

**THE ROLE OF SELF-ESTEEM, HOPE AND EXTERNAL FACTORS
IN PREDICTING RESILIENCE AMONG REGIONAL BOARDING
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS**

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ABSTRACT

THE ROLE OF SELF-ESTEEM, HOPE AND EXTERNAL FACTORS IN PREDICTING RESILIENCE AMONG REGIONAL BOARDING ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

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This study aims to find out the role of self-esteem, hope and external factors in predicting resilience of students in Regional Boarding Elementary Schools. The sample was 391 students in 6. 7. and 8. grades of Regional Boarding Elementary Schools in Ankara. A demographic data form developed by the researcher, California Resilience and Youth Development Module (CDE, WestEd, 2001; Gizir, 2004), Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (Çuhadaroğlu, 1985; Rosenberg, 1965), and Children's Hope Scale (Kemer & Atik, 2006; Synder et al., 1997) were used to collect data.

Multiple regression analysis for the total sample results revealed that predictor variables explained 69 % of the variance. According to results Hope, and some external assets (Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations, and Meaningful Participation, Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School and Community Meaningful Participation; Peer Caring Relationships and High Expectations) were important predictors of resilience. However, Self-Esteem and two external assets (School Caring Relationships and High Expectations; and School Connectedness) did not contribute to internal assets of resilience scores.

Furthermore, findings showed differences between boys and girls in terms of the predictor variables of resilience. Regression analyses indicated that the model with eight predictors explained 69 % of the total variance among females and % 70 for males. On the other hand, male students possessed five protective factors predicting resilience, whereas females had three.

Keywords: Internal assets of resilience, external assets of resilience, self-esteem, hope, Regional Boarding Elementary Schools.

ÖZ

YATILI İLKÖĞRETİM BÖLGE OKULU İKİNCİ KADEME ÖĞRENCİLERİNDE SAĞLAMLIĞIN İÇSEL FAKTÖRLERİNİ YORDAMADA BENLİK SAYGISI, UMUT VE DIŞSAL FAKTÖRLERİN ROLÜ

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Bu çalışma, Yatılı İlköğretim Bölge Okulları II. kademe öğrencilerinin sağlık düzeylerini yordamada benlik saygısı, umut ve dışsal faktörlerin rolünü araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Araştırma örneklemini Ankara ili sınırları içinde yer alan dört Yatılı İlköğretim Bölge Okulunun 6., 7. ve 8. sınıflarında okuyan 391 öğrenci oluşturmuştur. Veri toplama aracı olarak, araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen demografik veri formu, California Sağlık ve Ergen Gelişim Ölçeği (CDE, WestEd, 2001; Gizir, 2004), Rosenberg Benlik Saygısı Ölçeği (Çuhadaroğlu, 1985; Rosenberg, 1965) ve Çocuklar için Umud Ölçeği (Kemer & Atik, 2006; Synder et al., 1997) kullanılmıştır.

Regresyon analizi sonuçlarına göre, yordayıcı değişkenler toplam varyansın % 69'unu açıklamaktadır. Umud, ve dışsal faktörlerin bazıları (Ev İçi İlgisi, Yüksek Beklentiler, ve Etkinliklere Katılım, Çevresel İlgisi ve Yüksek Beklentiler, Okul İçi ve Çevresel Etkinliklere Katılım, Arkadaş İlişkilerinde İlgisi ve Yüksek Beklentiler) sağlamlığı yordamada anlamlı bulunurken; Benlik Saygısı ve dışsal faktörlerden ikisi (Okul İçi İlgisi ve Yüksek Beklentiler ile Okula Bağlılık) toplam sağlamlık puanlarını anlamlı düzeyde yordamamaktadır. Kız ve erkek öğrenciler için ayrı ayrı

yapılan regresyon analizi sonuçları, yordayıcı deęişkenlerin kızların saęlamlık puanlarındaki varyansın % 69'unu, erkek öğrencilerin puanlarındaki varyansın ise % 70'ini açıkladığını göstermiştir. Erkek öğrencilerde içsel saęlamlığı beş deęişken yordarken, kızlarda içsel saęlamlığı yordayan deęişken sayısı üçtür.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Saęlamlık, dışsal etkenler, benlik saygısı, umut, Yatılı İlköğretim Bölge Okulları.

*To all of my teachers throughout my life,
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

In today's complex world, the environment in which we live is characterized by various risks conducive to the development of mental and physical health problems. Dysfunctional families, violence, illness and poverty have adverse effects on individuals of all ages, but it is children, who are developmentally more vulnerable to adversities, are the most at risk. As noted by researchers (Goldstein & Brooks, 2005) the technological complexity of life has led not only to an increase in the number of children facing adversity, but an increase in the number of adversities that children face.

In the scientific literature, the problem-focused medical model has been widely used to determine the risk factors and address the needs of children at risk (Krovetz, 1999). However, in recent decades, rather than identifying risks, the focus of research in developmental psychology has shifted to identifying those factors that make it possible for at-risk children to develop normally. This change in focus has given rise to an adoption of concepts such as protection and resilience, in addition to risk; in an effort to better understand the mental and physical health problems encountered by both children and families (Richman & Fraser, 2001).

This shift in emphasis from pathology to resilience represents a moving away from a deficits model to a strengths model and has been referred to as "Positive Psychology." As described by Martin Seligman in 1998, the positive psychology movement aims to increase the understanding of human strengths and to infuse this

knowledge into effective intervention programs designed to build participants' strengths rather than repair their weaknesses (Reivich & Shatte, 2002). Defined as "the ability to meet life's challenges with thoughtfulness, confidence, purpose, responsibility, empathy and hope" (Brooks, 2005, p. 298), resilience has become one of a number of significant constructs to be studied extensively by positive psychologists over the last few decades (Masten, 2001).

Researchers have emphasized the interplay between nature and nurture in resilience among children (Deater-Deckard, Ivy, & Smith, 2004). Thus, a combination of individual, family and community characteristics are likely to contribute to resilience among children and youth. At the individual level, factors such as gender, positive self-esteem, social competence, problem-solving abilities, autonomy, a sense of purpose (Dahir & Eby, 2001), an active engagement in one's culture (LaFromboise, Hoyt, Oliver, & Whitebeck, 2006), age (Fisher, Kokes, Cole, Perkins & Wynne, 1987), temperament (Werner, 1993), and intelligence (Doll & Lyon, 1998) are associated with resilience. At the family level, family structure and parental support contribute to resilience, and at the community level, whereas factors such as poverty and discrimination represent risk factors, community support is one of the positive factors contributing to resilience (LaFromboise, Hoyt, Oliver, & Whitebeck, 2006). In conclusion, resilience is regarded as a developmental process that includes individual differences in the attributes and environments of children (Deater-Deckard, Ivy, & Smith, 2004).

In the last decades there have been changes in the definition of resilience. Although originally resilience was proposed as a personality trait, it has now been redefined as a dynamic modifiable process. This redefinition let the development both resilience based interventions and empirical evaluation of these interventions (Earvolino-Ramirez, 2007). Following this redefinition, in the recent years, research on strengthening resilience in children in youths through school have attracted the attention of researchers (e.g. Brooks, 2006; Gilligan, 2000). Considering the great deal amount of time children spend at school, many protective factors and processes can be embedded within routine school practices and programs (Howard & Johnson,

2000), making the school an appropriate setting for nurturing the environmental factors associated with resilience (Minnard, 2002).

A number of school-based intervention programs have been developed to strengthen resilience in children and youth. Common points among the different programs include increasing bonding between students and caring adults, communicating high expectations for students' academic and social performance, maximizing opportunities for students' meaningful participation in school activities and creating partnership with families (Brooks, 2006; Bryan, 2003; Christiansen & Christiansen, 1997; McMillan & Reed, 1994; Minnard, 2002; Reis, Colbert, & Hebert, 2005;).

Although resilience has been studied in depth in Western cultures for decades, resilience as a construct is a new area of research in Turkey that has only received the attention of Turkish academicians as recently as 2001. There is still no consensus as to how the English term "resilience" should be translated into Turkish, and the literature contains examples in which researchers have utilized the different expressions "*yılmazlık*" (Öğülmüş, 2001), "*psikolojik sağlamlık*" (Gizir, 2004) and "*kendini toparlama gücü*" (Terzi, 2006). The limited research on resilience in Turkey found in the literature includes; a comparative study of resilience and protective factors of high school students with divorced parents and those with parents who have remained married (Özcan, 2005), a study on the effects of a "Resiliency Training Program" on the resilience levels of university students (Gürgan, 2006) and the adaptation of resilience measures such as the California Resilience and Youth Development Module (Gizir, 2004) and the Resilience Scale (Wagnild & Young, 1993) to the Turkish context (Terzi, 2006). At present, there is no published research on resilience among children from different or multiple-risk groups, such as Regional Boarding Elementary School (RBES) students. Considering that other research has indicted that most RBES students come from low socio-economic status families (Arı, 2004; Coşkun, 2004; Eraslan, 2006), research on resilience among this population should be viewed as a necessity.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the present study is to examine the roles of children's self-esteem, and hope, as well as the external factors (Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation; Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Connectedness; School and Community Meaningful Participation; and Peer Caring Relations and High Expectations) in predicting the internal assets of resilience among RBES students. The study will also identify differences in resilience in terms of gender.

1.3. Significance of the Study

Researchers who have investigated why some individuals adjust to life better than others in spite of the stress they face in their lives have concluded that just as a certain amount of exposure to disease increases the body's resilience, immunizing it from disease and allowing it to heal its own injuries, a certain amount of stress strengthens an individual's psychological resilience, increasing his or her ability to handle greater challenges (Wolin & Wolin, 1994; cited in O'Gorman, 2004). More than just being able to cope with challenges, some resilient children may undergo positive development because of them (Hill, 2003). In view of this fact, investigating the characteristics and environmental conditions of resilient children is of importance in terms of devising preventive strategies for at-risk children.

Resilience is a Western construct that has been studied widely among children in the industrialized world; however, there is a paucity of research on the subject in non-Western countries. Undertaking studies of resilience among children in developing countries such as Turkey, where children are exposed to social, economic and cultural conditions and risks quite different than those that exist in the industrialized West, can provide valuable information that may increase our understanding of the factors that contribute to resilience in children in general.

Children throughout the world are facing traumatic and difficult conditions for which they lack the maturity to cope with adequately. The conditions both children and adults may be confronted with in Turkey include severe economic problems, natural disasters and terrorism (Kararımak, 2006). Furthermore, Turkish children appear to be at risk from factors that include child abuse (Çeçen, 2007), exposure to violence (Yerin Güneri & Çakır, 2003), and bullying (Atik, 2006).

