believe that they and others have certain basic rights similar to those listed below. Read the list of basic assertive rights, and place a check mark in the space to the right indicating if you agree or disagree with the statement. Then, turn to the next page and answer the questions that follow.

01. I believe I have the right to be treated with respect.
02. I believe I have the right to say no and not feel guilty.
03. I believe I have the right to express my feelings.
04. I believe I have the right to change my mind.
05. I believe I have the right to ask for help.
06. I believe I have the right to set my own priorities.
07. I believe I have the right to make mistakes.
08. I believe I have the right to feel good about myself.

1. If you disagreed with one or more of these basic assertive rights, state a reason why you disagreed. If you need more space, write on the back of this sheet.

2. Would you add other basic assertive rights to this list.
If yes, give examples.

3. Can a person carry these rights too far? If yes, give an example.

4. When is it appropriate to be assertive? Give examples.

ACTIVITY
ASSERTIVENESS INVENTORY

PURPOSE

To develop an awareness of your own level of assertiveness in a variety of situations.

PROCEDURE

Read each of the following statements. If the statement describes how you usually behave, put a check-mark in the space to the right "MOSTLY LIKE ME." If the statement does not describe how you usually behave, put a check-mark in the space to the right "MOSTLY UNLIKE ME." Follow the directions at the end of the inventory.

	Mostly Like Me	Mostly Unlike Me
01. I speak up in group discussion.	_____	_____
02. I speak first when I meet someone new.	_____	_____
03. I give compliments easily to others.	_____	_____
04. I give my full attention to people when they speak to me.	_____	_____
05. I consider the feelings of others before I act.	_____	_____
06. I can say "NO" without feeling guilty when a friend wants to copy my work.	_____	_____

	Mostly Like Me	Mostly Unlike Me
07. I accept praise without feeling uncomfortable.	_____	_____
08. I would call a friend to get help with school work if I needed it.	_____	_____
09. I ask my teacher for help when I have difficulty in class.	_____	_____
10. If I were accused unfairly, I would attempt to correct the situation.	_____	_____
11. I am able to speak positively about myself without feeling embarrassed.	_____	_____
12. When I'm wrong, I can say, "I'm sorry easily."	_____	_____
13. I politely say "NO" if someone I did not like asked me to dance.	_____	_____
14. If I were busy, I would ask the caller to telephone me at a more convenient time.	_____	_____
15. I can easily tell someone that I like him/her.	_____	_____
16. I maintain eye contact when speaking with others.	_____	_____
17. I speak in a calm controlled way when others disagree with me.	_____	_____
18. If I wanted to talk to someone I did not know very well, I would approach that person.	_____	_____
19. When I don't understand what is said, I ask for an explanation.	_____	_____
20. I feel comfortable and relaxed at parties.	_____	_____

	Mostly Like Me	Mostly Unlike Me
21. I can accept criticism without getting upset.	_____	_____
22. When a friend doesn't return a borrowed item, I ask that it be returned.	_____	_____
23. I can talk with my parents even when we disagree.	_____	_____
24. I can say "NO" when I feel it is necessary.	_____	_____
25. If I were lost, I would approach a stranger for directions.	_____	_____

DIRECTIONS FOR SCORING

Give yourself one point for each of the responses "MOSTLY LIKE ME." This will give you your assertiveness score.

YOUR SCORE: _____

Locate your score on the range-finder scale below and note your level of assertiveness.

NON-ASSERTIVE LOW/MODERATE HIGH/EXCEPTIONALLY HIGH

5

15

25

Responding Assertively

Students need to develop assertive responses that can be used in a variety of conflicting situations. Responses such as, "I feel angry when..." or "I feel annoyed when..." allow students to express how they feel in negative situations and help them succeed with personal goals and objectives. The "I" statement should include three components. First, communicate to the other person how you feel. Secondly, communicate to the other person what made you feel the way you did. Third, communicate what you want the other person to do. Consider the following examples of "I" statements:

1. "I feel angry when you take my cassette tape without my permission. I would appreciate you asking for it the next time."
2. "I felt hurt when you asked someone else to the dance. You promised that we were going together." If you can't keep your promises, then you should not make them.
3. "I feel annoyed when you turn up the television so loud that I cannot concentrate on my studies. I would like for you to turn it down."