There are relatively few studies about resilience among students attending boarding schools in industrialized countries to be found in the literature. A longitudinal study by Downs (2003) found that students in boarding schools experience some problems of adjustment, such as homesickness and depression, as part of the transition to secondary boarding schools. Even children from high SES families who attend private boarding schools with high academic standards have been found to experience a type of trauma resulting from their separation from home and family at an early age (Schaverien, 2004).

Geographic location has been found to be among the various factors that influence risk and resilience (Wyn, Stokes & Stafford, 1998). In Turkey, RBESs are charged with educating children from rural families, especially in regions where harsh climatic and geographic conditions impede transportation and thus school attendance. According to Eraslan (2006) approximately 136,000 students attended 300 RBESs during the 2006-2007 school year. RBES students are separated from their parents at the age of six and face the difficulties associated with adjusting to a new life in a different environment. These difficulties may be compounded by the poor physical conditions, lack of personnel and low quality of education that are characteristics of RBESs (Eğitim-sen, 2006; Eraslan, 2006).

The very few studies conducted on RBES students have focused on the various risks to which they are exposed and the emotional and social problems they develop, such as homesickness, low motivation, aggressiveness (Ari, 2000) and depression (Çetintürk, 2001). At present, no published study exists that attempts to understand and analyze the internal and external protective factors that enable RBES students to

cope with the difficulties inherent in attending these institutions and to develop normally. Thus, this research aimed to investigate what internal and external protective factors contribute to the resilience of children enrolled in RBESs in Turkey. More specifically, in an effort to understanding the factors that contribute to resilience among RBES students in Turkey, this study aims to examine the roles of children's hope, self-esteem, and gender as well as external protective factors in predicting resilience. It is hoped that the study findings, in addition to providing an understanding of the factors that contribute to resilience of RBES students, will also provide information helpful to: researchers developing interventions to foster resilience among RBES students; counselors working in RBESs and; policy makers in the Ministry of National Education developing counseling programs.

1.4. Definition of Terms

Commonly used terms in this study are defined as follows:

Resilience: An interactive concept that refers to a relative resistance to environmental risk experiences or the overcoming of stress or adversity. (Rutter, 2006).

Risk: An elevated probability of an undesirable outcome (Wright & Masten, 2005; p.19).

Internal Protective Factors: Qualities of a person that predict better outcomes, particularly in situations of risk or adversity (Wright & Masten, 2005; p.19).

External Protective Factors: Family and community factors that predict better outcomes in situations of risk or adversity (Gizir, 2004).

Self-esteem: A type of self-judgment that an individual makes about his/her personal worth (Rosenberg, 1965; cited in Güloğlu, 1999).

Hope: The process of thinking about one's goals, along with the motivation to move toward (agency) and the ways to achieve (pathways) those goals (Snyder, 1995).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter offers a summary of the literature on resilience, including definitions, relevant variables, theoretical approaches and important studies, including those few conducted in Turkey to date.

2.1. Definitions of Resilience

American author Horatio Alger's tale of poor people coping successfully with life's difficulties first attracted attention to "resilient" individuals in the second half of the 19th century (Rigsby, 1994; Tarter & Vanyukov, 1999; cited in Terzi, 2006). By the 1950s, the term "survivor" was being used for individuals coming from dysfunctional families or suffering from serious diseases and surviving in spite of the adverse conditions they faced.

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, researchers were engaged in attempts to understand how environmental stressors increased susceptibility to pathology and how children managed to develop normally in spite of unfavorable environmental conditions. Initially, resilience was defined as a fixed character trait – as in the "invulnerable child" (Anthony & Cohler, 1987; Garmezy, 1974) or "invincible kids" (Shapiro, Friedman, Meyer, & Loftus, 1996). These early studies represented the seeds of resilience research (Akullian, 2005), conducted by pioneers whose work inspired researchers over the last two decades and resulted in new models and methods, as well as criticisms and controversies (Masten, 2001).

One of many human strengths, resilience is a subjective concept that is not easy to define (Aspinwall & Staudinger, 2003), which has resulted in the existence of concurrent varied definitions (Lightsey, 2006).Garmezy, a pioneer in resiliency research, defined resilience as the “tendency to spring back, rebound, or recoil” (1991), which involves “the capacity to respond and endure in spite of life stressors or adversity” (Mandleco & Peery, 2000, p.99).

As stated by Masten and Obradovic (2006), “resilience is a broad conceptual umbrella covering many concepts related to positive patterns of adaptation in the context of adversity. ...Resilience can be applied to any functional system, but in developmental science it has been most frequently applied to individuals as living systems, and less often to higher level social systems, including families, classrooms and schools” (p.14).

Akullian (2005) considers resilience to be a process of adaptation or a coping mechanism that develops over time as a result of the interaction between constitutional, experimental factors and the shield provided by a supportive environment. Similarly, Conner and Davidson (2003) view resilience as a measure of the ability to cope with stress and therefore an important target of treatment in anxiety, depression, and reactions to stress. Resilient individuals are considered able to successfully adapt and rapidly adjust to major life events and chronic stressors (Werner, 1989).

According to Masten and Obradovic (2006), “If one identifies a child as resilient, two judgments have been made: this child meets expectations for positive adaptation and there has been significant threat to adaptation of the child” (p. 15). Similarly, Werner and Smith (1992; cited in Krovetz, 1999) describe the resilient child as the “one who loves well, works well, plays well, and expects well” (p.192). Children are also regarded as resilient when they experience good outcomes despite high risks and difficult conditions (Frazer, Richman & Galinzki, 1999).

The literature makes mention of different types of resilience, for example, “Ego resilience,” which refers to one’s ability to modify the characteristic level of ego-control over one’s impulses. When confronted with new situations, an ego-resilient individual tends to be resourceful and adaptive, whereas an individual who is not ego-resilient tends to become inflexible and is slow to recoup after stress (Block & Robins, 1993). “Educational resilience,” another type of resilience found in the literature, has been defined as the “heightened likelihood of success in school and other life accomplishments despite environmental adversities brought about by early traits, conditions and experiences” (Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1994, p.46; cited in Waxman, Gray, & Padron, 2003).

Looking from a constructivist’s vantage point, Hill (1987) explains that the resilience construct does not have a fixed definition because the meaning of the construct evolves as people continuously participate in creating and changing its meaning. Most definitions found in the literature also emphasize that resilience is a dynamic process that evolves with time, rather than a fixed constitutional attribute or specific outcome (Everall, Altrows, & Paulson, 2006; Masten, 2001; Richman & Fraser, 2001). Although resilience has been defined in many different ways, all definitions include the capacity to face challenges and to somehow become capable, despite adverse experiences.

2.2 Risk Factors, Protective Factors and Positive Outcomes

2.2.1. Risk Factors

Resilience can only be said to exist when a person experiences some type of risk or adversity. Risk factors, also called vulnerability factors, are defined as the “presence of one or more factors or influences that increase the probability of a negative outcome” (Richman & Fraser, 2001, p.2). Researchers studying resilience have focused on various risk groups such as adolescents with parents who have psychiatric disorders (Beardslee, Podorefsky, 1988), adolescents with divorced parents (Özcan, 2005), children in poverty (Dass-Brailford, 2005; Garmezy, 1993; Gizir, 2004), survivors of childhood sexual abuse (Bogar & Hulse-Killacky, 2006) and ethnically

and culturally diverse students (Stoiber & Good, 1998; Wasonga, Christman, & Kilmer, 2003). Recent studies have focused on groups with multiple risk factors (Masten & Powell, in press; cited in Kararmak, 2006).

Resilience research has found the risk factors children faced can be placed into one of three groups: Individual risk factors (premature birth, negative life events, and chronic illness/hospitalization), Familial risk factors (parental illness/psychopathology, parental divorce, separation or single-parent home, teenage motherhood) and Environmental risk factors (Low SES and poverty, abuse, war and natural disasters, family adversity, community violence, homelessness). However, Masten (2001) draws attention to the reality that risks for general or specific developmental problems often co-occur, which leads to the accumulation of these risks over time.

West and Farrington (1973) state that low-income families, large families, parents with criminal record, low IQ and abuse are risk factors for children in becoming criminal offenders. Low SES and poverty are among the risk factors that have received the most significant attention in resilience research (Huston, McLoyd, & Garcia-Coll, 1994; cited in Gizir, 2004). The outcomes of poverty, such as substandard housing, malnutrition and poor health services negatively affect the psychological well-being of children (Devaney, Ellwood & Love, 1997). Children who lived in poverty in the first four years of life scored lower than others on intelligence tests. Poverty is also a risk factor for poor academic achievement (Dubow & Ippolito, 1994) and educational and social development (Akdoğan, 1992; Çataloluk, 1994; Girgin, 1990; Gizir, 2004; Robertson & Reynolds, 2003; Sandefur & Wells, 1999).

Three distinct approaches have been taken with regard to measuring risk factors in resilience research (Luthar & Cushing, 1999; cited in Gizir, 2004). The first is characterized by multiple-item instruments, including questionnaires and interviews. Negative life event checklists or scales are also commonly used as measures (Garmazy, Masten, & Tellegen, 1984; Gest, Reed, & Masten, 1999; Grossman et al.,

1992; cited in Gizir, 2004). The second group examines distinct, singular life stresses such as parental pathology, divorce, child abuse/neglect and economic deprivation, whereas the third looks at aggregations of a variety of demographic risks, including large family size, low income, low-status parental occupation and minority group status.

Risk factors rarely occur in isolation. Children at risk are more commonly exposed to multiple adversities over time, thus, the investigation of cumulative risk factors has recently grown in importance (Masten & Wright, 1998; cited in Wright & Masten, 2005).

2.2.2. Protective Factors

Attitudes and skills that permit children to defy the effects of environmental risk factors are called “protective factors” and are considered to be the real causes of a child’s success (Beauvais & Oetting, 1999, cited in Gizir, 2004). Wright and Masten (2004) defines protective factors as “quality of a person or context or their interaction that predicts better outcomes, particularly in situations of risk or adversity.” (p.19)

Resiliency theory is based on defining the protective factors within the individual, family, school and community. The literature divides protective factors into two as internal and external protective factors. Gizir (2004) has stated that intelligence is one of the most often-studied internal protective factors in predicting resilience, and the majority of studies have found resilient children generally have higher intellectual and academic abilities than non-resilient children (Kandel et al., 1988; cited in Gizir, 2004; Masten et al., 1988; Werner & Smith, 1982). Resilient children and adolescents are more likely to perform better in school academically, score higher on educational achievement and scholastic aptitude tests, and have superior reading, verbal and moral reasoning skills than their high-risk peers who develop maladjustment behavior (Mandleco & Perry, 2000; Masten et al., 1988).

Another internal protective factor is temperament, which includes adaptability, intensity of reactions to stimuli, and reflectiveness in meeting new situations (Kirby

& Fraser, 1997, cited in Gizir, 2004). Caretakers of active, flexible, adaptable, affectionate, cuddly and good-natured infants provide them with positive responses (Green & Conrad, 2002; Werner & Smith, 1982). An infant's positive temperament predisposes her/him to develop resilience in psychosocial outcomes in childhood and adolescence, despite risk factors (Rutter, 1987).

Many researchers have pointed out that self-esteem, defined as a "favorable or unfavorable attitude toward the self" (Rosenberg, 1965, p.15; cited in Güloğlu, 1999), or a belief that one's own efforts can make a difference, is helpful in overcoming life's adversities (Maclean, 2004). Self-esteem is also considered an internal protective factor for resilience (Werner, 1989; Dumont & Provost, 1999; Garnezy, 1991). Brooks (1994) has stated that resilient children have a high level of self-esteem, a realistic sense of personal control and a feeling of hope. Similarly, Rutter (1987) has said that low self-esteem is a risk factor, whereas high self-esteem is a protective factor for resilience.

In a study conducted with 297 adolescents classified into three groups as well-adjusted, resilient, or vulnerable, Dumont & Provost (1999) investigated the protective role of social support, coping strategies, self-esteem and social activities on experiences of stress and depression. The results revealed that self-esteem, social support and various coping strategies and social activities helped to discriminate the groups: well-adjusted adolescents had higher self-esteem than resilient and vulnerable adolescents.

In contrast to the above-mentioned literature, a study of 185 high school students conducted by D'Imperio, Dubow, and Ippolito (2000) failed to demonstrate any link between perceived self-worth and apparent resilience. The study, utilized student self-reporting and parent and teacher evaluations to investigate the role of protective resources on resilience, found that the number and magnitude of risk factors students experienced was positively related to the level of stress experienced, while the overall number and level of protective factors failed to distinguish those who coped with adverse circumstances from those who did not.

Research findings have indicated hope for the future to be another protective factor that serves to minimize the negative influences of being at-risk (Benard, 1999). In other words, hope is a protective factor of resilience. Everson et al. (1997; cited in Synder et al., 2000) found that a high level of hope was significantly related to fewer biological and behavioral risk factors.

Research on resilience has also attempted to determine whether resilience levels differ between males and females. Maclean (2004) states that these differences change during the developmental period; whereas preadolescent girls are more resilient than boys, adolescent boys are more resilient than girls. Furthermore, different characteristics of the home environment act as protective factors for girls and boys; whereas girls benefit from an absence of over-protection, emphasis on risk-taking and reliable emotional support, boys benefit from greater structure and rules, adult supervision, the availability of a positive male role model and encouragement of emotional expression (Maclean, 2004).

In a survey of 559 ninth and twelfth-grade high school students, Wasonga (2002) looked at the effects of gender on the perceptions of external assets, development of resilience and academic achievement. The findings indicated that gender had an effect on external assets and resiliency among urban students. Interestingly, correlations between external assets and resiliency were higher for males, even though their resiliency scores were significantly lower than those of females.

Another study aiming to evaluate the protective factors predicting resilience and academic achievement among urban students as conducted with a sample of 480 high school students (Wasonga, Christman, & Kilmer 2003). Results of this study suggested that ethnicity, gender, and age influenced the protective factors predicting resilience and academic achievement.

McCord (1994; cited in Mikolashek, 2004) also states that different protective factors are required during different developmental periods. For example, close support of family members are needed by younger children, whereas school-age children have wider social support networks that include peer groups, teachers and neighbors as

well as family. Results of a meta-analysis of studies indicate that the link between parenting and resilience becomes weaker during adolescence (Cuarati-Burgio, 2001; cited in Mikolashek, 2004). According to research findings older children, are less affected by a parent's hospitalization for psychiatric illness than younger children. (Fisher, Kokes, Cole, Perkins, & Wynne, 1987). This result is an indication that young children are more dependent on parents for physical, social, and emotional support.

Perceived social support is considered to be one of the most important external protective factors (Maclean, 2004; Richman, Rosenfeld, Bowen, 1998). Richman, Rosenfeld and Hardy (cited in Maclean, 2004) define eight components of social support, as follows:

1. Listening support (listening without advising or judging)
2. Emotional support
3. Emotional challenge (helping the child evaluate his/her attitudes)
4. Reality confirmation support (sharing the child's perspective of the world)
5. Task appreciation support
6. Task challenge support (challenging, motivating)
7. Tangible assistance support (money or gifts)
8. Personal assistance support

Social support received from family, peers, and teachers play an important role. Children at risk of school failure who receive regular social support are found to be more successful than those who lack social support (Richman, Rosenfeld, Bowen, 1998). Gizir (2004) has pointed out that many researchers agree that a close bond or positive relationship with at least one parent or other family member is a good predictor of a child's adjustment and is related to better outcomes among at-risk children. According to Luthar (1999), supportive relationships with parents also have a protective effect for the challenges of adolescent development. In other words, supportive and warm parenting can help children to overcome risks (Smith & Prior, 1995; cited in Gizir, 2004).

However, not all studies have successfully established links between protective factors and resilience. For example, an analysis of resilient behavior in a group of Brazilian homeless youth found that neither the quantity nor quality of social support increased young people's capacity to cope on the streets (D'Abreu, Mullis & Cook, 1999; cited in Harvey & Delfabbro, 2004).

2.2.3 Positive Outcomes

Another term associated with resilience research that requires definition is "positive outcome," which is used to refer to competence in both academic and social domains. Masten and Coatsworth (1995) define competence as a pattern of effective adaptation in the environmental context that furthers the process of development. Positive behavior such as the presence of social and academic achievements, the presence of culturally desired behaviors (developmental tasks), happiness and life satisfaction, or the absence of maladjustments such as mental illness, emotional stress, criminal behavior, or risk-taking behavior are a few examples of competence or good adaptation.

Benard (1995) states that resilient children usually have four attributes: social competence, problem-solving skills, autonomy, sense of purpose/future. Masten and Reed (2002) summarized the most studied positive outcomes as academic achievement (grades, test scores, graduating from high school), behavioral conduct (rule-abiding behavior vs. antisocial behavior), peer acceptance and close friendship, normative mental health and engagement in age-appropriate activities such as extracurricular programs, sports and community service.

According to Diener and Kim (2004), social competence with peers includes effective social interactions. The quality of peer relations is widely considered to be the key element of social competence in childhood and adolescence, and a considerable body of research has supported both the concurrent and predictive validity of peer relations as current and future indicators of competence and a correlate of adaptation (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998).

2.3. Basic Approaches to Resilience

From the perspective of Doll and Lyon (1998), over the past several decades, risk and resilience studies have passed through two generations, each with its own characteristic approach. The first generation focused on systematic study of risk factors and their associations with all types of maladjustment among disadvantaged children. Bowlby (1973) found family experiences and parent-child interactions to be empirically related to a child's psychological development. Environmental deprivation was also found to have a negative impact on the development of an infant's sense of well-being and to be a risk factor in the development of various cognitive, social and emotional problems (Spitz, 1946; cited in Doll & Lyon, 1998).

In the second generation, emphasis shifted from risk to resilience. Focus continues to be maintained on successful coping and adaptation despite challenges, development of competence under severe stress, and the ability to overcome risk and adversity (Wilkes, 2002).

Richardson (2002) presents a different view of the development of resilience studies, describing three waves of resiliency inquiry. The first wave of research tried to identify the internal and external protective factors that help people grow through adversity; the second wave focused on the resiliency process and enrichment of protective factors; and the third wave can be characterized as a postmodern, multidisciplinary identification of motivational forces within the individual.

The first wave has been regarded as a paradigm shift away from looking at the risk factors that lead to psychosocial problems and towards the identification of individual strengths (Benson, 1997, cited in Richardson, 2002) and the development of an individual-focused description of resilience (Wright & Masten, 2005). In this initial step, researchers focused on the predictors of positive adaptation against risk or adversity (Goldstein & Brooks, 2005). Longitudinal studies conducted with diverse samples (Fisher et al., 1987; Masten, et al., 1988; Sameroff, Seifer, Baldwin

& Baldwin, 1993; Werner & Smith, 1982) were important in contributing to resilience research in this first wave. A series of epidemiological studies conducted by Rutter (1979, 1985) were able to identify a number of the qualities shared by resilient children (cited in Richardson, 2002).

During this first wave of research, two major strategies were employed (Masten, 2001; Masten & Reed, 2002), namely, the variable-based approach and the subject-based approach. A variable based approach is used to measure risk, positive adaptation and competence, and individual, familial or environmental protective factors, whereas a subject-based approach involves comparisons between resilient and vulnerable groups (Masten & Reed, 2002). While variable-oriented approaches investigate linkages between the characteristics of individuals and their environments (Wright & Masten, 2005), subject-oriented approaches include case reports and longitudinal studies.

In comparison to the first wave of research, the second wave provided a more dynamic view of resilience, including the developmental systems view focused on transactions between individuals and other systems in which development occurs. The second wave focused on the process by which resilient qualities are acquired in order to create a model for use in education and counseling. Researchers concluded that point individuals are genetically predisposed to greater potential, and within this context, began to focus on the ecological system, including family and community networks (Cummings, Davies, & Campbell, 2000; Roberts & Masten, 2004; cited in Wright & Masten, 2005). The influence of culture on resilience became another area of interest to researchers, and several cross-cultural studies were conducted comparing the promotion of resilience in children from different cultural and ethnic backgrounds. A cross-cultural study by Grotberg (1997) looked at 1,225 children and their families or caregivers from 22 countries. Results indicated cultural differences as well as similarities. Common environmental characteristics related to children's overcoming adversity included the provision of loving support, acting as role models, seeking help, recognizing a child's need to be responsible for his/her own behavior, and establishing rules, whereas differences included a wide variation in age-related

expectations, an ability to encourage a sense of autonomy in children, the degree to which punishment is viewed as strengthening children, the availability of resources to draw on, the presence of hope and faith in outcomes, and communication and problem-solving skills.

Finally, the third wave of research has focused on interventions aimed at promoting resilience. Preventive studies include both programs to reduce risk factors as well as those to strengthen protective factors (Brooks, 2006, Christiansen & Christiansen, 1997; Minnard, 2001). It has been recognized that environmental factors within families, schools and communities can be modified, and that while the family has the greatest impact on the development of resilience in children, certain barriers exist to the development of family-based intervention programs (Brooks, 2006). Thus, most researchers agree that schools are the most appropriate settings for resilience-building intervention studies (Christiansen & Christiansen, 1997; Minnard, 2001; Waxman, Gray, Padron, 2003; Brooks, 2006).