ACTIVITY**DEVELOPING ASSERTIVE RESPONSES**

Below are a number of conflicting situations. Read each situation carefully and respond with an appropriate "I" statement. Students may wish to refer to the feelings list located on page ???. Remember, your "I" statement should communicate three things:

- (1) how you feel.
- (2) what made you feel this way
- (3) what you want the other person to do.

1. A friend asks you to steal something while you are shopping on a Saturday afternoon.

I feel _____

I feel this way because _____

I want you to _____

2. A teacher falsely accuses you of throwing something across the classroom.

I feel _____

I feel this way because _____

I want you to _____

3. Someone calls you a name while you are in front of your friends.

I feel _____

I feel this way because _____

I want you to _____

FEELINGS LIST

ANGRY	PRESSURED	EMBARRASSED
NERVOUS	UPSET	JEALOUS
LOUSY	TERRIBLE	IRRITATED
ROTTEN	LEFT OUT	SCARED
CRABBY	UNHAPPY	SAD
LET DOWN	FEARFUL	TERRIFIED
UNCOMFORTABLE	FRUSTRATED	

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MODULE III
GOAL SETTING

Rationale and Performance Objectives

If you were to ask students what they want out of life, you would probably get a variety of responses. Many students would say they want:

- to be popular
- to be successful
- to buy a new pair of basketball shoes
- to buy a new bike
- to do well in school
- to be happy
- to do well in sports

It's perfectly natural for students to want to be happy, successful, and respected by their peers. The bigger question however is, "how can they get what they want?" One very important way is to set **GOALS** and work hard towards them. Students who want to make the hockey team will probably have a good chance of achieving that goal if they work on skill development. Making the team is their goal; skill development is their plan. Without a plan, they could have dreamed about making the team forever, but would never have made it. To turn their wants and dreams into accomplished goals, students need to identify their goals, develop a plan, and take **ACTION**.

At the end of this module students will:

1. Understand why goals are important.
2. Become aware of obstacles to reaching their goals.
3. Learn how to identify their goals.
4. Become aware of the key elements in setting effective goals.
5. Understand the steps in creating interesting and achievable goals.
6. Reward themselves for accomplishing their goals.
7. Learn the keys to success (how to get the most out of your life).

Why Setting Goals Is Important

Why should setting goals be important to students? Goals are important because they help students get what they want out of life. Setting goals will help them develop a **PLAN** of attack for achieving success. Students need to become aware that they may fail to accomplish anything worthwhile if they do not have a plan. Otherwise, they may never get what they want.

In other words, if students fail to plan, they are truly planning to fail. Consider the following sports analogy: Suppose that you are going to run the city marathon. If you fail to train for the race, eat the right foods,

and warm up before the race, you will probably not be very successful in winning. To be successful, to win - you need a **PLAN!**

Identifying Obstacles To Goal Setting

If goals are so important, why is that students do not engage in more goal setting behavior? For example, why don't students set goals for increased academic performance? In other words, what are the obstacles to goal setting? What are the reasons--or rather the excuses!--that students use to avoid being in charge of their lives?

1. "Goals Are Not All That Important"

Many students don't realize the importance of goal setting. They are not aware that setting goals will help them take control of their own lives and accept responsibility for themselves. They need to understand that they are in charge and that they are not controlled by other people or other situations. Rather, **I AM** in charge of my own destiny. **I AM** in charge of myself.

2. "I Don't Know How To Set Goals"

Most young adolescents would probably say that the reason they don't set goals is because they just don't know how. For many, they simply have not been taught! They need to be reassured that setting goals is not a

difficult process and that with a little practice, they too can become effective in setting goals that are both realistic and attainable.

3. **"What If Someone Makes Fun of My Goal"**

The third reason some young people don't set goals is fear of being criticized. Consider the following scenario: Your goal is to be captain of the hockey team. You tell your close friend, who immediately laughs and replies, "You're not good enough to be captain. You're just wasting your time!" Students may often find themselves in this type of situation. Their friends, whether for a good reason or out of jealousy, often ridicule or criticize their goals. Students need to share goals only with those who are supportive. Otherwise, goals should be kept to yourself!

4. **"I Might Fail"**

The fourth reason why some young people don't set goals is the fear of failure. Students need to understand that it is **OK** to fail, and that it is **OK** to take calculated risks in life. In their attempts to solve everyday problems, mistakes will obviously be made. However, it is what they learn from those mistakes that is so important. Suppose you failed your math exam. What did you learn from the experience? You probably realize that you need to study even harder the next time. If young adolescents let the fear of failure prevent them from setting goals, they will lose the power to

shape their own life, to make it what they want it to be. Life is about learning, so reassure students that it is ok to fail, and encourage them to engage in appropriate risk taking behavior.

ACTIVITY**WHERE DO YOU WANT TO GO?**

1. How can setting goals give you more control over your life?

2. How could you improve your performance by having a goal and a plan for achieving it?

3. Why would you be happier by having a goal and a plan for achieving it?

4. How does fear of being criticized affect the goals you set?

5. How can you overcome this fear?

6. How does the fear of failure affect the goals you set?

7. How can you overcome this fear?

ACTIVITY

FAILURE IS NOT FATAL!

You can triumph over failure by learning from your mistakes. You can turn failure into success by learning from every setback. List two disappointments you have had and at least one valuable lesson you learned from each one.

Disappointment:

Lesson:

Disappointment:

Lesson:

Keys To Goal Setting

This section is about helping students clarify what they are about, so that they can go about doing what they want to do. They need to learn to match their strengths with their dreams, and to set goals that are both meaningful and attainable.

First, students need to focus on areas of excellence, areas in which they excel. One person might be good at athletics, while another finds math and science easy. For some, it is difficult to find those areas of excellence, but they are there. To find areas of expertise, it is important for students to be exposed to a variety of learning experiences. It is through these experiences that students find out what they are interested in and what they are really good at. For example, a young girl is enrolled in private piano lessons at an early age. After a year of playing, practice, and much success, she realizes that she truly enjoys playing the piano. In her enthusiasm she makes the following remark to her parents, "That's it, that's what I want to do with my life. I want to become a music teacher." Her interest and talent eventually led her to college and she eventually became a music teacher. These things really do happen, but only because individuals discovered their interests and areas of expertise.

In what areas should students set their goals? One way is to determine what captures their attention and what things they quickly lose interest in. In a Physical Education class, students might be good at volleyball because they like it. However, they may never be good at playing the piano. If they don't want to play the piano, if they don't like it, they probably never become very good at it.

NOTE: This does not mean that students should stop working in areas that are not their best. If someone finds math difficult, they will still have to study to pass the test. This is not to suggest that they say, "I never do well in this, so I may as well not waste any more time on it." That would be an easy way for students to get out of learning any subject. Students need to put effort into all areas of their lives. Rather, there will likely be one or perhaps more than one area in which they excel. Encourage them to put extra time and effort into that area.

ACRES OF DIAMONDS

This concept is illustrated by telling the story about a farmer who got bored with farming and decided to seek his fortune in a gold mine. After selling his farm, he went up to Alaska and searched for gold. He was gone many years and had all sorts of adventures. But he never did find gold, and he lived a very poor life, sometimes not having enough food, and never having a nice place to live. Finally, exhausted and out of hope, he travelled back to see his former farm, just for old times' sake. To his amazement, he found that a mansion stood where the farmhouse had been, and the grounds were gorgeous. The new owner came out to talk to the former farmer. "What on earth happened here?" asked the bewildered farmer. "You barely had enough money to buy the farm from me, as I remember. How did you get so rich?"

The new owner just smiled. "Actually, it was all due to you. There were diamonds on this property, acres and acres of diamonds!" The old farmer scoffed. "Diamonds! I knew every inch of this land, and there were no diamonds here." The new owner nodded, and pulled from his pocket a lump of what looked like coal. "I carry around this small one as good luck charm. Here is one of the diamonds from this property."

The farmer was amazed. "That's a diamond? I remember seeing a lot of those all over this land. I used to swear at them and kick them because they got in the way when I was ploughing. I thought they were lumps of coal! That doesn't look anything like a diamond to me!"

You see, the farmer sold perfectly good land that could have made him a millionaire, because he didn't recognize the diamonds when he saw them. Not all diamonds look like diamonds; in their unpolished form, they look like lumps of coal. You have diamonds in your life that YOU may not be recognizing right now. Something that seems worthless or silly might be extremely valuable. For example, if you have an ability to mimic people, you might think that is just a fun thing to do at parties--but maybe it's a sign that you have dramatic ability and could be a good actor, with practice. If you are able to explain things to your classmates, so that they are always asking you for help, you might think that you have a skill that is a pain in the neck, since others pester you a lot. However, that skill, with practice, could make you a good teacher, or professor, or consultant, or public speaker. The point of all this is to know that you have those 'diamonds.' You have to find them, then you have to work on polishing them so they look like the diamonds they really are.