2.4. Research on Resilience

Benard (1995) states that resilient children usually have four attributes: Social competence; problem-solving skills; autonomy; and a sense of purpose and future. Masten and Reed (2002) summarized the most-studied positive outcomes as academic achievement (grades, test scores, graduating from high school), behavioral conduct (rule-abiding behavior vs. antisocial behavior), peer acceptance and close friendship, normative mental health and engagement in age-appropriate activities such as extracurricular activities, sports, and community service.

According to Diener and Kim (2004) social competence with peers includes effective social interactions. In fact, the quality of peer relations is widely stated as the key element of social competence in childhood and adolescence. There is also a considerable body of research to support both the concurrent and predictive validity of peer relations as the indicator of current and future competence and correlate of adaptation (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998).

One of the most important longitudinal studies in the field was conducted by Warner (1989), who studied child development and well being using data collected by a research team comprised of pediatricians, public health nurses, public social workers, and psychologists. The study sample was composed of 698 predominantly non-white, middle-to-low SES individuals from the Hawaiian Island of Kauai. Researchers used a multifaceted assessment procedure to determine how well participants adjusted to different aspects of life. The study examined risk factors evident in the first two years of life as predictors of adolescent and adult maladjustment. Risk factors such as chronic poverty, parental psychopathology, family instability and parental alcoholism were considered predictors of low educational achievement, future school dropout and alcohol abuse. The study found that about one-third of the high-risk group grew into competent young adults identified as resilient. These resilient adolescents were found to have higher levels of autonomy, independence, empathy, task orientation and curiosity as well as better problem solving skills, better peer relationships and better physical health than non-resilient adolescents.

Another longitudinal study, known as the Rochester Longitudinal Study (Sameroff & Seifer, 1990; Sameroff & Seifer, Baldwin, & Baldwin, 1993), compared the social-emotional functioning of children whose mothers had significant psychopathologies with those whose mothers had no socio-emotional problems. The two samples were matched in terms of demographic variables. By age 13, the resilient group of adolescents was found to have higher levels of self-esteem, greater internal loci of control, more effective parental teaching, lower levels of parental criticism and lower rates of maternal depression than the non-resilient group. In another study conducted with a sample of 480 urban high-school students (Wasonga, Christman, & Kilmer 2003), findings suggested that ethnicity, gender and age were found to influence the protective factors predicting resilience and academic resilience.

In the recent years through taking into account the amount of time children and youth spend in the school and the role of school in their development, the potential of schools in promoting the resilience among children and youth has been underlined

(Brooks, 2006). Schools can build resilience in students within an environment of caring relationships by employing educators who possess a resiliency-building attitude (Henderson & Milstein, 1996; cited in Waxman, Gray, & Padron, 2003). Bruce (1995) describes several specific strategies that teachers can use to foster resiliency, including social skills training and teaching students self-monitoring, self-evaluation and self-reinforcing strategies.

Brooks (2006) lists developing “social competence”, “increasing caring relationships, communicating high expectations”, “maximizing opportunities for meaningful participation”, “strengthening school capacity for building resilience”, “creating partnership with family and community” among the school based strategies for resilience.

2.5. Research in Turkey

Although resilience has been a popular research area for decades in the United States and Europe, the first studies to take up the issue in Turkey did not begin until after 2000. While very few studies to date have focused on the resilience construct as such, research has been conducted on related concepts such as hope and social support (Kemer & Atik, 2005; Yıldırım, 2006). In a study of 729 students from two high schools in one rural and one urban area within the province of Ankara, Kemer & Atik (2005) found significant differences between the hope levels of rural and urban students in terms of their perceived social support from parents. The results indicated that the hope levels of students who receive social support from their parents were higher than the others.

In another recent study of 962 students (564 female, 398 male) in grades eight through eleven, Yıldırım (2006) investigated the roles of struggles in daily life, social support and gender in predicting academic achievement. The results of the study showed that routine difficulties with family, the environment and academic life as well as family support, peer support and gender were significant predictors of academic achievement, whereas teacher support and routine difficulties with peers were not.

Other studies within the realm of resilience literature in Turkey include research conducted with the aim of adapting resilience scales to the Turkish context (Gizir, 2004; Terzi, 2006), research on resilience in different risk groups (Gizir, 2004; Özcan, 2005; Gürgan, 2006) and an experimental study aimed at developing resilience among university students (Gürgan, 2006).

Gizir (2004) investigated the relationship between resilience, hopelessness and locus of control using the California Healthy Kids Survey Resilience and Youth Development Module (RYDM). The study, conducted with 872 eighth-grade students (439 girls, 433 boys) living in poverty, aimed to develop a Turkish adaptation of the RYDM. Results indicated that internal locus of control is positively linked with academic resilience, whereas there is a negative relationship between hopelessness and resilience.

In another adaptation study conducted with a sample of 155 university students, Terzi (2006) analyzed the validity and reliability of the Resilience Scale (RS) in the Turkish context. Originally developed by Wagnild & Young (1993), the RS contains 24 modified Likert-scale items in a seven-point format. Construct validity was examined by factor analysis. Scores on the RS and the “Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale” were calculated in order to test concurrent validity, and results indicated a significant relationship between the scores on the two scales ($r=.83$). In addition, the scale was found to have an alpha coefficient of .82 and a test-retest correlation coefficient of .84, indicating satisfactory validity and reliability.

A study by Özcan (2005) examined protective factors and resiliency traits of 152 high school students according to their gender and the marital status of their parents. Protective factors and resilience traits were measured using the High School Questionnaire of the California Healthy Kids Survey RYDM. According to the study results, students whose parents were married were found to have significantly higher protective factors and resilience traits than students whose parents were divorced. Gender was not found to significantly affect protective factors or resilience traits.

In a recent experimental study, Gürgan (2006) investigated the effects of a group resiliency education program on the resiliency level of Turkish university students. Pre-test scores revealed low resiliency levels among the 36 participants, who were divided into an experimental group (n=20) and a control group (n=16). Students in the experimental group participated in an 11-week, cognitive-based group program of resiliency education developed by the researcher. Data analysis indicated the program was effective in increasing student resiliency levels.

Research has shown poverty to be one of the most important risk factors for children in Turkey (Gizir, 2004). In other words children from low-income families are exposed to multiple risks. Thus, students attending schools in rural areas and urban *gecekondu* areas where poor families are concentrated are likely to be more at risk than students at other schools.

Regional Boarding Elementary Schools (RBES) were established in Turkey in 1939 to provide education to children living in poverty in rural areas without existing schools (Eraslan, 2006). Following the institution of an increase in compulsory education in Turkey from five to eight years in 1997, the number of RBESs increased, as their construction appeared to represent a simple solution for meeting the requirements of increased enrollment, whereas small rural schools lacked sufficient physical and human resources to implement the extended education program. However, although the aim of the increase in compulsory education was to bring Turkish education levels closer to European standards (MEB, 2007), recent studies have indicated that RBESs are characterized by inadequate physical conditions, a scarcity of qualified school personnel and the provision of low-quality education (Eğitim-sen, 2006; Eraslan, 2006).

Although students at boarding schools are understood to have unique needs that require support from school counseling services, a survey conducted in elementary schools in Turkey indicated boarding schools lack the physical facilities and personnel required to provide student counseling services (Yozgat, 1990).

In 1995, Kahraman conducted a study with a sample of 519 boarding and vocational high school students that compared coping strategies (problem solving, exploration of social support, accusation of own-self, imagination and avoidance) with stress in terms of gender, loneliness, academic achievement and grade levels. Results indicated that boarding school students had higher levels of loneliness than vocational students; however, only significant difference found between the two groups in use accusation of own-self as a coping strategy.

In another study of 400 secondary school students (200 boys and 200 girls), levels of hopelessness and depression of students attending boarding secondary schools were compared with those of students attending normal secondary schools (Çetintürk, 2001). The results indicated not only that boarding school students had higher levels of depression, but also there was a negative relationship between the levels of depression and hopelessness of students and the educational levels of their parents. In other words, as the educational levels of parents decrease, depression and hopelessness levels of their children increase. Children of poor families were also found to have higher levels of hopelessness than children of higher SES families.

A study by Arı (2000) found boarding school teachers observed homesickness, low motivation and aggressiveness among their students. Teachers also reported that they would prefer not to work at boarding schools because of the sub-standard conditions that exist at these schools.

The relationship between academic achievement, social support, attitude towards school and behavior-adjustment problems of elementary school students who live in rural areas with their families and those who reside at boarding schools was investigated in a study by Coşkun (2004). The study, conducted with a sample of 438 students ages 9-14, found lower academic achievement and lower levels of adjustment among boarding school students when compared to students at other schools.

To sum up, a review of the literature on resilience indicates the importance of identifying risk factors and taking preventive measures to promote resilience among children at risk. The limited literature regarding students attending boarding schools in Turkey reveals that these students are exposed to multiple risks and experience multiple problems, such as low academic achievement, depression, loneliness and hopelessness. Furthermore, counseling services in boarding schools apparently lack sufficient staff and facilities to provide support to their students. In consideration of findings of previous studies related to the negative consequences of attending RBESs, as well as the limited literature on resilience in Turkey that indicates problems and concerns of RBES students, this study takes a positive psychology outlook in investigated the role of external assets and individual variables in predicting resilience among students attending RBESs.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter presents methodological procedures including the overall research design, research questions, the population and selection of the participants, the instruments utilized in the data collection procedure and the statistical techniques used in analyzing the data of the study. Lastly, the limitations of the study are presented.

3.1. Overall Research Design

The purpose of this present study is to examine the role of self-esteem, hope and external factors in predicting resilience of Turkish students attending to RBESs. The Resilience and Youth Development Module (RYDM), (CDE & WestEd, 2001; Gizir, 2004) (Appendix C); the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES), (Rosenberg, 1965; Çuhadaroğlu, 1985) (Appendix D); and the Children's Hope Scale, (Snyder et al., 1997; Kemer & Atik, 2006) (Appendix E) and a demographic data form (Appendix B) was used to collect data. The student selection was not based on the random sampling; rather convenient groups of students were used. Descriptive statistics and multiple regression analysis were executed in analyzing the data.

3.2. Research Questions

The main research question of this study is, "To what extent do self-esteem, hope, and external factors (Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation, Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations, School

Caring Relationships and High Expectations, School Connectedness, School and Community Meaningful Participation, Peer Caring Relationships and High Expectations) predict the internal assets of resilience scores of RBES students?

The sub-questions are, “To what extent do self-esteem, hope, and external factors predict the internal assets of resilience scores of female RBES students Boarding Elementary Schools?” and, “To what extent do self-esteem, hope, and external factors predict the internal assets of resilience scores of male RBES students?”

3.3. Population and Sample Selection

The study population was all RBES students in Turkey. The convenient sample selection method was used to select the study sample.