ACTIVITY**IDENTIFYING YOUR ACRES OF DIAMONDS**

1. What subjects do you like the most? When your looking for a book in the library, what do you pick up and read? What programs do you watch on television? List them below.

2. What activities do you most enjoy doing?

3. When you feel completely absorbed in something, what you are doing?

4. Think of a time when you thought you had a "lump of coal," but you actually had a "diamond." Can you remember a time when you worked hard towards something, only to find that you had overlooked the obvious?

ACTIVITY

FINDING YOUR AREAS OF EXCELLENCE?

1. List the skills (things that you are good at) in each of the areas below. The goal of this exercise is to make you think of all the many talents and areas of expertise you really do have.

Academic _____

Social _____

Family _____

Athletic _____

Dramatic _____

Other _____

2. Which of these skills do you consider your own personal "diamonds?"

Having A Number One Goal

Students need to have a number one goal, a goal that feel so strongly about that it is in their mind all the time. You'll find that this goal may be broad and general, like "I want to be popular," or "I want to do better in school."

Most people generally have a lot of different goals. In fact, you need a variety of goals to create balance in your life. How, then, can you decide on this number one goal? Ask yourself how much you want to reach it. Remember, you will probably work harder and with more enthusiasm toward goals that are important to you. If you want a number one goal, it should be something towards which you are willing to work very hard. You have probably heard stories of athletes who practice eight, ten, or more hours a day, giving up their social lives, spending every minute working on their sport. They do this because being the best at their sport is their number one goal, more important than anything else. These athletes have an intensity of purpose. If you are not intense, you will not put in the necessary effort. If you do not put in the effort, you probably will fail. If you keep setting goals and failing, soon you will be discouraged and quit, defeating your own purpose. Find something that is more important to you than anything else, and make that your number one goal.

ACTIVITY**DETERMINING YOUR NUMBER ONE GOAL**

Write one or two goals you have in each of the areas listed below.

Then, thinking carefully about them all, come up with a **Number One** goal, something that right now is the most important thing to you.

1. **Spiritual growth:** Goals for peace of mind, happiness, and spiritual fulfillment.

2. **Personal relationships:** Goals in your relationships (with parents, friends, teachers, others).

3. **Learning/education:** What would you like to know more about? What skills do you want to develop?

4. **Status and respect:** To which groups do you want to belong? From whom do you want respect?

5. **Leisure time:** What activities (hobbies, sports, travels) would you like to learn more about? To do more of?

6. **Fitness:** Goals for your physical fitness and overall health.

7. **Financial:** Goals for having enough money to do the things you want to do.

8. **Career:** What kind of work would you like to do when you get older?

9. **Others:** Goals that may not fit into the previous categories.

Now go back and select one goal that is more important to you right now.

Write it below.

Goal: _____

Why is this the most important goal?

Setting Yourself Up For Success

Learning how to set goals will help students become more successful. If they learn how to develop realistic and attainable goals, they will feel proud and confident about themselves and, and want to do it again and again. There are six steps to becoming a successful goal setter.

Six Steps for Goal Setting

1. Desire To Achieve

Students must have the desire and motivation to strive to get to where they want to go. If they don't really want the goal, it's unlikely they will make the commitment to accomplish it, and they will give up when faced with hard work. A general rule of thumb is not to set goals that are so difficult that they are impossible to attain, and don't set goals that are so easy that they require no work. If your goal is to 50% on your math test and you know you can get a 70%, there is no challenge!

Students must own their goals. It has to be one that they want themselves. It is meaningless for someone else to set you goals because you will not be very motivated to achieve them. If your parents want you to be an "A" student, that's one thing. But if you want to be an "A" student,

that's another. You have to own the goal and want to achieve it yourself. You have to feel, "This is important to **ME**."

2. Believe In Themselves

Students must believe that they can meet their goals. Even though their goals may be difficult, they must believe that their goals and achievable. It is important that the goal is not too difficult that they will not achieve it. Set a goal that you personally can achieve. Once again, it must be realistic and achievable. For example, if you set a goal to get an "A" in math, but only think and dream about it because you don't really think you can make the grade, you will probably never make it. On the other hand, if you sincerely believe in your goal, study hard for the test, and ask for help when needed, you will probably accomplish your goal a lot more quickly.

3. Write Your Goals Down

Students must get in the habit of writing their goals down. Writing down goals helps keep you organized as goals can easily be forgotten. Everyone has hundreds of thousands of thoughts daily; most of which are forgotten in moments. But those we take the time and effort to write down seem to matter more and are not as easily forgotten.

4. What Are The Benefits?

Is it worthwhile for students to set goals and work towards achieving them? It's natural for students to want to know what their getting before they begin investing time and effort. So when you set a goal and begin working towards achieving it, take the time to think about what your going to get for your efforts. For example, suppose you want to get in great physical shape. What are the benefits? Maybe you'll look better, get more attention and more dates, feel better physically, and probably get stronger and accomplish more in sports. You may even feel more self-confident, with an overall increase in your level of self-esteem.

5. Starting Point

Students need to know where they are now so they know where they have to start. For example, if you want to run a mile race under the five minute mark, you need to find out your time now so that you can begin your training program. Knowledge of your current time gives you a reference point from which to begin.

6. Deadlines

Set a deadline/completion date for your goal and write it down. As well, prioritize where and how you will utilize (spend) your time. If you accomplish your goal within the deadline, you will likely feel much better

about yourself. It is highly important not to set overly ambitious deadlines. For example, don't say you are going to make three new friends this month if you are a very shy person who has trouble making two new friends a year. Obviously, it is important to set a realistic deadline, one that allows you sufficient time to achieve success.

Rewarding Your Accomplishments

Once students have set a goal and accomplished it, they need to **REWARD THEMSELVES**. Find one thing that you can do or give yourself for the hard work you have put forth to accomplish your goal. For example, a new item of clothing for obtaining a 70% on your math exam.

ACTIVITY

WHAT'S IMPORTANT TO YOU?

Turn back to page 152, where you chose your number one goal. Write your goal on the blank line entitled "Goal" on the next page. Now, go through the six steps of goal setting for that goal. An example is given below to help you get started.

Goal: To make the Junior High School basketball team.

Desire: I have always wanted to make the team ever since I was in 5th grade. I think about it all the time.

Belief: I know that I am tall enough and have the basic skills to make the team. I am as good as the other players in my grade level. I know I can make it if I was given the opportunity to try out.

Writing: On my Michael Jordan poster at home I have written, "I want to make the Junior High School basketball team!"

Benefits: If I make the team, it will be a dream come true, one that "I" made a reality. I will have many new friends, get more respect from my peers, make my parents proud of me.

Starting point: I know that I have some good skills now, but I will need to work much harder to increase my chances of earning a spot on the team. I should probably begin with getting into great shape. Maybe a five kilometre run three times per week would be a good place to start.

Deadline: I have to be in shape by the first week of try-outs. I would not want to be cut from the team because I could not keep up with the rest of the players.

Goal: _____

Desire: _____

Belief: _____

Writing: _____

Benefits: _____

Starting point: _____

Deadline: _____

ACTIVITY

EVALUATING YOUR GOAL

Now that you have gone through the steps, go back and think about them a second time. Answer these questions for the goal you set.

1. Evaluate your goal. Is it clear and specific?

2. How much you desire a goal often determines whether you achieve it.

Be honest with yourself. Is this goal really what you want to be, to have, or to do?

3. Do you believe you can accomplish your goal? If not, rewrite the goal so that you have at least a 50 percent chance of achieving it.

4. Did you put your goal in writing? Did you make a couple of copies to keep in front of you (one copy for your mirror, one for your notebook, etc.)? Where will you put them?

5. Why do you want to achieve this goal? What's in it for you?
Remember, the more reasons you list, the more likely it is you'll achieve your goal.

6. Did you set a reasonable deadline? What are your chances of reaching your goal by the date you set?

7. How can you keep from getting discouraged when you have a long way to go before reaching your goal?

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MODULE IV
USING YOUR TIME

Rationale and Performance Objectives

Students' attitudes toward time usage has been discussed as a contributing factor to stress and overall poor academic achievement. By increasing their own level of awareness regarding attitudes toward time and their current use of time, students may engage in more effective time-management behaviors.

At the end of this module students will:

1. Become aware of how they use their time on an average school day.
2. Evaluate their organizational use of time.

ACTIVITY

ASSIGNMENT BEFORE CLASS

Before the beginning of this module, have students record everything they do on an **AVERAGE SCHOOL DAY**. They should write down the title of each activity and the time of day that each activity takes place. A sample record of an average school day is located on page 174. Students may wish to follow this as an example.