The sample consists of 391 students [143 girls (36.6 %), 248 boys (63.4 %)] attending to RBES in one of four rural districts within the province of Ankara (Bala, Polatlı, Beypazarı and Şereflikoçhisar). Age of participants ranged from 11 to 17 years ($M=12.87$; $SD=1.20$).

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

Data was collected using three self-report instruments: the Resilience and Youth Development Module (RYDM), (CDE & WestEd, 2001; Gizir, 2004) (Appendix B); the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES), (Rosenberg, 1965; Çuhadaroğlu, 1985) (Appendix C); and the Children’s Hope Scale, (Snyder et al., 1997; Kemer & Atik, 2006) (Appendix D). A demographic data form (Appendix E) was also used to collect demographic information (gender, age and grade level of participants).

3.4.1. The Resilience and Youth Development Module (RYDM)

The M6 2002 version of the Middle School RYDM, an optional module of the California Healthy Kids Survey (CHKS), was used to measure external and internal

assets resilience scores. It was developed by the non-profit research, development and service agency WestEd under a contract with the California Development of Education (CDE). Permission was taken from CDE, WestEd in order to use the instrument in this study.

The RYDM consists of 59 items, including three filler items that measure 17 assets classified as either external or internal. A total of 11 external assets are measured through 33 survey questions that ask students about their perceptions regarding caring relationships, high expectations and opportunities for meaningful participation in their home, school, community and peer group. External assets are defined as the environmental support, opportunities and protective factors that facilitate healthy, successful development in children and youth. A total of six internal assets are measured through 18 survey items that include questions on cooperation and communication, empathy, problem-solving, self-efficacy, self-awareness, and goals and aspirations. Internal assets are defined as the positive developmental outcomes and personal strengths associated with healthy, successful development.

The RYDM also includes five optional items related to school connectedness that ask students to indicate the degree to which each item applies to them using a 4-point Likert scale ranging from four (“very much true”) to one (“not at all true”).

Reliability analysis conducted to measure internal consistencies of the 11 external assets clusters of the original RYDM yielded Cronbach alphas of 0.84 for School Caring Relationships, 0.86 for School High Expectations, 0.77 for School Meaningful Participation, 0.84 for Community Caring Relationships, 0.90 for Community High Expectations, 0.73 for Community Meaningful Participation, 0.86 for Peer Caring Relationships, 0.59 for Peer High Expectations, 0.77 for Home Caring Relationships, 0.76 for Home High Expectations and 0.75 for Home Meaningful Participation (CDE & WestEd, 2001, cited in Gizir, 2004).

Reliability analysis conducted to measure internal consistencies of the six internal assets clusters of the original RYDM yielded Cronbach alphas of 0.74 for

Cooperation and Communication, 0.80 for Self-Efficacy, 0.77 for Empathy, 0.82 for Problem-Solving, 0.79 for Self-Awareness and 0.77 for Goals and Aspirations (WestEd & CDE, 2001, cited in Gizir, 2004).

When confirmatory factor analysis was conducted for the Turkish version of the external assets of RYDM (Gizir, 2004) Items 26 (ie. Outside of my home and school, I help other people.) and 30 (ie. My friends get into a lot of trouble.) were dropped from the scale. Moreover, a correlation coefficient of .98 indicated no distinction between the two factors School Caring Relationships and School High Expectations; therefore, these two variables were combined into a single latent variable labeled “School Caring Relationships and High Expectations. Similarly, Community Caring Relationships and Community High Expectations, which had a correlation coefficient of 0.94, were combined into one latent variable, namely “Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations” (Gizir, 2004).

Subsequent reliability analysis of the external assets clusters of the Turkish version of the RYDM yielded Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0.78 for School Caring For the Relationships and High Expectations, 0.67 for School Meaningful Participation, 0.83 for Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations, 0.55 for Community Meaningful Participation, 0.85 for Peer Caring Relationships, 0.62 for Peer High Expectations, 0.79 for Home Caring Relationships, 0.66 for Home High Expectations and 0.63 for Home Meaningful Participation.

Confirmatory factor analysis of the RYDM-internal assets, are consistent with the findings of confirmatory factor analysis of the original RYDM conversely, goals and aspirations were recognized as two distinct variables, which were separated as “Goals” and “Educational Aspirations”. Subsequent reliability analysis of the internal assets clusters of the Turkish version of the RYDM yielded Cronbach alpha coefficients were 0.66 for Empathy, .69 for Problem-Solving, .53 for Self-Efficacy, .50 for Cooperation and Communication, .59 for Goals, .64 for Self-Awareness and .78 for Educational Aspirations (Gizir, 2004).

3.4.1.1. Exploratory Factor Analysis of External Assets

The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was conducted on external assets of the Turkish version of the RDYM to explore factor structure derived from the data. Results of the first PCA yielded nine factors with eigenvalues greater than one, accounting for 59.52 % of total variance. A cut-off point of .40 was established for inclusion of a variable to a factor. A second PCA with varimax rotation was conducted, forcing the number of components to six factors. None of the items loaded on more than one factor. These six dimensions had eigenvalues greater than 1.5 explained 49.89 % of total variance, with eigenvalues as follows: Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation: 22.21; Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations: 6.58; School Caring Relationships and High Expectations: 6.32; School Connectedness: 5.39; School and Community Meaningful Participation: 4.85 and Peer Caring Relationships and High Expectations: 4.56.

3.4.1.2. Internal Consistency of External Assets

Internal consistency of external assets was calculated using Cronbach's Alpha. Coefficients of for the Total Scale was .89, for Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation .81; for Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations .83; for School Caring Relationships and High Expectations .73; for School Connectedness .75; for School and Community Meaningful Participation .71; and for Peer Caring Relationships and High Expectations .78. In other words, coefficients for the total scale and sub-scales indicated good internal consistency.

3.4.2. Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES)

The RSES (Rosenberg, 1965) is a 10-item uni-dimensional measure of global self-esteem. The original instrument utilized a four-point Guttman scale with response options ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The RSES contains five

positively scored items (Nos.1, 2, 4, 6, 7) and five negatively scored items (Nos.3, 5, 8, 9, 10).

Rosenberg (1979; cited in Chubb, Fertman & Ross, 1997) tested the scale's reliability and validity on two small college samples and found two-week test-retest reliability coefficients of $r=.85$ and $.88$.

The RSES was adapted for Turkish adolescents by Çuhadaroğlu (1985). Not only was a correlation coefficient of $.71$ found between the adapted RSES and psychiatric interview scores, in addition, Çankaya (1997) reported significant correlation between the RSES and the Self-Concept Inventory ($.26$ for the whole group, $p<.001$; $.26$ for both boys and girls $p<.05$). While Tuğrul (1994) reported a Cronbach reliability coefficient of $.76$ for the Turkish version of the RSES. The Cronbach alpha for the present sample was found to be $.70$.

3.4.3. Children's Hope Scale

The Children's Hope Scale is a six-item dispositional self-report index developed by Snyder et al. (1997) and validated for use with children ages 8-16. Snyder et al. (1997) reported a Cronbach alpha of $.77$ and test-retest reliability of $.71$. Each item in the scale is rated on a six-option continuum from "none of the time" to "all of the time".

The Hope scale was adapted by Kemer & Atik (2006) for the Turkish context and administered to 402 female and 355 male secondary school students in the 2005-2006 school year. Consistent with the original scale's factor structure, two factors appeared in factor analysis, namely, "Pathways" and "Agency". The construct validity was tested using the RSES, and Cronbach alpha coefficients of $.65$ for Pathways, $.57$ for Agency and $.74$ for the Total Scale were obtained. A test-retest correlation coefficient of $.57$ was also obtained. In the present study, an alpha coefficient of $.76$ was obtained for the Total Scale, $.67$ for the Pathways and $.59$ for the Agency.

3.5. Data Collection Procedure

After receiving permission from the Ministry of National Education to conduct this study (Appendix A), in December 2006, the researcher visited the principals of the RBESs in the Bala, Beypazarı, Polatlı and Şereflikoçhisar districts of Ankara to explain the purpose of the study and request their assistance. All four principals agreed to cooperate. A set of instruments consisting of a demographic data form and three scales (RYDM, RSES, and Children's Hope Scale) were administered to subjects during class hours by the researcher, who provided them with information about the study and detailed instructions on how to respond to the instruments. In order to secure anonymity, students were requested not to write their names on the forms to ensure confidentiality.

3.6. Data Analysis Procedures

All analysis was conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 13.0 software program. Independent sample t-tests were used to determine differences in mean internal asset resilience scores between male and female subjects. Given that the continuous nature of the eight predictor variables and outcome variable, multiple regression analysis was used to develop a significant model to predict the internal assets of resilience for the total sample, for female and male RBES students.

3.7. Limitations of the Study

The present study had certain limitations. First, since the participants were limited to RBES students in Ankara, the findings cannot be generalized to other RBES students in different regions of Turkey. Second, since the study sample consisted of sixth, seventh and eighth-grade students, the findings cannot be generalized to students in other grade levels. Third, the fact that the study findings are based on data measured by student self-reporting, which, by nature, relies on students' subjective self-evaluations, represents another limitation.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents regression analyses results. Three simultaneous multiple linear regression analyses were run to evaluate how well hope, self-esteem, and external assets predicted the internal assets resilience scores of the total sample and the the sub-samples of male and female students. Before these analyses, bivariate correlations between criterion variable and predictor variables were examined through Pearson correlation coefficients.

4.1. Means, Standard Deviations and Correlation Coefficients among Predictor Variables and Criterion Variable for the Total Sample

The Pearson Product Correlation Coefficients among predictor variables and criterion variable for the total sample are presented in Table 4.1. The intercorrelations among variables ranged from .73 to .16. These results indicated low to high correlations among criterion and predictor variables. As seen in Table 4.1, internal assets of resilience is significantly and positively correlated with Self-esteem, Hope, Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation; Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Connectedness; School and Community Meaningful Participation; Peer Caring Relationships and High Expectations.

Table 4.1

The Means, Standard Deviations and Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients among Predictor Variables and Criterion Variable for the Total Sample

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Internal Assets of Resilience	54,49	8,32	-								
2. Self-esteem	29,00	4,72	0,42*	-							
3. Hope	27,18	5,50	0,73*	0,52*	-						
4. Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation	28,26	5,44	0,66*	0,31*	0,54*	-					
5. Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations	18,69	4,41	0,44*	0,16*	0,35*	0,38*	-				
6. School Caring Relationships and High Expectations	18,28	3,81	0,47*	0,25*	0,43*	0,38*	0,43*	-			
7. School Connectedness	13,77	3,67	0,36*	0,23*	0,36*	0,28*	0,24*	0,42*	-		
8. School and Community Meaningful Participation	13,31	3,62	0,56*	0,32*	0,42*	0,40*	0,33*	0,42*	0,27*	-	
9. Peer Caring Relationships and High Expectations	15,20	3,51	0,46*	0,19*	0,35*	0,42*	0,33*	0,35*	0,26*	0,30*	-

*Correlation is significant at the .01 alpha level.

4.2. Multiple Regression Analysis for the Total Sample

A simultaneous multiple linear regression analysis was done to indicate how well Self-Esteem, Hope, Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations, and Meaningful Participation; Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Connectedness; School and Community Meaningful Participation; and Peer Caring Relations and High Expectations subscales of external assets, predicted the internal assets scores of resilience. Prior to data analysis the assumptions of the regression model were checked. All scores of the subjects were normally distributed. As VIF values changed between 1.51. to 2.35 and tolerance levels changed between .609 to .777, and not approached to zero, there is no evidence to suggest the final model specification suffered from any multicollinearity that would challenge the findings. The Durbin-Watson statistic is also between 1 and 3 (1.919) implying the assumption of independent error is tenable. Standardized residuals were examined to detect the availability of univariate outliers. Nine cases from the data set that exceeded a z score of +3.29 and -3.29 were excluded from the analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Data analysis conducted with 382 participants. Table 4.2 presents model predicting internal assets by self-esteem hope and subscales of external assets.

Table 4.2

Results of the Multiple Regression Analysis: Predicting Resilience from Self-esteem, Hope, and External Factors for the Total Sample

Predictor Variables	B	SE	β	t	p	Partial Corr.
Constant	10,95	1,87		5,87	0,00	
Self-esteem	0,04	0,06	0,02	0,65	0,51	0,03
Hope	0,62	0,06	0,41	10,16	0,00	0,47
<i>External Assets</i>						
Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation	0,40	0,06	0,26	7,12	0,00	0,35
Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations	0,15	0,06	0,08	2,32	0,02	0,12
School Caring Relationships and High Expectations	0,05	0,08	0,02	0,68	0,49	0,04
School Connectedness	0,05	0,07	0,02	0,75	0,46	0,04
School and Community Meaningful Participation	0,47	0,08	0,20	6,00	0,00	0,30
Peer Caring Relations and High Expectations	0,24	0,08	0,10	3,05	0,00	0,16

Results indicated that the multiple regression coefficient ($R = .83$, $p < .001$) was significant for the model and combination of eight variables explained 69 % of the total variance ($R^2 = .69$). In other words, criterion variable was significantly explained by the linear combination of the eight predictor variables. As the partial correlations in Table 4.4 indicated, Hope was the most important predictor of internal assets of resilience followed by Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation; School and Community Meaningful Participation; Peer Caring Relations and High Expectations; and Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations. However, Self-esteem, School Caring Relationships and High Expectations, and School Connectedness subscales scores of external assets did not significantly contribute to the internal assets of resilience scores of the total sample.

4.3 Means, Standard Deviations and Correlation Coefficients among Predictor Variables and Criterion Variable for Females and Males

Although an independent samples t-test run to determine gender differences in internal the assets resilience subscale scores indicated no gender difference ($t(380) = -0.66$, $p = .506$), considering the literature that underline significant effect of gender on resilience (e.g. Wasonga, 2002; Wasonga, Christman, Kilmer, 2003), two separate

simultaneous multiple regression analyses were conducted to investigate how well model predicted in internal assets resilience scores of female and male students.

As presented in Table 4.3, Pearson Product Correlation Coefficients among quantitative predictor variables and criterion variable for females ranged from .72 to .12. Internal assets of resilience is significantly and positively correlated with Self-esteem, Hope, Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation; Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Connectedness; School and Community Meaningful Participation; Peer Caring Relationships and High Expectations. Results indicated low to high correlations among criterion and predictor variables.

As seen in Table 4.4, the Pearson Product Correlation Coefficients among quantitative predictor variables and criterion variable for males ranged from .73 to .15. Internal assets of resilience was found to be significantly and positively correlated with Self-esteem, Hope, Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation; Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Connectedness; School and Community Meaningful Participation; Peer Caring Relationships and High Expectations.

Table 4.3

The Means, Standard Deviations and Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients among Predictor Variables and Criterion Variable for Females

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Internal Assets of Resilience	54,18	8,48	-								
2. Self-esteem	28,90	4,90	0,54**	-							
3. Hope	27,03	5,51	0,72**	0,62**	-						
4. Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation	27,38	6,09	0,65**	0,38**	0,53**	-					
5. Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations	18,78	4,34	0,44**	0,12**	0,34**	0,48**	-				
6. School Caring Relationships and High Expectations	18,63	3,72	0,53**	0,42**	0,58**	0,43**	0,41**	-			
7. School Connectedness	14,01	3,41	0,43**	0,32**	0,45**	0,33**	0,32**	0,52**	-		
8. School and Community Meaningful Participation	13,22	3,70	0,61**	0,36**	0,46**	0,52**	0,29**	0,44**	0,21**	-	
9. Peer Caring Relationships and High Expectations	15,22	3,48	0,42**	0,21**	0,37**	0,37**	0,51**	0,42**	0,38**	0,29*	-

*Correlation is significant at the .05 alpha level.

**Correlation is significant at the .01 alpha level.

Table 4.4

The Means, Standard Deviations and Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients among Predictor Variables and Criterion Variable for Males

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Internal Assets of Resilience	54,67	8,24	-								
2. Self-esteem	29,07	4,63	0,35**	-							
3. Hope	27,27	5,50	0,73**	0,46**	-						
4. Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation	28,78	4,97	0,67**	0,25**	0,56**	-					
5. Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations	18,64	4,47	0,44**	0,18**	0,35**	0,33**	-				
6. School Caring Relationships and High Expectations	18,09	3,87	0,44**	0,15*	0,35**	0,37**	0,43**	-			
7. School Connectedness	13,64	3,82	0,33**	0,18**	0,31**	0,26**	0,20**	0,37**	-		
8. School and Community Meaningful Participation	13,36	3,59	0,53**	0,29**	0,40**	0,32**	0,35**	0,42**	0,31**	-	
9. Peer Caring Relationships and High Expectations	15,19	3,54	0,48**	0,18**	0,34**	0,46**	0,23**	0,32**	0,20**	0,31*	-

*Correlation is significant at the .05 alpha level.

**Correlation is significant at the .01 alpha level.

4.4. Multiple Regression Analysis for Females

A simultaneous multiple linear regression analysis was done to indicate how well Self-Esteem, Hope, Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations, and Meaningful Participation; Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Connectedness; School and Community Meaningful Participation; and Peer Caring Relations and High Expectations subscales of external assets, predicted the internal assets scores of resilience among female students. All scores of the subjects were normally distributed.

All scores of the subjects were normally distributed. As VIF values changed between 1.51 to 2.36 and VIF values were no greater than 5-10 and tolerance levels changed between .424 to .661, and not approached to zero, there is no evidence to suggest the final model specification suffered from any multicollinearity that would challenge the findings. The Durbin-Watson statistic is also between 1 and 3 (1.741) implying the assumption of independent error is tenable. Since none of the cases in data set exceeded z score of +3.29 and -3.29, no univariate outliers were detected (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Table 4.5 presents model predicting internal assets by self-esteem, hope, and subscales of external assets.

Table .4.5

Results of the Multiple Regression Analysis: Predicting Resilience from Self-esteem, Hope, and External Factors for Female Students

Predictor Variables	B	SE	β	t	p	Partial Corr.
Constant	11.10	3.00		3.70	0.00	
Self-esteem	0.20	0.11	0.11	1.78	0.08	0.15
Hope	0.55	0.11	0.36	4.85	0.00	0.39
<i>External Assets</i>						
Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation	0.29	0.09	0.21	3.13	0.00	0.26
Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations	0.19	0.12	0.10	1.59	0.11	0.14
School Caring Relationships and High Expectations	-0.05	0.15	-0.02	-0.31	0.76	-0.03
School Connectedness	0.17	0.15	0.07	1.13	0.26	0.10
School and Community Meaningful Participation	0.59	0.14	0.26	4.29	0.00	0.35
Peer Caring Relations and High Expectations	0.12	0.14	0.05	0.82	0.41	0.07

Results (Table 4.5) indicated that the multiple regression coefficient ($R = .83$, $p < .000$) is significant among female students and the model with eight predictors explained 69 % of the total variance ($R^2 = .69$). As partial correlations on Table 4.5 indicated Hope, School and Community Meaningful Participation; Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation; and Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations were the main contributors of resilience among female students. On the other hand, Self-esteem, Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Connectedness; Peer Caring Relations and High Expectations were not significant in prediction of resilience.

4.5. Multiple Regression Analysis for Males

A simultaneous multiple linear regression analysis was done to indicate how well Self-Esteem, Hope, Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations, and Meaningful Participation; Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Caring Relationships and High Expectations; School Connectedness; School and Community Meaningful Participation; and Peer Caring Relations and High

Expectations subscales of external assets, predicted the internal assets scores of resilience among male students.

All scores of the subjects were normally distributed. All scores of the subjects were normally distributed. As VIF values changed between 1.29. to 1.88 and VIF values were no greater than 5-10 and tolerance levels changed between .530 to .771, and not approached to zero, there is no evidence to suggest the final model specification suffered from any multicollinearity that would challenge the findings. The Durbin-Watson statistic is also between 1 and 3 (1.924) implying the assumption of independent error is tenable. None of the cases in data set exceeded z score of +3.29 and -3.29. Thus no univariate outliers were detected (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Table 4.6 presents model predicting internal assets by self-esteem, hope, and subscales of external assets.

Table 4.6

Results of the Multiple Regression Analysis: Predicting Resilience from Self-esteem, Hope, and External Factors for Male Students

Predictor Variables	B	SE	β	t	p	Part. Corr.
Constant	10.18	2.43		4.19	0.00	
Self-esteem	-0.03	0.07	-0.01	-0.35	0.73	-.023
Hope	0.62	0.07	0.42	8.51	0.00	.487
<i>External Assets</i>						
Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation	0.47	0.08	0.28	6.10	0.00	.371
Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations	0.17	0.08	0.09	2.20	0.03	.143
School Caring Relationships and High Expectations	0.06	0.09	0.03	0.69	0.49	.045
School Connectedness	0.03	0.09	0.01	0.33	0.74	.022
School and Community Meaningful Participation	0.43	0.10	0.19	4.44	0.00	.279
Peer Caring Relations and High Expectations	0.28	0.10	0.12	2.92	0.00	.188

As displayed in Table 4.6, the multiple regression coefficient ($R = .84$, $p < .001$) was significant among male students and the model with eight predictors explained 70 % of the total variance ($R^2 = .70$) Hope and four external assets subscales (Home

Caring Relationships, High Expectations and Meaningful Participation, Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations, School and Community Meaningful Participation; Peer Caring Relations and High Expectations) significantly predicted the internal assets of resilience scores. However, self-esteem, School Connectedness and School Caring Relationships and High Expectations subscales of external assets did not significantly contribute to internal assets resilience scores of the male students.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter presents a discussion of the results obtained from statistical analysis, as well as the practical implications of the study findings and recommendations for additional research.

5.1. Conclusions

This study aimed to identify the protective factors that may play a role in predicting resilience of RBES students. The results of regression analysis for the total sample found Hope, and the external assets; Home Caring Relationships, High Expectations, and Meaningful Participation, Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations, School and Community Meaningful Participation, Peer Caring Relationships and High Expectations to be important predictors of resilience, whereas Self-Esteem and School Caring Relationships and High Expectations, School Connectedness do not contribute to predicting resilience scores of the total sample.

“Feelings of hope” and “meaningfulness of life” are regarded as human protective factors for resilience (Masten, 1997). Everson et al. (1996, 1997, cited in Synder et al., 2000) found a high level of hope to be significantly related to fewer biological and behavioral risk factors. A study of Turkish students in poverty also indicated a negative relationship between hopelessness and academic resilience (Gizir, 2004). The findings of this study indicating hope to be the best predictor for resilience was

in line with the literature suggesting that hope fosters resilience (Brooks, 2006; Gizir, 2004; Masten, 1997; Synder et al., 2000). In other words, positive expectations for the future among RBES students had a positive influence on their resilience.

The findings of the present study indicating that Home Caring Relationships, High expectations and Meaningful Participation are significant predictors of resilience indicates that despite the fact that boarding school students spend limited time with their families, support from family members, caring relationships with and high expectations from family members, as well as participation in activities at home still contribute significantly to resilience. This result is consistent with the results of earlier research indicating that involvement in the family decision-making process (Oliver, Collin, Burns, & Nicholas, 2006); high but “achievable” family expectations (Fuller, 2006) and home caring relationships, high expectations and meaningful participation (Özcan 2005) are predictors of resilience among children. In other words, parents’ belief in the ability of their children to succeed seems to promote resilience among RBES students. Home Meaningful Participation, which refers to opportunities to participate in family activities, promotes resilience.

The finding that Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations are predictors of resilience in RBES students is in line with results of earlier research indicating that the presence of a caring and supporting adult outside the family promotes resilience in children (Benard, 1991; Masten & Coatsworth, 1998; Werner & Smith, 1982). Children benefit from healthy adult role models in neighborhood who care them and expect them to be successful (Fuller, 2006). Considering that RBES students reside in schools located in rural areas, away from parental supervision and support, the support and care of an adult non-family member may play a significant role in contributing to their resilience.

The finding that School and Community Meaningful Participation is another predictor of resilience is also consistent with earlier research (Wasonga, 2002; Wasonga, Christman & Kilmer, 2003; Oliver, Collin, Burns, & Nicholas, 2006). School meaningful participation was found to be one of the significant predictors of

resilience in urban high school students (Wasonga, Christman & Kilmer, 2003). The literature indicates that participating in decision-making processes in school and working collaboratively enhances not only a young person's sense of connectedness and belonging, but their interpersonal and communication skills as well (Oliver, Collin, Burns, & Nicholas, 2006).

Another predictor of resilience found in this study is peer caring relationships and high expectations. This finding is supported with previous research findings. Friends provide a sense of being valued, cared for and loved, peers have been found to be the most important sources of social support for children, after the family (Clark, 1991; Wang, Heartel, & Walberg, 1994). Borman and Overman (2004) indicated that peer caring relationships and high expectations are predictors of resilience. Gizir (2004) found that peer caring relationships to have a positive impact on academic resilience.

In this study, unexpectedly, School Connectedness, and School Caring Relationships and High Expectations were not found to be significant predictors of resilience. School Caring Relationships comprised such statements as "Teachers really cares about me," and, "Teachers listen to me when I have something to say." The finding that school-related external factors do not contribute to resilience among RBES students may be due to the complex roles played by RBES teachers, who, in addition to teaching, may also be required to take care of children who are ill or in need of special help. As a result of their multiple roles, RBES teachers experience high levels of "burnout" (Arı, 2002; Eğitim-sen, 2006; Eraslan, 2006) and may not show the affection children need. Furthermore, the highly competitive nature of the Turkish education system, in which only one-third of candidates entering university exams score high enough to secure one of the limited places available to study at university, may affect RBES teacher expectations for their students. Specifically, aware that their students lack the necessary resources available to urban children from middle-to-high SES families to prepare for the entrance examinations, RBES teachers may not have high expectations from their students regarding their future education.

Another finding of this study is that self-esteem is not a predictor of resilience of RBES students is inline with some of the research findings but contradict others. This is due to contradictory findings in the literature about the relationship between self-esteem and resilience. Although Kliewer and Sandler (1992, cited in D'Imperio, Dubow, & Ippolito, 2000) suggested that self-esteem might enhance the appraisal of stressors, in that individuals with high self-esteem might view failure to achieve a particular goal as a challenge to try harder, research investigating the role of protective resources on resilience showed that perceived self-worth did not distinguish resilient from stress-affected youth (D'Imperio, Dubow, & Ippolito, 2000). Fuller (2006) state that not all people with high self-esteem are resilient because resilience depends on many factors some in the person's control, some not. Moreover Kararmak (2007) found that self-esteem has indirect effect on psychological resilience of earthquake survivors.

In the present study, regression analyses indicated that male students possessed five protective factors predicting resilience, whereas females had three. This finding is inconsistent with a study conducted among urban high school students in the United States that found girls possessed a wider variety of protective factors for predicting academic achievement than boys (Wasonga, Chistman, Kilmer, 2003). This inconsistency may be due to cultural differences between Turkey and the United States.

The findings of the present study showed differences between boys in girls in terms of the external assets predictive of resilience. Whereas Community Caring Relationships and High Expectations, Peer Caring Relationships and High Expectations were significant predictors for males, they were not significant for females. These differences may be related traditional child rearing practices in Turkish culture in which girls are more cared and more protected rather than encouraged to be independent and boys are encouraged to be more autonomous, assertive, and open to new experiences (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996).

5.2 Implications for Practice and Research

The findings of the present study indicating the role of hope, self-esteem, and external factors in predicting the resilience of RBES students offer valuable information not only to boarding school counselors, teachers and administrators, but also to families and caregivers of children attending these schools. Moreover, the results of this study may assist policymakers in promoting resilience among students in boarding schools.

Children benefit from protective factors that include a caring environment, positive expectations and meaningful participation within the family, school and community (Krovetz, 1999). In a certain respect, boarding schools also function as home and neighborhood for their students. School administrators, counselors, teachers and support staff share more time with students than their parents do, and thus have a greater role to play in students' lives. The unique needs of boarding school students have been investigated and defined by Turkish researchers, who have indicated a tendency for some students to disconnect themselves from the school environment (Ari, 2002; Coşkun, 2004; Eraslan, 2006; Güven, 1995). In order to create a supportive environment, all school personnel, especially school counselors, need to be aware of the needs of students and develop positive relationships with them.

A school environment characterized by caring relationships is essential for promoting the development of the protective factors associated with resilience. The creation of a supportive school climate requires the willing collaboration of all school personnel; however, it has been shown that teachers prefer not to work in RBESs in Turkey (Ari, 2002). Considering the importance of teachers as role models for students in the development of protective factors (Benard, 1997), policymakers should be sensitive to the problems of teachers in order to promote their willingness to teach at boarding institutions.

Many researchers agree that key skills involved in resilience can be developed at school. As students acquire resilience, they become more skilled at coping with stressful events. According to Fuller (2006) resilience in young people may be most

strongly developed by schools creating structures that promote connectedness and belonging and learning experiences that build a sense of excitement about learning and a sense of hopefulness and possibility for their futures.

The results of this study may be useful in planning appropriate strategies for enriching student resilience, especially in boarding schools. Howard & Johnson (2000) define a school climate that promotes resilience as one that is safe, positive, collaborative, caring and student-centered. Not only should the curriculum be relevant, enriched and age-appropriate, extra-curricular activities such as sports, arts and travel are essential for promoting meaningful participation among boarding school students. Several models for fostering resiliency among young people through the development of meaningful participation can be found in the literature (Oliver, Collin, Burns, & Nicholas, 2006).

Counseling services are crucial for developing resilience, especially among boarding school students, whose unique needs in terms of guidance services should be taken into consideration. Counselors employed at RBESs should be aware of the protective factors for resilience and focus on developing both internal and external assets of students by working collaboratively with school administrators and teachers, as well as with families of students and the social workers employed by the government children's homes where some students reside.

This study indicated that the role of caring relationships and meaningful participation within the family should not be underestimated. Kağıtçıbaşı (1996) draws attention to the value of family support programs in promoting social support networks and effective parenting among socio-economically disadvantaged children and children with absent fathers.

Several recommendations can also be made for those researchers aiming to delve further into the resilience construct. Reaching a consensus on the Turkish translation of the term 'resilience' should form the starting point in this regard, as the use of

different terms for the same concept creates unnecessary complexity for Turkish researchers.

Because the sample of the present study was limited to RBES students, the study findings cannot be generalized for other samples. In view of this limitation, replication of this study with students from other grades can be recommended.

Additionally, this study examined the predictors hope, self-esteem and external factors related to school, family, community and peer groups; therefore, further studies are needed to investigate other factors predictive of resilience among children. Considering that this study found hope to be the most important predictor of resilience, researchers should focus on developing intervention programs that focus on developing hope as a means of promoting resilience.

Considering the limitations of this study stemming from the use of self-reporting techniques, further studies employing quantitative research should be conducted with different sample populations. Longitudinal studies will also help to clarify the effects of protective factors on resilience. Additional studies involving different research designs, sample populations and risk factors should focus on the demographic and environmental factors that appear to protect students from risks.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PERMISSION FROM MINISTRY OF NATIONAL EDUCATION

ÖĞRENCİLERİ
DAİRESİ BAŞKANLIĞI
Ev. Arş. Md. Saat :

T.C.
MİLLÎ EĞİTİM BAKANLIĞI
Eğitimi Araştırma ve Geliştirme Dairesi Başkanlığı

Sayı : B.08.0.EGD.0.33.05.311- 1384/5114
Konu : Araştırma İzni

06./12/2006

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : 21.11.2006 tarih ve B.30.2.ODT.0.70.72.00-400/10067 sayılı yazı.

Üniversiteniz Eğitim Bilimleri Ana Bilim Dalı yüksek lisans öğrencisi Nisa Gökden KAYA'nın "Yatılı İlköğretim Bölge Okulu İkinci Kademe Öğrencilerinde Psikolojik Sağlamlığın Bireysel Koruyucu Faktörlerini Yordamada; Benlik Saygısı, Umut ve Dışsal Faktörlerin Rolü" konulu araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak kullanılacak anketlerin Ankara İli Bala, Beypazarı, Polatlı ve Şereflikoçhisar ilçelerindeki yatılı ilköğretim bölge okullarında uygulama izin talebi incelenmiştir.

Üniversiteniz tarafından kabul edilen onaylı bir örneği Bakanlığımızda muhafaza edilen (7 sayfa-74 sorudan oluşan) anketin belirtilen Yatılı İlköğretim Bölge Okullarında uygulanmasında bir sakınca görülmemektedir.

Araştırmanın bitiminde sonuç raporunun iki örneğinin Bakanlığımıza gönderilmesi gerekmektedir.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.


Recep IŞIK
Bakan a.
Müsteşar Yardımcısı

EK :
1- Anket Örneği (1 Adet-7 Sayfa)
2- Okul Listesi (1 Adet-1 Sayfa)

06.12.06 020514

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APPENDIX B
DEMOGRAPHIC DATA FORM

Değerli Öğrenci,

Bu araştırma ilköğretim öğrencilerini gelişimleri sırasında sağlam ve güçlü yapan özellikleri belirlemek amacı ile yapılmaktadır. Bu araştırma kapsamında size ekte verilen anketteki sorulara vereceğiniz içten cevaplar çok önem taşımaktadır. Lütfen soruları boş bırakmamaya özen gösteriniz. Anketlere adlarınızı yazmayınız. Cevaplarınız kesinlikle gizli tutulacak, okul veya yurt idaresi ile paylaşılmayacak ve sadece bu araştırmada kullanılacaktır. Yardımlarınız için çok teşekkür ederim.

Nisa Gökden Kaya
ODTÜ Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü
Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik
Ana Bilim Dalı

Doğum tarihiniz:

Cinsiyetiniz:.....

Okulunuz:.....

Sınıfınız:.....

Öğrenci numaranız:.....

Kaç kardeşsiniz:.....

Sizden başka okula giden kaç kardeşiniz var?.....

Okuldaki başarılarınızı genel olarak nasıl tanımlarsınız?

Çok İyi İyi Orta Düşük Çok Düşük

APPENDIX C

**RESILIENCE AND YOUTH DEVELOPMENT MODULE
California Healthy Kids Survey***

SECTION B

**Please mark on your answer sheets how you feel about
each of the following statements.**

How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements about your *school*?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
B1. I feel close to people at this school.	A	B	C	D
B2. I am happy to be at this school.	A	B	C	D
B3. I feel that I am part of this school.	A	B	C	D
B4. The teachers at this school treat students fairly.	A	B	C	D
B5. I feel safe in my school.	A	B	C	D

**Next, mark how TRUE you feel the next statements are about
your SCHOOL and things you might do there.**

At my school, there is a teacher or some other adult ...

	Not at All True	A Little True	Pretty Much True	Very Much True
B6. who really cares about me.	A	B	C	D
B7. who tells me when I do a good job.	A	B	C	D
B8. who notices when I'm not there.	A	B	C	D
B9. who always wants me to do my best.	A	B	C	D
B10. who listens to me when I have something to say.	A	B	C	D
B11. who believes that I will be a success.	A	B	C	D
B12. who expects me to follow the rules.	A	B	C	D

—

*California Healthy Kids Survey, 2002 CA Dept. of Ed.
Version M6-Fall 2002

Middle School Questionnaire
Module B: Resilience and Youth Development

At school...

	Not at All True	A Little True	Pretty Much True	Very Much True
B13. I do interesting activities.	A	B	C	D
B14. I help decide things like class activities or rules.	A	B	C	D
B15. I do things that make a difference.	A	B	C	D
B16. I do things to help other people	A	B	C	D
B17. I am involved in sports, clubs, or other extra-curricular activities. (Such as band, cheerleading, student council etc.)	A	B	C	D

The next statements are about what might occur *outside your school or home*, such as in your NEIGHBORHOOD, COMMUNITY, or with an ADULT other than your parents or guardian.

Outside of my home and school, there is an adult...

	Not at All True	A Little True	Pretty Much True	Very Much True
B18. who really cares about me.	A	B	C	D
B19. who tells me when I do a good job.	A	B	C	D
B20. who notices if I am upset about something.	A	B	C	D
B21. who believes I will be a success.	A	B	C	D
B22. who always wants me to do my best.	A	B	C	D
B23. whom I trust.	A	B	C	D

Outside of my home and school, I do these things...

	Not at All True	A Little True	Pretty Much True	Very Much True
B24. I am part of clubs, sport teams, church/temple, or other group activities.	A	B	C	D
B25. I am involved in music, art, literature, sport or a hobby.	A	B	C	D
B26. I help other people.	A	B	C	D

How true are the statements about your FRIENDS?

I have a friend about my own age ...

	Not at All True	A Little True	Pretty Much True	Very Much True
B27. who really cares about me.	A	B	C	D
B28. who talks with me about my problems.	A	B	C	D
B29. who helps me when I'm having a hard time.	A	B	C	D

My friends ...

	Not at All True	A Little True	Pretty Much True	Very Much True
B30. get into a lot of trouble.	A	B	C	D
B31. try to do what's right.	A	B	C	D
B32. do well in school.	A	B	C	D

How true are these statements about your HOME or the ADULTS WITH WHOM YOU LIVE?

At home, my mother, father or another adult ...

	Not at All True	A Little True	Pretty Much True	Very Much True
B33. who expects me to follow the rules.	A	B	C	D
B34. who is interested in my school work.	A	B	C	D
B35. who believes that I will be a success.	A	B	C	D
B36. who talks with me about my problems.	A	B	C	D
B37. who always wants me to do my best.	A	B	C	D
B38. who listens to me when I have something to say.	A	B	C	D

At home ...

	Not at All True	A Little True	Pretty Much True	Very Much True
B39. I do fun things or go to fun places with my parents or another adults.	A	B	C	D
B40. I do things to make a difference.	A	B	C	D
B41. I help make decisions with my family.	A	B	C	D

SECTION B2

How true do you feel these statements are about you personally?

	Not at All True	A Little True	Pretty Much True	Very Much True
B2-1. I feel bad when someone gets their feelings hurt.	A	B	C	D
B2-2. I try to understand what other people go through.	A	B	C	D
B2-3. When I need help, I find someone to talk with.	A	B	C	D
B2-4. I know where to go for help with a problem.	A	B	C	D
B2-5. I try to work out problems by talking or writing about them.	A	B	C	D
B2-6. I can work out my problems.	A	B	C	D
B2-7. I can do most things if I try.	A	B	C	D
B2-8. I can work with someone who has different opinions than mine.	A	B	C	D
B2-9. There are many things I do well.	A	B	C	D
B2-10. I enjoy working together with other students my age.	A	B	C	D
B2-11. I stand up for myself without putting others down.	A	B	C	D
B2-12. I try to understand how other people feel and think.	A	B	C	D
B2-13. There is a purpose to my life.	A	B	C	D
B2-14. I understand my moods and feelings.	A	B	C	D
B2-15. I understand why I do what I do.	A	B	C	D
B2-16. I have goals and plans for the future.	A	B	C	D
B2-17. I plan to graduate from high school.	A	B	C	D
B2-18. I plan to go to collage or some other school after high school.	A	B	C	D

APPENDIX D

ROSENBERG BENLİK SAYGISI ÖLÇEĞİ (RBSÖ)

Aşağıdaki maddeler, kendiniz hakkında ne düşünüp genel olarak nasıl hissettiğinize ilişkin olarak hazırlanmıştır. Lütfen her bir maddeyi dikkatlice okuyun ve kendiniz hakkında nasıl hissettiğinizi maddelerin karşısındaki a, b, c ve d'den uygun olan birini işaretleyerek belirtin.

	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Kendimi en az diğer insanlar kadar değerli buluyorum.....	a	b	c	d
2. Bazı olumlu özelliklerim olduğunu düşünüyorum.....	a	b	c	d
3. Genelde kendimi başarısız bir kişi olarak görme eğilimindeyim.....	a	b	c	d
4. Ben de diğer insanların birçoğunun yapabildiği kadar birşeyler yapabilirim	a	b	c	d
5. Kendimde gurur duyacak fazla birşey bulamıyorum.....	a	b	c	d
6. Kendime karşı olumlu bir tutum içindeyim.....	a	b	c	d
7. Genel olarak kendimden memnunum.	a	b	c	d
8. Kendime karşı daha fazla saygı duyabilmeyi isterdim.....	a	b	c	d
9. Bazen kesinlikle kendimin bir işe yaramadığımı düşünüyorum.....	a	b	c	d
10. Bazen kendimin hiç de yeterli bir insan olmadığımı düşünüyorum.....	a	b	c	d

APPENDIX E

DURUMLULUK UMUT ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıdaki altı cümle sizin genel olarak kendi hakkınızda nasıl düşündüğünüzü ve bazı şeyleri nasıl yaptığınızı tanımlamaktadır. Herbir cümleyi dikkatlice okuyunuz. Herbir cümle için, lütfen çoğunlukla nasıl olduğunuzu düşününüz. Sizi en iyi tanımlayan kutucuğun içerisine (X) işareti koyunuz. Örneğin, eğer “Hiçbir Zaman” sizi tanımlıyorsa üzerindeki kutucuğun içerisine (X) işareti koyunuz. Ya da “Her Zaman” size uygunsuzsa üzerindeki kutucuğu işaretleyiniz. Lütfen tüm cümleleri kutucuklardan birini işaretleyerek cevaplayınız. Doğru veya yanlış cevap bulunmamaktadır.

1. Bence işler gayet iyi gidiyor.

Hiçbir Zaman Nadiren Bazen Sık sık Çoğu Zaman Her Zaman

2. Hayatta benim için çok önemli olan şeyleri elde etmek için birçok yol düşünebilirim.

Hiçbir Zaman Nadiren Bazen Sık sık Çoğu Zaman Her Zaman

3. Benimle aynı yaştaki çocuklar kadar iyiyim.

Hiçbir Zaman Nadiren Bazen Sık sık Çoğu Zaman Her Zaman

4. Bir problemim olduğunda, bu problemi çözmek için birçok yol bulabilirim.

Hiçbir Zaman Nadiren Bazen Sık sık Çoğu Zaman Her Zaman

5. Geçmişte yaptığım şeylerin bana gelecekte yardımcı olacağını düşünüyorum.

Hiçbir Zaman Nadiren Bazen Sık sık Çoğu Zaman Her Zaman

6. Diğerleri vazgeçmek istese bile, problemi çözmek için yöntemler/yollar bulabileceğimi biliyorum.

Hiçbir Zaman Nadiren Bazen Sık sık Çoğu Zaman Her Zaman