RECORD OF AN AVERAGE SCHOOL DAY

Date _____

Day of the Week _____

Time

Activity

_____	_____

_____	_____

_____	_____

_____	_____

_____	_____

SAMPLE RECORD OF AN AVERAGE SCHOOL DAY

<u>Time of Day</u>	<u>Activity</u>
7:00 AM	wake up
7:10-7:50	breakfast, get ready for school
7:50-8:10	walk to school
8:15-2:20 PM	in school
2:30-3:00	walk home
3:30-4:30	playing sports
5:00-6:00	supper
6:15-6:30	help with dishes
7:00-8:00	do homework
8:15-8:30	talk on phone
8:30-9:30	watch TV
9:30-9:45	get ready for bed
10:00	go to sleep

ACTIVITY**WHERE HAS THE DAY GONE**

Using the information from the previous activity, complete the table located below. Write down each activity and the amount of time you spent on each.

ACTIVITY	NUMBER OF HOURS/MINUTES
Example: Sports	3 Hours and 10 Minutes

ACTIVITY	NUMBER OF HOURS/MINUTES
TOTAL MINUTES =	

Once you have completed the table, follow the directions below.

Now subtract **TOTAL MINUTES** from 1440 (the total number of minutes in 1 day). This is the amount of "**FREE TIME**" you had!

Total Minutes in a Day = 1440

Total Minutes Used in Your Day = _____

1440 - _____ = _____ * 60 = _____ hrs of free time!!!

Based on this knowledge, what changes would you make in the use of your
"FREE TIME."

List at least one change you would make in the space below.

Do you have a problem getting things done comfortably and on time?

Explain why you answered yes or no in the space below.

How could a schedule of some sort help you?

ACTIVITY

EVALUATING STUDENTS' ORGANIZATIONAL USE OF TIME

To help yourself become a better time manager, you need to become aware of how you organize your time with regard to school work and leisure activities. Only then will you be more likely to engage in effective time management behaviors. To help you understand your current use of time, please answer yes or no to the following questions.

- ___ 01. Do you set aside time for studying each subject that your taking?
- ___ 02. Do you study only when you are "in the mood"?
- ___ 03. Whenever you study, do you spend some time reviewing?
- ___ 04. Do you start early on long-term assignments/projects?

- ___ 05. Do you have a regular time each day for studying particular subjects?
- ___ 06. When you study, do you take a break every thirty to forty minutes?
- ___ 07. Do you study only when you have nothing else to do?
- ___ 08. Do you take time soon after class to review and revise your notes?
- ___ 09. Before you study, do you know how much time you will need to review all the material?
- ___ 10. Do you know what is the best time of the day for you to study?
- ___ 11. Do you prepare a weekly schedule to help you organize your time.
- ___ 12. To save time in doing assignments, do you question the teacher in class if you are not sure of how to do the work?
- ___ 13. Do you take time to write down all your assignments?
- ___ 14. Do you review regularly even if there is no immediate test?
- ___ 15. Do you set aside time for fun and recreation?

ANSWER KEY

- | | | |
|--------|---------|---------|
| 1. YES | 6. YES | 11. YES |
| 2. NO | 7. NO | 12. YES |
| 3. YES | 8. YES | 13. YES |
| 4. YES | 9. YES | 14. YES |
| 5. YES | 10. YES | 15. YES |

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MODULE V
PRIORITIZATION

Rationale and Performance Objective

Like adults, student too can often feel overwhelmed by all the things they have to do. Students need to sort out what needs to be done now from what can wait until later. They need to understand that not everything needs to be done today. Using the "ABC SYSTEM," students can learn to prioritize their activities.

At the end of this module students will:

1. be able to prioritize activities that need to be completed.

ACTIVITY**PRIORITIZATION: THE "ABC" SYSTEM**

1. Using activity sheet **"ACTIVITIES/TASKS"**, (located on the next page) ask students to list all the activities and/or tasks that they must complete in the near future.
2. Next, they are to assign to each task an A, B, or C priority. A means "I have no choice. I must do this immediately;" B means "This is quite important but I could wait a little while;" C means "I could postpone this. I may not even do it." Ask students to circle one letter only.
3. After the tasks have been prioritized, ask students to list them under the appropriate letter on activity sheet entitled **"TO DO LIST."** Remind students that A activities are to be finished before moving to the B list.

By categorizing their activities according to importance, the students will learn to focus on what absolutely must be done. In the process a few students always discover that they have been spending their time on their Cs while their As just have not been completed.

ACTIVITY
ACTIVITIES/TASKS

RATING

1.

A B C

2.

A B C

3.

A B C

4.

A B C

5.

A B C

6.

A B C

7.

A B C

8.

A B C

**ACTIVITY
TO DO LIST**

<p>A</p> <p>MOST IMPORTANT - CAN'T WAIT</p>
<p>B</p> <p>COULD WAIT A WHILE</p>
<p>C</p> <p>LEAST IMPORTANT - CAN WAIT</p>

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MODULE VI
CREATING A SCHEDULE

Rationale and Performance Objective

One method that many people use to organize their time is a **SCHEDULE**. A schedule is a plan that you create for how you want to spend your time. First, you figure out what you **NEED** and **WANT** to do. Then you give a certain amount of time to each activity.

A good schedule that you have created for yourself can help you avoid wasting time or getting behind in your school work. It can help you make sure that you do what you must but also have time for what you want to do.

At the end of this module students will:

1. Become aware of how to create a schedule.

What Should you Keep In Mind

When You're Planning Your Time?

1. Try to make each day a "balanced" one. That means to give yourself time both for work and play each day. Include time for

school work and work at home, and for relaxation, exercise, and being with friends.

2. Figure out when you are most awake and alert, and do your studying then. You can learn much more efficiently when you're alert.
3. Try to spend at least some time doing school work during every school day. Choose a regular study time, and use it for studying. Even if you have no homework due the next day, use that time for long-term assignments or reading. Make studying during your study time a habit. The more you get used to doing school work at that time, the easier it will be for you to study then.
4. Be sure to give yourself some free time each day. People need free time to relax and unwind.

ACTIVITY

CREATING YOUR SCHEDULE

In this exercise, you are going to create a **PRACTICE SCHEDULE** for the next school day. Before you begin this exercise, read over the example schedule located on page 189. Then, follow the directions below.

2. Write down the time you will wake up tomorrow, and when you'll go to sleep. Then mark down the time you'll spend eating meals and be in school.
3. Next, write down any obligations, things you must do, that you have for tomorrow (for example: paper route, private lessons, practices, etc.). Refer back to page 186 and include some of the activities from the **"TO DO LIST."**
4. Now, fill in your study time. Pick the time when your most alert. Be sure to give yourself enough time to get your school work done well.
5. Look at the time you have left, and fill it in with other activities. Be sure to give yourself some time for things you enjoy. Also, leave yourself enough free time.
6. Now, look at your schedule carefully. How does it seem to you? If it seems reasonable, your finished. If not, change it so your comfortable with it.

SAMPLE PRACTICE SCHEDULE

NAME: _____ DATE: _____

TIME	ACTIVITIES/TASKS
7:00-8:00 AM	WAKE UP
8:00-9:00 AM	BREAKFAST AND WALK TO SCHOOL
9:00-10:00 AM	CLASSES
10:00-11:00 AM	EXAM
11:00-12:00 PM	CLASSES
12:00-1:00 PM	LUNCH AND INTRAMURALS
1:00-2:00 PM	ASSIGNMENT DUE FOR TEACHER
2:00-3:00 PM	CLASSES
3:00-4:00 PM	FIGURE SKATING/HOCKEY PRACTICE
4:00-5:00 PM	FIGURE SKATING/HOCKEY PRACTICE
5:00-6:00 PM	DINNER AND CHORES
6:00-7:00 PM	FREE TIME
7:00-8:00 PM	HOMEWORK
8:00-9:00 PM	HOMEWORK
9:00-10:00 PM	BEDTIME
10:00-11:00 PM	

SAMPLE PRACTICE SCHEDULE

NAME: _____ DATE: _____

TIME	ACTIVITIES/TASKS
7:00-8:00 AM	
8:00-9:00 AM	
9:00-10:00 AM	
10:00-11:00 AM	
11:00-12:00 PM	
12:00-1:00 PM	
1:00-2:00 PM	
2:00-3:00 PM	
3:00-4:00 PM	
4:00-5:00 PM	
5:00-6:00 PM	
6:00-7:00 PM	
7:00-8:00 PM	
8:00-9:00 PM	
9:00-10:00 PM	
10:00-11:00 PM	

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APPENDIX A
School Board Approval

28 Mansfield Crescent
St. John's, NF
A1E 5E8

February 22 1994

Ms. Thomasina Cleal
(Assistant Superintendent)
Roman Catholic School Board
for St. John's
Belvedere, Bonaventure Avenue
St. John's, NF
A1C 3Z4

Dear Ms. Cleal:

I am currently in the process of implementing a program designed to teach time management skills to children and young adolescents at the elementary school level. Difficulties with time management (especially in the areas of school work and intrapersonal concerns) will be emphasized.

In order to carry out this program, I will need to obtain a sample of students at the grade five level. With the Board's permission I would appreciate being able to select students from Immaculate Conception School as the target group for the program.

This program is part of a larger project which is necessary for the completion of my Master of Education requirements in Educational Psychology. The project is being supervised by Dr. Lee klas, Department of Educational Psychology, Memorial University of Newfoundland.

A copy of a parent permission form, along with a copy of ethical procedures is enclosed for your convenience.

The implementation and post-evaluation of the program will be completed by June 1994.

Sincerely yours,

Todd W. Osmond
(Counsellor/Therapist)

Encl.

APPENDIX B
Parental Consent Form

**Immaculate Conception School
Bennett Street
Bell Island, NF
AOA 4HO**

Dear Parent:

As Counsellor/Therapist of Immaculate Conception School, I am currently preparing a research project that I hope to initiate within the next few weeks. The overall purpose of the project is to develop, implement, and evaluate a time management program for children and young adolescents at the elementary school level.

The program will consist of the following components:

1. Overview of the stress concept.
2. Developing assertive skills.
3. Goal setting.
4. Using your time.
5. Prioritization.
6. Creating a schedule.

The duration of the program will be approximately 6-8 weeks with 1-2 sessions per week. Each session will be 40 minutes in duration. Participation in all aspects of the program will be entirely voluntary, and any student can opt out of the program at any time.

If you have any concerns or questions about the program or your child's participation in it, you can contact me at 488-2871.

The Roman Catholic School Board and school officials have already given consent to proceed with the program. If you agree with your child's participation in this program, please sign the attached consent form on the following page.

Todd W. Osmond
Program Leader
(Counsellor/Therapist)

Dr. L. Klas
Department of Educational Psychology
Memorial University of Newfoundland
(Program Supervisor)

**Immaculate Conception School
Bennett Street
Bell Island, NF
AOA 4HO**

Parent Permission Form

I hereby give consent for _____ to
(Name of Child)
participate in a time-management training program at Immaculate
Conception School under the leadership of Mr. Todd W. Osmond
(Counsellor/Therapist). I am fully aware that this program is
strictly voluntary and that my child can opt out at any time.

(Parent/Guardian Signature)

(Date)

APPENDIX C
Ethical Procedures

ETHICAL PROCEDURES

1. The school board and school administration has granted permission to carry out this project.
2. A permission form (attached) will be sent out to the parents. The following information will be given.
 - (i) The parents will be informed of the general nature of the project. The contents of the time-management program will be explained to the parents as well.
3. The participation of the children themselves is entirely voluntary in that they can withdraw at any time.
4. The confidentiality of the subject^r will be maintained through the following means:
 - (i) No names will appear on the post-evaluation measure.
 - (ii) The evaluation data obtained will be used only by the project leader. The purpose of the data is to provide the project leader with feedback regarding the group's overall impressions of the time -management program. All data will be analyzed and presented as a group rather than on an individual basis.

5. Administrative Procedures:

- (i) Administrative Time: The duration of the program will be approximately 6-8 weeks with one or two 40 minute sessions per week.
- (ii) The purpose of the project will be explained in a general sense to the children. The children will be reassured that information shared throughout the program will be kept confidential. The children will be given the opportunity to opt out of the program at any time if they so wish to do so.
- (iii) The children will be given the opportunity for questions and further clarification of the project.
- (iv) Post-evaluation data will be kept confidential by the project leader.

Sincerely,

Todd W. Osmond
(Counsellor/Therapist)

APPENDIX D**Stress Survey**

STRESS SURVEY

Directions: Read each of the following statements carefully. Rate yourself on a scale of 1 to 5 with 1 being the lowest rating and 5 being the highest. Circle only one number.

- | | | | | | | |
|----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | I feel I understand what stress means. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. | I am aware of some of the early warning signs of stress. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. | I know what causes stress. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. | I understand how stress affects me personally. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. | I am aware of my own level of stress. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. | I feel I can handle stressful situations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |



