St. Cloud State University

The Repository at St. Cloud State

Resiliency: It's Importance For "At Promise" Youth

Sandra J. Furman

These starred papers submitted by Sandra J. Furman in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Science at St. Cloud State University is hereby approved by the final evaluation committee.

_____

Jerry J. Wellik

Chairperson

_____

Elisabeth Lodge Rogers

_____

B. H. Miles

_____

Dennis Nunes

Dean

School of Graduate and Continuing Studies

RESILIENCY: ITS IMPORTANCE FOR "AT PROMISE" YOUTH

HUMAN-ANIMAL ACTIVITIES: A POTENTIAL FOR RESILIENCY?

by

Sandra J. Furman

B.S. Moorhead State College, 1973

Starred Papers

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty

of

St. Cloud State University

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for the Degree

Master of Science

St. Cloud State University

May, 1999

RESILIENCY: ITS IMPORTANCE FOR "AT PROMISE" YOUTH

by

Sandra J. Furman

B.S. Moorhead State College, 1973

Starred Papers

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty

of

St. Cloud State University

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for the Degree

Master of Science

St. Cloud State University

May, 1999

DEDICATION

This paper is written with heartfelt gratitude and respect for the educators in my life who have taken the time to care and provide the cheerleading to nourish my resiliency.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter 1

RESILIENCY: ITS IMPORTANCE FOR "AT PROMISE" YOUTH

Today's youth are faced with an endless list of stressful contemporary issues and few protective factors, yet some have persevered to successfully claim moral, productive lives. These individuals have chosen a sustaining life path which has encompassed the ability to face, overcome, be strengthened by, and transformed through the adversities of life. Their paths, reminiscent of someone who has persevered in the wake of a terrible experience and gone on to do well, has been labeled resiliency.

1

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Purpose of Review

Following an explanation of resiliency, this review summarizes research identified as having contributed to the development of resiliency in youth, references attributes suggested for building effective prevention programs, and provides recommendations for further study.

Definition

Masten (1994) explained resilience as an individual's ability to successfully adjust in spite of risk and adversity and assumed that the inability to adapt would be the expected outcome rather than adaptation.

However, further studies of youth that were particularly at high-risk because of being born into poverty, in war-torn countries, to teen mothers, or to parents who were abusive, mentally ill, criminal, or substance-abusing, were documented (Benard, 1996) as only developing problems in depression, lack of self-efficacy, pessimism, behavior in school performance, abuse of alcohol/drugs, teen pregnancy, and delinquency at a rate of less than half the studied population.

The resilient child was described as one who "worked well, played well, loved well, and expected well" (Garmezy, 1974, p. 74) was "considerably more responsive (and could elicit more positive responses from others), more active, and more flexible and adaptable even in infancy" (Werner & Smith, 1982, as cited in Benard, 1991, p. 3); had "the ability to generate comic relief, find alternative ways of looking at things, and an

2

ability to laugh at themselves in ridiculous situations" (Masten, 1986, as cited in Benard, 1991, p. 3); tended to establish more positive relationships with others, including friendships with their peers (Berndt & Ladd, 1989; Werner & Smith, 1982); were continually successful at "negotiating the demands of their environment or didn't survive" (Felsman, 1989, p. 58); had an internal locus of control and a sense of power (Garmezy, 1974, 1991; Werner & Smith, 1982); displayed their ability to take responsibility for determining their future (Botkin, 1979); and who Bronfenbrenner (1974) felt "had a self-righting mechanism that was engaged in active, ongoing adaptation to its environment" (cited in Bernard, 1991, p. 2).

Characteristics

The number of youth growing up without a bright future because they have not felt they have had a purpose in life has been increasing at an alarming rate. Journalist Vogel (1994) supported this idea with a story about a 17-year-old African American who had said on his way into court, "I been dead since I was 12, so I'm not afraid of dying. I'm just waiting to get kicked into the grave" (pp. 56-60).

Masten's (1986) research revealed common characteristics that contributed to the failure of these children to graduate from high school, attain work skills, and become productive members of society. Included in the findings were social/family traits involving histories of: dropping out of school; having a low socioeconomic status; belonging to an ethnic or racial minority group--especially if English was a second language; coming from a dysfunctional family; a lack of parent education; poor communication between the school and home; coming from an urban area/inner city; personal problems of learned helplessness; accepting failure; and having an external locus of control.

Gordon (1995) compared resilient adolescents to their non-resilient peers. Data were collected through self-administered Health Behavior questionnaires from 394 seventh

through ninth grade students in two different schools. Results showed that the behavior and emotions of resilient subjects' behavior differed significantly from those of their non-resilient peers and a general pattern emerged which indicated that resilient adolescents engaged in less subconscious at-risk behaviors. Hawley (1996) referenced Gordon's concluding statement, "The occurrence of these qualities does not make one resilient, nor [do] the lack of them prevent resiliency" (p. 4).

The following common attributes have been consistently identified by researchers who have described the resilient child.

Social competence. The Search Institute, a Minneapolis-based children's research group, released an updated list of 40 resiliency-building factors in 1996. They concluded that the greater the number of these external and internal assets present in a child's environment, the more likely they would be apt to avoid negative behaviors and be successful (Shapiro, Friedman, Meyer, & Loftus, 1996).

Problem-solving skills. The literature on street children growing up in the slums of the United States and other countries, mentioned by Felsman (1989), provides an extreme example of the role these skills have played in the development of resiliency since these children have had to continually successfully negotiate the demands of their environment or not survive.

Independence. Autonomy, a sense of one's own identity, a capability to act with confidence trusting decisions made, and the demonstrated determination to show control over one's environment, were signs of self-esteem that allowed for realization in one's ability (Bernard, 1991).

Beardslee and Podorefsky (1988) found that the resilient children they studied "were able to distinguish clearly between themselves and their own experiences and their

parents' illness" (pp. 63-69) and, realized that they were not the cause and that their future would be different.

Sense of purpose and future. Benard (1991) searched for an explanation of why some students were resilient when, due to at-risk factors in their lives, they should have been at-risk. Benard's research revealed "the positive impact of having had at least one person in an individual's life who had been irrationally crazy about them." In addition, her research disclosed that students who were resilient shared traits where a positive attitude had encouraged a similar positive reaction and helpfulness in others, goals and hopes for the future had been set, and a sense of being responsible and in charge of their lives was evident. She found that when asked what had contributed to the students' success or failure in a situation, they pointed to what they had or had not done. These students seemed to have an internal locus of control. They did not blame others, tended to have a sense of purpose, were able to remain focused, and made positive choices.

Werner and Smith (1982) validated the power of this characteristic when they summarized their 35-year study of resiliency in childhood. They described the ability to cope as having had confidence that life's experiences were not only "predictable," but would most likely "work out as well as [could] be reasonably expected" (cited in Benard, 1991, p. 5).

Protective Factors

Si Kahn stated in a 1994 interview:

The power of organizing is the power of community .... It's about meeting heart-to-heart .... It's about seeing ourselves, about being recognized, about escaping from invisibility, about being seen--and not just as individuals but as part of a community. And that is how we achieve power and how we break through fear, how we break through the boundaries and the barriers that separate us from each other and us collectively from power. (Rocawich, p. 34)

Si Kahn was addressing the result of a division among community members who did not feel a need to work together, and encouraging a return to visualizing the benefits of a community functioning as a family unit.

Caring support. "Perhaps the most vital ingredient [has been] the establishment of empowering relationships" (Mills, 1993, p. 29).

A key finding identified by Children's Express (1993) was their conclusion that the effective development of skills that foster persistence has seldom happened at a programmatic phase alone. Schools having developed caring relationships between educator-student, student-student, educator-educator, and educator-parent received student survey responses describing their setting as being like a family, home, community, and even a sanctuary. Common programmatic approaches in these turnaround settings provided the structure for developing relationships, opportunities for active student involvement, small group processes, cooperative learning, peer helping, cross-age mentoring, and community service.

Noticing youths' successful resilience when handling challenges generated public interest in the resiliency process and resulted in a search for protective factors. Lifton (1993) spoke of a new focal point which requested that anyone working with troubled youth believe in that youth's inborn resilience, defined by him as "the human capacity for transformation and change" (p. 2).

In a 1960 chronicle of great depression struggles, Let Us Now Praise Famous Men, Agee wrote, "In every child who was born, under no-matter-what circumstances, and no-matter-what parents, the potentiality of the human race was born again" (cited in Benard, 1996, p. 7). Benard stated that these words defined a belief system that told kids: "I believe in you and you can be who you want to be; you can achieve your dream" (p. 2).

High expectations. Elevated standards have structured and guided behavior, as well as challenged students beyond what they believed they could do (Delpit, 1996). Showing students they had the ability to choose how they react to things that happen, has helped them recognize how their internalized self talk--of I am not good or smart enough-- has blocked their inner resilience (Mills, 1991).

Schools that have established high expectations for youth--and provided the support necessary to achieve them--have had high rates of academic achievement. They have also produced lower rates than other schools in problem behaviors such as dropping out, drug abuse, teen pregnancy, and delinquency (Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston, & Smith, 1979). Kidder (1990) wrote:

> For children who are used to thinking of themselves as stupid or not worth talking to...a good teacher can provide an astonishing revelation. A good teacher can give a child at least a chance to feel, she thinks I'm worth something; maybe I am. (p. 302)

Kurth-Schai (1988) brought attention to the way in which adults' frequent low expectations influence the subsequent thoughts and behaviors of children. The usual outcome of these low expectations has created a recipe of denial for youth being active participants and contributors in community life.

According to Hedin (1987), our society tells children and youth:

> They have no real place in the scheme of things, that their only responsibility is to go to school and learn and grow up. When they have learned and grown up, which is supposed to occur miraculously at age 18, they can perhaps make some modest contribution as a citizen. The young people, therefore, view themselves as strictly consumers, not as contributors. (cited in Benard, 1991, p. 16)

Encouraged participation. If students are to see themselves as being able to contribute to their life choices, they must learn to think critically, make inferences, verbalize their thoughts, demonstrate understanding, feel that what they conceive has value, and learn collaborative and interpersonal techniques necessary for future work skills.

Students are being challenged by educators: (a) when asked questions that encourage self-reflection, critical thinking and consciousness; (b) through dialogue, especially around key social and personal issues; (c) with increased experiential based learning, as in-service learning; (d) when provided with opportunities for creative expression in art, music, writing, theater, video production; (e) to help others through community service, peer helping, cooperative learning; (f) when invited to become involved with curriculum planning and choosing learning experiences; (g) to take participatory evaluation strategies seriously; and (h) to become active in creating the governing rules of the classroom (Benard, 1995) .

Strategies That Work

With a goal to foster resilience by creating nurturing climates, efforts could be accelerated by reviewing what had already been tried and found to work.

To identify model programs, the National Network for Family Resiliency (1996) reviewed published literature and experiences of projects to establish working criteria. They determined that model programs were: 1) community based and carried out in collaboration with many community partners, 2) comprehensive in a mix of prevention and intervention, 3) able to view communities, families, and individuals as interconnected and able to contribute resources and skills, 4) preventive through successfully interfacing service and education with an asset perspective, 5) developmentally appropriate and research based, 6) accessible to participants, 7) accountable to stakeholders through demonstration of positive outcomes, 8) sustainable based on the program having been in existence for a while, 9) led by someone who demonstrates commitment and vision.

Strategies from successful programs need to be incorporated into program planning if the desired outcome is for quality and endurance.

"Fostering resilience is ... about creating the environments that facilitate... natural unfolding of self-esteem, optimism, social competence, and problem solving" (Benard, 1996, pp. 6-7). "Human potential, though not always apparent, is always there--waiting to be discovered and invited forth" (Purkey & Stanley, 1995, p. 6). Accessing one's own innate well being, became, in Norman Garmezy's (1991) words, "a protective shield for youth by providing them with the caring relationships, high expectations, and invitations for participation and contributions that ... engage their own sense of motivation and well being" (p. 420). Creating such nurturing environments has only occurred when adults have also believed in their own innate resilience. Conditioned thoughts about "high-risk" kids, "dysfunctional" or "broken" families, "welfare" mothers, "public housing," or "slum" communities have prevented compassionate thinking. If one modeled the behaviors expected of youth, they moved past biases and accessed inner abilities to care, problem solve, actively listen, and connect with another's inner core of health (Benard, 1996).

Connections between family, community, and school environments were seen as needing to be revived if individuals were to be provided opportunities to build resiliency. Community wide cooperative efforts were recommended to create a climate that encouraged "positive and high expectations, a caring and supportive environment and meaningful opportunities for participation" (Comer, 1984; Edmonds, 1986; Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston, & Smith, 1979 (as cited in Benard, 1995; Marshall, 1996).

Educators, researchers, and social service providers have cultivated resilience when they recognized the valid and positive role that culture plays in supporting youth and tapping their resilience (Heavyrunner, 1997).

There are 554 federally recognized tribes in the U.S. and an almost equal number in Canada (Brown, 1988). Recognizing that tribal differences occur, Heavyrunner (1997) explained in detail that their culture has shared core values, beliefs, and behaviors and

stated that, "Educators and others must understand that the values held by Native children are interrelated" (p. 28).

Fleming (1992) (Kickapoo/Oneida/Cherokee), further explained,

In an attempt to depart from lifestyles and situations that compromise well-being, Indians...[Native Americans/Alaska Natives/First Nations] have begun to identify for themselves culturally congruent values and behaviors that enhance life for the individual, the family, and the community....A balanced treatment...needs to focus on the resiliency, strengths, and significant contributions (p. 137)

Doyle Arbogast's book, Wounded Warriors, was comprised of an array of personal beliefs about resilience teachings. Individuals he included spoke of what their ancestors always knew, "that the pathways to peace, balance, and living are found by taking responsibility to honor the beauty, spirit, and the mystery of their own heritage" (Arbogast, 1995. p. 1).

Just as the Indian circle of life has been viewed by Indians as unbroken and never ending, Heavyrunner (1997) explained resilience as also being unending. She referred to a survey of 136 Native program directors and front-line workers who recorded the types of resources they saw fostering their cultural resilience. Black Elk described the circle of strength this way:

You have noticed that everything an Indian does is in a circle, and that is because the Power of the World always works in circles, and everything tries to be round. In the old days when we were a strong and happy people, all our power came to us from the sacred hoop of the nation, and so long as the hoop was unbroken, the people flourished. The flowering tree was the living center of the hoop, and the circle of the four quarters nourished it. The east gave peace and light, the south gave warmth, the west gave rain, and the north with its cold and mighty wind gave strength and endurance. This knowledge came to us from the outer world with our religion. Everything the power of the world does is done in a circle. The sky is round, and I have heard that the earth is round like a ball, and so are all the stars. The wind, in its greatest power, whirls. Birds make their nests in circles, for theirs is the same religion as ours. The sun comes forth and goes down again in a circle. The moon does the same, and both are round. Even the seasons form a circle in their changing, and always come back again to where they were. The life of a man is a circle from childhood to childhood, and so it in everything where power moves. (Brown, 1988, p. 34)

School. A common finding in resilience research was the potential of teachers, often unrecognized, to tip the scales from risk to resilience. Teachers/mentors provided and modeled three protective factors that buffered risk and enabled positive development by meeting youth's basic needs for safety, love and belonging, respect, power, accomplishment and learning, and, ultimately, for meaning (Benard, 1991). In later papers Benard described the training with the resiliency approach. Benard's experience required choosing a most challenging student, identifying their personal strengths and mirroring them back. Activities used included teaching the student that they had innate resilience and the capacity to create a personal reality. Benard found that (a) being patient had created opportunities where learners felt more comfortable in participating and contributing and (b) having focused on their small victories allowed them to grow into major transformations (Benard, 1995).

One group of teachers reflected personally on their beliefs about resilience, and as a staff, exchanged personal and book experiences about overcoming challenges (Cohen, 1991). This same group found practical value in having discussed research on resilience, including the studies of successful city schools (Polakow, 1995).

Polakow's research findings indicated that "it is easiest to change students' level of information, harder to change their attitudes, and most difficult to change their behavior" (Polakow, 1995, p. 5). Polakow's concluding remarks expressed that the first step in creating a classroom or school that fostered resilience, occurred when staffs had learned how to reach consensus about innate resilience.

Teachers have conveyed support to students by listening, validating feelings, and by having demonstrated kindness, compassion, and respect (Higgins, 1994; Meier, 1995). They refrained from judging, not taking students' behavior personally, and understood that youth were doing the best they could, based on the way they perceived the world. Success has occurred at the level of nurtured relationships, mutual beliefs and

expectations, and an openness to attempting shared leadership (Benard, 1994; Benard, 1996, Cohen & Wills, 1985; Embry, 1997; Garmezy, 1974; Rutter et al., 1979; Werner & Smith; 1982; Zimrin, 1986).

Rutter et al. (1979), Rutter, 1984, and Kohn (1993) felt educators had implemented strategies that promoted resiliency when they recognized student strengths and mirrored them back as a means of helping them see their strengths. Overwhelmed youth [who had been labeled or oppressed by their families, schools, and/or communities] were encouraged to use their personal power and grow from damaged victims to resilient survivors by having:

1. not taken the adversity in their lives personally
2. avoided seeing adversity as permanent
3. refused to view setbacks as overwhelming
4. used personal strengths, interests, goals, and dreams as a beginning point for learning and tapping into intrinsic motivation for learning
5. expressed their opinions and imagination
6. made positive choices
7. practiced problem solving when working with and helping others
8. given their gifts back to the community in a physically and psychologically safe and structured environment (adapted from Seligman, 1995).

Students who have seen themselves as responsible individuals have participated in all aspects of the school's functioning.

Just as teachers have hoped to create nurturing classroom climates, administrators have joined in the effort by creating nurturing environments to support teachers' resilience. Strategies included promoting caring relationships among colleagues; modeling positive feedback, high expectations, and site-based management trust; and providing ongoing

opportunities for time in small groups, to reflect, dialogue, and promote shared decision-making (McLaughlin & Talbert, 1993).

The evolving norm, according to the National Resilience Resource Center (n.d.), is that "children are to be viewed as 'at promise' rather than as 'at risk'." Locally, Dr. Richard Holt, Director of Student Services in St. Cloud District 742 has made resilience-based prevention a top school and community priority. At the time of this report, the district has been using a model referred to as Health Realization. The goal of this program has been to "reconnect people to the health in themselves and then direct them in ways to bring forth the health in others" (National Resilience Resource Center, n.d., p. 2). Dr. Roger Mills, founder of the Health Realization/Community Empowerment, reported encouraging results with this model when he saw school attendance improve by 80%, disciplinary actions drop by 75%, parent involvement in schools increase by more than 500%, school failure rates drop to 10%, and pregnancy decrease by 80% (Marshall, 1996). "Imposing harsh penalties or being punitive demonstrates a lack of respect. It communicates that we do not expect them to be able to learn or to understand how to act in a mature way. There are creative ways to maintain a calm classroom atmosphere" (Mills, 1993).

To assist educators, the Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation produced a "Fastback" of suggestions for creating classrooms that foster resilience (Wang, 1998). Included were suggested lists of protective factors that promoted educational resilience within the family, school, peer, and community contexts.

Home. Research within resilient childrens' family environments has found that most at-risk students have had the opportunity to establish a close bond with at least one caregiver who gave them a great deal of attention in their crucial first years of life. Findings noted that such attention enabled these children to establish a sense of trust. This

trust was then observed in later interactions with teachers, peers and the student's own development. Bonding was sometimes seen with alternate care givers such as siblings, aunts, uncles, or grandparents who became positive role models. Resilient children were viewed as adept at finding these substitute caregivers, and eliciting positive responses from many people around them (Werner, 1984).

Family composition was not cited as having had a significant effect on at-risk students' success or failure. Living with both parents was not an indicator of a higher level of resiliency than single parent families, or other configurations. Instead, good parent-child relationships and supportive personal attachments appeared to act as protective factors from the environment. Parental commitment to their children was demonstrated with informal counseling, support, and help in achieving success (Peng, Wang, & Walberg, 1992). These types of support left feelings of strong family ties and coherence to family units. In turn, at-risk students believed not only that life made sense, but viewed themselves as having some control over their lives. This sense of meaning was a powerful motivator for many resilient at-risk students (Werner, 1984).

Senior Scientist, Edith H. Grotberg, Ph.D. (1995), from the Civitan International Research Center, University of Alabama at Birmingham, prepared an abstract that offered parents and other caregivers suggestions to promote resilience with youth from birth through 3 years, 4 through 7 years, and 8 through 11 years. Throughout these lists of suggestions, the words "express love," "praise," "encourage," "communicate," and "model" appeared repeatedly. She supplemented her advice with a page of three sources for overcoming adversities which were labeled "I HAVE, I AM, I CAN."

Success has occurred if the involved agencies and care givers have worked together as a team. Laurence Steinberg, Temple University psychology professor, conducted a study and found that 25% of the surveyed parents paid little attention to how their kids were doing in school. About half the parents stated they did not know what their kids had

done after school, who their children's friends were, or where they went at night (Shapiro, 1996).

Findings from Viadero's 1995 research confirmed that having informed, concerned, involved parents correlated positively with children's performance in and attitudes toward school (cited in Hurley & Lustbader, 1997). Yet, because parents have been seen as taking less and less of a role in their children's learning experiences, the importance of the caring school adults has been viewed as even more important. "Such findings reinforce our understanding of the importance of the connections between caring school adults, the family, children's attitudes toward school, and achievement (Hurley & Lustbader, 1997, p. 529).

Families that have created nurturing environments have, by error or experience, acknowledged the importance of becoming a part of a community that has provided support and opportunities (Benard, 1991, p. 9).

Community. Comer (1984) expressed,

I am more convinced than ever of the importance of reinventing community, both within our schools, and within our neighborhoods. This sense of place, of belonging, is a crucial building block for the healthy development of children and adolescents. (p. 355, cited in Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1992)

According to most researchers, the most effective precaution we have given children has been to provide them and their families the availability of resources to meet their basic needs (Garmezy, 1991). Caring and support at the community level has included the availability of resources necessary for healthy human development: health care, child care, housing, education, job training, employment, and recreation. The only way communities can and have succeeded in this endeavor has been through the building of social networks that have linked not only families and schools but agencies and organizations throughout the community with the common purpose of collaborating to address the needs of children and families (Benard, 1991; Mills, 1990).

Forty percent of teenagers' waking hours are reported as uncommitted time (Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1994). In the inner city, the time from the end of school until bedtime has represented the most dangerous portion of the day. After-school programs and neighborhood organizations have served as important resources in the lives of all children and teenagers. They have served as especially important buffers in the lives of youth who have had to confront multiple risks, such as has been the case for many inner-city children who have grown up in our poorest and most violent communities (Katz, 1997). In contrast, some studies have shown that inner-city teenagers have reportedly stayed away from specially designed programs because they have presented a negative view of inner-city youth (McLaughlin & Talberg, 1993).

Resiliency Programs

Successful programs have included consideration of "language needs, literacy rate, and educational levels of clients to gear service delivery at appropriate levels" (National Network for Family Resiliency, 1996, p. 7).

Not all programs embrace the idea of being able to influence at-risk students. Whole industries have ministered to the ongoing pain and suffering caused by crisis. Curriculum has been designed to offer districts violence-prevention services or violence-response/treatment programs. Reacting to ongoing trauma has only served to discount simple, effective, and proactive ideas (Embry, 1997).

James Comer, MD, professor of psychiatry at the Yale University Child Study Center, developed a model school program which included parents as full partners in all levels of decision making. Parents, community resources, volunteers, and school staff worked as a team and created a community school designed to meet students' educational and emotional needs (Katz, 1997).

Goldstein (1988) authored the Prepare Curriculum as an answer to teach students to make personal decisions in a responsible manner and evaluate consequences of behaviors before acting.

The PRISE (Positive Resiliency in Special Education) Curriculum (Cohen, 1991) for grades K-12, was one part of the Comprehensive Special Education Drug Initiative (CSEDI), a School Personnel Training Grant, funded by the U.S. Department of Education, Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act. This curriculum was written to involve students in classroom activities that increased their resiliency while encouraging them to make healthy, informed decisions about alcohol and other drug use.

Phillips (1996), an alternative educational administrator, authored a guidance program to be used with at-risk youth that won the S.T.A.R.S. Award (Strategies for Teachers of At-Risk Students) from the California State Department of Education. This one semester curriculum was designed to build respect, responsibility, and resiliency in youth, encouraged stretching ones comfort zone, trying new things, and looking at some things in a new way. It allowed the students to own their success and encouraged the teacher to develop ways to help their students feel attached to them. Objectives focused on the dysfunctional beliefs, assumptions, and behavioral patterns students displayed that tended to lock them into negative, self-defeating patterns. Phillips characterized these outlooks as having:

1. A negative self-image or low self-esteem with low expectations for the future.

2. Expressed themselves either passively or aggressively, instead of assertively in emotional situations.

3. Demonstrated a refusal to accept responsibility, and reverted to making excuses, blaming others, or giving up if unsuccessful.

4. Shown a reluctance to set goals by just letting life happen to them.

5. Appeared to consciously make decisions or solve problems and reacting without first considering possible consequences.

6. A tendency not to have consciously made decisions or solved problems, but reacted without having first considered possible consequences.

Phillip's Personal Development course was selected as one of 11 model continuation high schools in California (Philips, 1996).

Project Support was designed to build bridges between family, school, and community. Its goal was that of teen alcohol, drug, and dropout prevention. "Although the project's population was defined as at-risk, the premises and practices applied to all children" (Hurley & Lustbader, 1997, p. 528).

Roger Mill's Health Realization resiliency model focused on an approach that helped people learn to recognize and let go of negative, self-defeating thinking, free their minds to access their innate well being and resilience, and directed participants in ways to bring forth the health in others (Mills, 1993, p. 19). When United States Attorney General, Janet Reno, formed a consortium to address the state of concern for youth, Mill's project was utilized (Marshall, 1996, p. 1).

Mills (1993) provided down-to-earth guidelines based on the criteria of his Health Realization model and the outcome data from 15 years of pilot programs and work in inner-city schools. These steps were geared to help educators create a learning climate within which individuals would feel empowered to own their successes.

1. Be climate oriented versus task oriented
2. Don't take it personally
3. Know you can engage health
4. Model and teach mental health
5. Don't be a doormat
6. Build relationships
7. Practice effective discipline
8. Resist labeling students
9. Develop rapport (pp. 408)

Louisiana State Youth Opportunities Unlimited (LSYOU) was a program which attempted to create an alternative, more supportive, organizational structure using participative management. Many potential dropouts have problems coping with the formal and impersonal structure of most high schools. Therefore, LSYOU formulated a model to counteract these feelings and increase the number of graduates. The participative management system was characterized by supportive management in all levels; cooperative and substantial team work; and shared decision making in setting and attaining goals (Gaston, 1987). Staff were selected who could work within the management style utilized. At-risk students were identified. Staff members were trained to reduce alienation among youth. Goals of improving self concepts, dealing with feelings, and developing positive attitudes were set. Classes consisted of 13 students per tutor and teacher. Students and staff became involved in non-academic activities and all participants worked a half day with a professional on campus. Group participation, communication, and cooperation occurred daily in team meetings on each student. Students were assigned to teams in their dormitories. Each team was expected to elect a representative to the student council, select their group extracurricular activities, and allow time for group work. Students were provided opportunities to contribute and feel independence whenever possible. Those who made impressive efforts were rewarded weekly and a culminating award ceremony was held at the end of the term. Evaluations showed that the program was perceived as having used characteristics of a participative management style and having significantly and positively impacted specific academic and affective/social skills. The assumption remained that with the increase in skills, this group would feel less snubbing and be more likely to continue their school enrollment (Gaston, 1987).

Henderson (1996) introduced a six-step plan of action for resiliency building based on scientific evidence, proposed a wellness model, and presented a paradigm of development that offered schools a research-based framework.

Concerns. An awareness of common pitfalls has helped teams sidestep potential obstacles when creating and maintaining effective student assistance systems (Marshall, 1994). Some of these pitfalls have included:

1. Having a lack of administrative support.

2. Student assistance teams who have not remained connected with the staff.

3. School staff not having accepted their limitations of being unable to do it all and who have ignored the availability of community resources services.

4. Personnel mistakenly withholding information from those who are on a need-to-know basis when having made the right contact could have saved a child's life.

5. Having unclear policies regarding parent information and consent.

6. Not addressing staff needs by having ignored their need for and possible benefit from quality Employee Assistance Programs.

Researchers have also found red flags with weak evaluation components, poor mentor role modeling, a lack of consideration for the participants differences and needs, overlooking the importance of creating a safe, consistent, and nurturing environments (Hurley & Lustbader, 1997) and a lack of parental involvement (Sample, 1993).

Benefits.

The mission of those concerned is to create a cultural climate that encourages children to value and to achieve independence, adventure, intimacy, consciousness, activity, fun, self-reliance, health, problem-solving capacities, and a commitment to the community. There is no better antidote for this than adolescents' beliefs that the world is a positive place, that they can accomplish what they want, and that they can gain satisfaction from life. (Peele, 1986, p. 24)

The effect of having multiple opportunities for success was demonstrated by Rutter's High/Scope Educational Research Foundation and their 15-year follow-up survey of the Perry Preschool Project. In this analysis it was discovered that when impoverished inner-city children were given chances to make decisions and help plan in their preschool

setting, these same students at age 19 were as much as 50% less involved than their peers with drug use, delinquency, teen pregnancy, and school failure (Berrueta-Clement et al., 1984, as cited in Benard, 1991). The Perry Preschool Project is the eighth in a series of reports of longitudinal research on the long-term effects of participation versus nonparticipation in a program of high quality early childhood education. The study, which follows 123 black youths from families of low socioeconomic status and at-risk of failing in school, finds that young people up to 19 years of age who attended the High/Scope Educational Research Foundation's Perry Preschool Program (PPP) in the early 1960s continue to outperform peers who did not attend preschool. The Perry Preschool Project provided an organized educational experience directed at the intellectual and social development of young children who participated when they were three and four years of age. Fifty-eight children were assigned to the preschool group called the experimental group and 65 children were assigned to the no-preschool group called the control group. The Perry Preschool study addressed the issue of whether high quality early childhood education would improve the lives of low-income children and their families, and the quality of life of the community as a whole. Sections of the report concern: (1) the background and context of the Perry Preschool Study; (2) preschool's effects on school success, early socioeconomic success, and social responsibility; (3) review and interpretation of study outcomes over time; (4) preschool's long-term impact; (5) the lessons of early childhood research; and (6) nine case studies of children growing up in Ypsilanti, Michigan. Their work provides an appendix of information about supplementary analyses of the data.

More importantly, caring was only determined to work when traits that youth were expected to express, were first modeled by the Perry Preschool supervisors (Benard, 1994).

Werner and Smith's 1989 study, covering more than 40 years, found that outside

of the family circle a favorite teacher was among the most frequently encountered positive

role models in the lives of resilient children. This person was not just seen as an instructor

for academic skills for the youngsters, but also a confidant and positive model for personal

identification. A caring relationship with a teacher gave youth the motivation for wanting to

succeed. As Noddings (1988) articulated:

> At a time when the traditional structures of caring have deteriorated, schools must
> become places where teachers and students live together, talk with each other, take
> delight in each other's company .... Hard work ... will still be required. But ... it
> is obvious that children will work harder and do things ... for people they love and
> trust. Schools cannot end the crisis of caring in our society, but they can help
> young people to learn how to care and be cared for, and those people may
> eventually make this crisis a phenomenon of the past. (p. 32)

Even more than the teacher-student relationship, it was stressed that school-wide

empathy created opportunities for caring between student-to-student, teacher-to-teacher,

and teacher-to-parent relationships. A climate of caring was not viewed as a program or

strategy by itself, but a way of being in the world, a way of relating to youth, their

families, and each other which suggested compassion, understanding, respect, and interest

(Benard, 1995)

Ginott's (1975) "Frightening Conclusion" written in his book Teacher and Child

explained why some experiences have, and continue to succeed, when others have failed:

> I have come to a frightening conclusion: I am the decisive element in the
> classroom. It is my personal approach that creates the climate. It is my daily mood
> that makes the weather. As a teacher I possess the tremendous power to make a
> child's life miserable or joyous. I can be a tool of torture or an instrument of
> inspiration. I can humiliate or humor, hurt or heal. In all situations it is my
> response that decides whether a crisis will be escalated or de-escalated, a child
> humanized or dehumanized. (p. 197)

Those who have overcome major hardships in their lives have spoken of

a very special person who was always there to help. The special person offered support,

companionship, and guidance. Most of all, that person really cared (Cohen & Wills,

1985). Throughout our lives, according to Rutter (1990), intimate relationships have gone

a long way in bolstering how we have viewed ourselves and in how we have been viewed by others.

For Phillips (1996), becoming such an individual has been a rewarding challenge with endless benefits. Phillips has learned that looking past the obvious and caring about the inner child has allowed her access into numerous lives. She has shared her stories and strategies, and closed each of her workshops with a story. The story she has used the most has been about a young girl who was busily throwing stranded starfish back into the sea when a wandering old philosopher neared. Caught up in gazing at miles of starfish which had washed onto the beach, he was startled when he noticed a little girl picking them up one by one and throwing them back into the ocean. Puzzled, he questioned her as to why she bothered, and commented that she could not possibly make a difference because there were so many of them. The young girl picked up a starfish and turning to face the sea, said to the old man, as she gently tossed the starfish back into the sea, "It made a difference to this one!" Phillips' final comments were a reminder that, as a community, we all have opportunities to make a difference (Phillips, 1997).

No matter which program selected, a prerequisite for success was repeatedly determined to be a caring, nurturing environment.

Evaluative Measures

The National Network for Family Resiliency (1996) listed the following types of evaluations on their web site: (a) quantitative evaluations which include measurement data such as process satisfaction scales, counting (number of newsletters sent, percent that liked something), (b) qualitative evaluations incorporating word descriptions like feedback on experiences, (c) process evaluations that allow the reviewer to establish outcomes with data related to items of volunteer dollar values and time support, how many people came to programs, or written/phone comments from participants, (d) outcome evaluations involving

participants' reports of changed behavior and economic benefits to the community.
Consideration of what information satisfies the evaluators objectives determines which
evaluative measures are required.

Chapter 3

CONCLUSION

The study of resiliency data allows one to not only understand and determine the factors that alter student lives from being seen as at-risk to at-promise, but find usable methods, examine working systems, determine possible evaluative measures, and weigh concerns and benefits.

The literature on resilient students implies that society must work together to provide the necessary pieces required to understand the puzzle of at-risk youth and why some must struggle when others blossom.

Schools need to audit their environments to create climates for change and resiliency (Embry, 1997). Surveys are ways to help programs understand the level and nature of parent and teacher involvement and to create school-family-community partnership programs (Patrikakou, Weissberg, Anderson, & Shanahan, 1998).

No single person or institution is able to address these issues alone. The community and home must working together to unveil the secrets of success.

Schools must be settings where basic human needs for support, respect, and belonging can been met and motivation for learning fostered. When schools have redefined their culture based factors of resilience and built a vision and commitment on the part of the whole school community, it will have the power to serve as a protective shield for all youth, including youth from troubled homes and impoverished communities (Sarason, 1990). Benard's summary of current research says:

> Fostering resiliency is not about the direct teaching of social competence and problem-solving skills, self-esteem, or even the skills of optimism; it's about creating the environments that facilitate their natural unfolding. Even if we do create add-on, skills-based programs, prevention research has shown that without the facilitative environment, our youth are doomed to long-term failure. (Benard, 1996, p. 7)

This research on resilience has provided me with an understanding as to why I feel successful with students, and a blueprint for creating schools where all students can thrive socially and academically. As a result, I have obtained and used Vicky Phillips' Personal Development curriculum to train students in self-motivation, established a peer court that is used to intervene in events that jeopardize students when they choose behaviors that cause problems for themselves, and allowed students the dignity to be responsible for their own choices and progress. I realized that I have already included important strategies of 1) significant contact with a supportive adult, 2) initiating a morning student time to develop interconnectedness and peer support, 3) networking community services with student needs, 4) allowing learning to occur around topics of personal interest to individuals, 5) creating curriculum by revisiting a level where the student has met with success rather than exploiting their weaknesses.

Educators need to let go of their need to control, develop patience, and trust that learning will occur. As a result, I believe they will be free to care, believe in, and embrace kids. They will make a difference by facilitating a creative and compassionate environment where kids enjoy being and teaching is more effortless and enjoyable. Above all, they will be responding to recommendations from the research on resilience and on nurturing teachers and successful schools.

REFERENCES

Ajax, J., & Evans, W. (1980). Let us say praise heroes now. Cambridge, MA: Riverside Press.

Arbogast, D. (1995). Wounded warriors. Omaha, NE: Little Turtle Publications.

Beardslee, W., & Podorefsky D. (1988, January). Resilient adolescents whose parents have serious affective and other psychiatric disorders: Importance of self-understanding and relationships. American Journal of Psychiatry, 145(1), 63-69.

Benard, B. (1991, August). Fostering resiliency in kids: Protective factors in the family, school, and community. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory for Drug-Free Schools and Communities. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 335 781)

Benard, B. (1994, December). The health realization approach to resiliency. Western Center News, 8(1).

Benard, B. (1995, August). Fostering resilience in children. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 386 327)

Benard, B. (1996, January). The exciting definition of resiliency. (Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement, Safe and Drug Free Schools Project.) Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota.

Benard, B. (1996, February). Mentors & Resiliency. Jim as an asset item. (Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement, Safe and Drug Free Schools Project.) Brown, J. (1995). The spiritual legacy of the American Indian. New York: Crossroad Publishing.

Berndt, T., & Ladd, G. (Eds.) (1989). Peer relationships in child development. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Berrueta-Clement, J. R., Weikart, D. P., & Slavin-Oliver, M. (1984). Changed lives: The effects of the Perry preschool program on youths through age 19. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Press.

Boston, J. (1979). No limits to learning: Bridging the human gap. (A report to the Club of Rome). New York: Pergamon.

Bronfenbrenner, U. The ecology of human development. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

27

REFERENCES

Agee, J., & Evans, W. (1960). Let us now praise famous men. Cambridge, MA: Riverside Press.

Arbogast, D. (1995). Wounded warriors. Omaha, NE: Little Turtle Publications.

Beardslee, W., & Podorefsky D. (1988, January). Resilient adolescents whose parents have serious affective and other psychiatric disorders: Importance of self-understanding and relationships. American Journal of Psychiatry. 145(1), 63-69.

Benard, B. (1991, August). Fostering resiliency in kids: Protective factors in the family, school, and community. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory for Drug-Free Schools and Communities. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 335 781)

Benard, B. (1994, December). The health realization approach to resiliency. Western Center News. 8(1).

Benard, B. (1995, August). Fostering resilience in children. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 386 327)

Benard, B. (1996, January). The evolving definition of resiliency (Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement, Safe and Drug Free Schools Project.) Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota.

Benard, B. (1996, February). Musings II: Rethinking how we do prevention. (Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement, Safe and Drug Free Schools Project Brown, J. (1988). The spiritual legacy of the American Indian. New York: Crossroad Publishing.

Berndt, T., & Ladd, G. (Eds.). (1989). Peer relationships in child development. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Berrueta-Clement, J. R., Weikart, D. P., & Skodak-Crissey, M. (1984). Changed lives: The effects of the Perry preschool program on youths through age 19. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Press.

Botkin, J. (1979). No limits to learning: Bridging the human gap. (A report to the Club of Rome). New York: Pergamon.

Bronfenbrenner, U. The ecology of human development. Cambridge, MN: Harvard University Press.

Brown, J. (1988). The spiritual legacy of the American Indian. New York: Crossroad Publishing.

Bushweller, K. (1995, May). The resilient child. American School Board Journal, 182(5), 18-23.

Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, (1994). A matter of time: Risk and opportunity in the out of school hours. New York: Carnegie Corp of New York.

Children's Express. (1993). Voices from the future: Children tell us about violence in America. New York: Crown.

Cohen, T. S. (1991). The PRISE curriculum. Northwest Suburban Special Education Organization.

Cohen, T. S., & Wills, T. A. (1985). Stress, social support and the buffering hypothesis. Psychological Review, 98, 310-357.

Comer, J. (1984, May). Home-school relationships as they affect the academic success of children. Education and Urban Society, 16(3), 323-337.

Delpit, L. (1996). The politics of teaching literate discourse. In Ayers ,W. & Ford, P. (Eds.). City kids, city teachers: Reports from the front row. New York: New Press.

Edmonds, R. (1986). Characteristics of effective schools. In U. Neisser, Ed., The school achievement of minority children: New perspectives. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum. 93-104. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 269 500)

Embry, D. D. (1997, March). Does your school have a peaceful environment? Using an audit to create a climate for change and resiliency. Intervention in School and Clinic, 32(4), 217-222.

Felsman, K. L. (1989). Risk and resiliency in childhood: The lives of street children. In T. Dugan & R. Coles (Eds.), The child in our times (pp. 56-80). New York: Brunner/Mazel

Fleming, C. (1992). American Indians and Alaska natives: Changing societies past and present. In M. A. Orlandi (Ed.), Cultural competence for evaluators. A guide for alcohol and other drug abuse prevention practitioners working with ethnic/racial communities (OSAP Cultural Competence Series). Rockville, MD: Office for Substance Abuse Prevention.

Garmezy, N. (1974, December). The study of competence in children at risk for severe psychopathology. In E. J. Anthony (Ed) In the child in his family, 3: Children at psychiatric risk, 3, 77-98.

Garmezy, N. (1991). Resiliency in children's adaptation to negative life events and stressed environments. Pediatric Annals, 20(9), 459-466.

Gaston, S. N. (1987). The effects of an alternative organizational framework on students at risk for dropping out (report No. CG-019-925). Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Washington, DC. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 282 157)

Gibbs, J., & Bennett, S. (1990). Together we can: A framework for community prevention planning. Seattle, WA: Comprehensive Health Education Foundation.

Ginott, H. (1975). Teacher and child. New York : Avon Books, 197.

Goldstein, A. P. (1988). The prepared curriculum: Teaching prosocial competencies. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Gordon, K. (1995, April 18-22). Profile of behaviorally resilient adolescents: Confirmation and extension. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA.

Grotberg, E. H. (1995). A guide to promoting resilience in children: Strengthening the Human Spirit. University of Alabama. Birmingham. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 386 271)

Hawley, C. (1996). Resiliency (Center for Adolescent Studies.) Bloomington, IN: Center for Adolescent Studies.

Heavyrunner (Blackfeet), I., & Morris. J. S. (Sault Ste. Marie Chippewa). (1997, Spring). Traditional native culture and resilience. (Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement, Vol. 5, No. 1) Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota.

Hedin, D. (1987, Winter). Students as teachers: A tool for improving school. Social Policy. 42-47.

Henderson, N. (1996). Resiliency in schools: Making it happen for students and educators. 150. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 397 159)

Higgins, G. (1994). Resilient adults: Overcoming a cruel past. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hurley, L. P., & Lustbader, L. L. (1997, September). Project support: engaging children and families in the educational process. Adolescence. 32. 523-529.

Katz, M. (1997). On playing a poor hand well: Insights from the lives of those who have overcome childhood risks and adversities. New York: W. W. Norton.

Kidder, T. (1989). Among school children. Franklin Center, PA: Franklin Library.

Kohn, A. (1993, September). Choices for children: Why and how to let students decide. Phi Delta Kappan. 75(1), 8-16. (EJ 470 490)

Kurth-Schai, R. (1988). The roles of youth in society: A reconceptualization. Educational Forum. 52(2), 131-132.

Levinson, B. (1969). Pet-oriented child psychotherapy. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

Lifton, R. J. (1993). The protean self: Human resilience in an age of transformation. New York: Basic Books.

Marshal, K. (1994). Student assistance for the 21st century. University of Minnesota Prevention: Midwest Regional Center for Drug-Free Schools and Communities.

Marshal, K. (1996). Promising new approach to Minnesota prevention: Resilience and health realization. University of Minnesota, College of Education and Human Development Center for applied Research and Educational Improvement. Safe and Drug Free Schools Project.

Masten, A. (1986). Humor and competence in school-aged children. Child Development, 57, 461-473.

Masten, A. (1994). Resilience in individual development: Successful adaptation despite risk and adversity. In Wang, M.& Gordon, E. (Eds.). Educational resilience in inner-city America. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

McLaughlin, M., & Talbert, J. (1993). Contexts that matter for teaching and learning. Stanford, CA: Stanford University.

Meier, D. (1995). The power of their ideas: Lessons for America from a small school in Harlem. Boston: Beacon Press. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 388 481)

Mills, R. (1990). Substance abuse, dropout and delinquency prevention: The Modello-Homestead Gardens Early Intervention Project. Report presented at the ninth annual conference of Psychology of Mind.

Mills, R. (1991). A new understanding of self: The role of affect, state of mind, self-understanding, and intrinsic motivation. Journal of Experimental Education, 60(1), 67-81.

Mills, R. C. (1993). Tapping innate resilience in today's classrooms (Article adapted from an upcoming book by Roger Mills and Jeff Timm, Mental Health in the Classroom, published by the American Psychological Association) Roger C. Mills, Ph.D., R.C. Mills and Associates, Long Beach, California.

Mills, R. C. (1993). The health realization model: A community empowerment primer. Alhambra, CA: Community Health Realization Institute.

National Network for Family Resiliency (1996). Parenting evaluation decision framework: Needs assessment. (Department of Human Development). Ames, IA: University of Iowa.

National Network for Family Resiliency Web Site: Department of Human Development (1999). Ames, IA: Iowa State University. Retrieved January 8, 1999, World Wide Web: http://www.nnfr.org/eval/pareval/pareval_eval.html   National Resilience Resource Center University of Minnesota-Maternal & Child (n.d.). Health Box 97 Mayo Building, 420 Delaware Street SE, Minneapolis, MN 55455

Noddings, N. (1988, December 7). Schools face crisis in caring. Education Week. 8, 32.

Patrikakou, E. N., Weissberg, R. P., Anderson, L., & Shanahan, T. (1998). The school-family partnership project: A survey report. Temple University Center for Research in Human Development and Education (CRHDE).

Peele, S. (1986, September). The "cure" for adolescent drug abuse: worse than the problem? Journal of Counseling and Development. 65, 23-24.

Peng, S. S., Wang, M. C., & Walberg, H. J. (1992, April). Resilient students in urban settings. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association annual meeting, San Francisco, CA.

Phillips, V. (1996). Personal development. Carmel Valley, CA.

Phillips, V. (1997, February). Personal development curriculum. Session presented at the annual meeting of the Minnesota Association of Alternative Programs Conference, Brainerd, MN.

Polakow, V. (1995). Naming and blaming: Beyond a pedagogy of the poor. In B. Swadener, & S. Lubeck (Eds.), Children and families "at promise:" Deconstructing the discourse of risk. Albany: State University of New York Press. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 398 311)

Purkey, W., & Stanley, P. (1995). Invitational calendar: 1995-96 School year. Greensboro, ND: International Alliance for Invitational Education.

Rocawich, L. (1994, April). Interview: Si Kahn. The Progressive. 29-34.

Rutter, M. (March, 1984). Resilient children. Psychology Today. 57-65.

Rutter, M. (1990). Psychosocial resilience and protective mechanisms. In J. Rolf, A. S. Masten, D. Cicchetti, K. H. Nuechterlein, & S. Weintraub (eds.), Risk and protective factors in the development of psychopathology. New York: Cambridge University Press, 181-214.

Rutter, M., Maughan, B., Mortimore, P., Ouston, J., & Smith, A. (1979). Fifteen thousand hours. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Sample, C. J. (1993). A study to assess and explore the youth risk behavior of Livingston County Public School students in grades 10-12. Abstract of doctoral dissertation, University of Rochester. (From Dissertation Abstracts International. 0680).

Sarason, S. (1990). The predictable failure of educational reform. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 354 587)

Schweinhart, L. et al. (1986). A report on the high/scope preschool curriculum comparison study: Consequences of three preschool curriculum models through age 15. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Educational Research Foundation.

Seligman, M. (1995). The optimistic child. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Shapiro, J. P., Friedman, D., Meyer, M., & Loftus, M. (1996, November). Invincible kids. U.S. News & World Report. 11, 62-71.

Vogel, J. (1994, July/August). Throw away the key. Utne Reader. 56-60.

Wang, M. C., Maertel, G. D., & Walberg, H J. (1998). Building educational resilience. Fastback 430. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 419 611)

Werner, E. (1984). Resilient children. Young Children. Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children, pp. 68-72.

Werner, E., & Smith, R. (1982, 1989). Vulnerable but invincible: A longitudinal study of resilient children and youth. New York: Adams, Bannister, and Cox.

Zimrin, H. (1986). A profile of survival. Child Abuse and Neglect. 10, 339-349.

APPENDICES

34

APPENDIX A

Suggested Sources for Further Information

SUGGESTED SOURCES FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

McParland, J. M., & Slavin, R. E. (1990) <u>Policy perspectives:</u>
<u>Increasing achievement of at-risk students at each grade level</u> (Prepared
under purchase order number 433J47900838). Washington, DC:
Information Services, Office of Educational Research and Improvement,
U.S. Department of Education.

This paper examines the status of currently proposed or implemented school programs
aimed at increasing achievement of at-risk students in the elementary, middle, and high
school grades. The authors review and assess solutions designed to change organizational,
instructional, and curricular practices and resources. Retention in grade, ability grouping
and tracking, and special education are examined due to their widespread usage. The
review examines how these structures put up barriers to improving the achievement of at-
risk students and then analyzes how effective programs at the elementary, middle and high
school levels remove these barriers or function within them to improve achievement and
prevent dropouts. Also included in this paper is a 55-reference bibliography and a listing of
the author's choices of effective programs for students at risk. This listing includes names
of programs and contact persons with addresses.

Mills, R. C. (1993). A Community Empowerment Primer. Los
Angeles, CA: California School of Professional Psychology.

Health Realization, evolving from Roger Mill's application of the principles of a new
wellness paradigm in psychology (Psychology of Mind) to the prevention, early
intervention, and community development arenas, offers perhaps the most compelling
explanation of the process of tapping innate resilience. In distinction from many pathology-
based paradigms, Health Realization identifies an innate capacity for understanding and
well-being within every individual. While life experiences may result in burying this
capacity, making it less available, Health Realization asserts it always exists and is directly

accessible. Accessing this healthy thought process has been shown to provide a solid immunity to deviance and health-damaging behaviors and has led to substantial and sustained improvements at the individual, family, and community levels. For example, some of the findings from pre- and post-evaluations of the 142 families and 604 youth involved in the three-year Dade County, Florida public housing project include significantly improved parent-child relationships in 87 percent of the families, a 75 percent reduction in delinquency and school-related problem behaviors, a 65 percent decrease in drug trafficking, an 80 percent decrease in teen pregnancy, a 60 percent decrease in substance abuse (Mills, The Health Realization Model: A Community Empowerment Primer, 1993). The goal of Health Realization is to "reconnect people to the health in themselves and then direct them in ways to bring forth the health in others. The result is a change in people and communities which builds up from within rather than being imposed from without" (Mills, 1993). - Bonnie Benard

Slavin, R. E., Karweit, N. L., & Madden, N. A. (1989). Effective programs for students at risk. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

This book is a very complete comprisal of a study of effective at-risk educational programs. Programs are discussed from an evaluative, research point of view. Chapter 1 explains the problem itself by defining "at-risk" and looking at several programs as a basis. Chapter 2 and 3 discuss effective programs in the elementary grades. Chapter 2 looks at effective in-classroom programs while chapter 3 examines effective pullout programs. Chapter 4 and 5 study effective programs in preschool and kindergarten classes, respectively. Chapters 6-10 are focused on effective programs in remedial and special education. First, chapter 6 speaks to instructional issues, approaches and problems. Chapter 7 discusses the quality of Chapter 1 instruction. Chapter 8 goes into design details such as instructions setting tat have an impact on compensatory education programs. Chapter 9 deals with instructional activities related to achievement gain in Chapter 1 classes. Chapter 10 is specifically geared

toward effective strategies for learning disabled students in the regular classroom. Finally, chapter 11 and 12 summarize the broader issues dealt with so specifically in the chapters above. Chapter 11 discusses coordination, collaboration and consistency of programs as well of recommendations of interventions. Chapter 12 draws conclusions as well of recommendations of interventions. Chapter 12 draws conclusions for practice and policy. A model of elementary school organization that incorporates much of what the authors talked of earlier about effective programs for students at-risk is given here and is called Success for All. The program was piloted at a school and is being introduced into others. Evaluation results of Success for All is shared and policy recommendations conclude this comprehensive book on effective programs for at-risk students.

Wehlage, G. G., Rutter, R. A., Smith, G. A., Lesko, N., & Fernandex, R. R. (1989). <u>Reducing the risk: Schools as communities of support</u>. London: Falmer Press.

This book uses a qualitative research framework to look at 14 schools involved in educating at-risk students. The purpose of the authors of this book is threefold. One goal is to provide descriptions of good programs in real schools carried out by practicing teachers with students identified as at-risk of dropping out of school. These examples are to stimulate thinking and encourage action. A second goal is to provide practitioners and researchers with a theoretical framework for understanding at-risk students and their schooling. This may be the base for program development, research and/or evaluation. And, a third goal is to influence local and state policy-makers in a position to make important decisions about the extent to which schools respond constructively to at-risk youth. chapter 1 presents vignettes about some students and the schools they attend. Chapter 2 offers a historical perspective on the dropout issue and begins to develop a theory intended to be useful to practitioners concerned with the education of at-risk youth. Chapter 3 and 4 present more data by describing the diversity of students and schools

studied. Chapter 5 presents data about the characteristics of school programs and further develops the theory about effective practices. It also defines school membership, a key concept in the theory by Wehlage et al. Chapter 6 analyzes the teachers and other key aspects of professional culture and school structure associated with school effectiveness. Chapter 7 offers qualitative and quantitative data describing the schools' impact on students. Chapter 8 returns to theory development by exploring the issue of engaging students in schoolwork. Chapter 9 concludes with a critique of the authors' findings about the effectiveness of the fourteen schools in educating at-risk youth. Chapter 10 summarizes findings and offers recommendations for policy-makers and practitioners. Appendix A describes the research methodology.

RESEARCH ABSTRACTS

Anthony, E. J.: found that different environments can buffer children differently and the risks children encounter are not uniform. He attempted to analyze the risk of individuals along seven dimensions: (a) genetic, (b) reproductive, (c) constitutional, (d) developmental, (e) physical health, (f) environmental, (g) traumatic. He found that resilient children have two different types of coping strategies and competence:

1. Constructive Competence--encompassed practical problem solving skills and ability to organize

2. Creative Competence--encompassed the ability to transcend the situation and methods at hand; to move from the practical to the abstract.

Cicchetti, Dante (1996). Child maltreatment: Implications for developmental theory and research. 39(1), 18-39. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EJ 523 483)

Feldman, Ronald, Arlene Rubin Stiffman, and Kenneth Jung: used a web study to examine 306 children who had at least one mentally ill parent. The web study examined life events in six areas: (a) moving to a new setting, (b) changes in the family composition through birth, death or divorce, (c) health problems, (d) failure in school, (e) delinquency, (f) other stressful, but unspecified, life events. He found that the absolute number of stressful life events was less important than the relative balance between those stressors and protective factors within the child's environment. Found coping skills, self-esteem, activity competence, and social competence negatively related to behavioral problems.

McIntyre, K., White, D., & Yoast, R. (1991). Resilience Among High Risk Youth. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin-Madison: Wisconsin Clearinghouse. This report reviews protective factor research throughout a four step process. First, the process begins with analysis and research on an overview of

the contributions derived from the mental health field. Next, the report will consider the status of protective factor research in the alcohol and other drug abuse field. A third section will explore issues related to protective factor--and hence, risk factor--research. Finally, this report will consider the implications for social policy and for prevention programming.

Murphy, Lois and Alice Moriarty: studied "children's efforts to cope with their own problems and to explore the relation of these efforts to aspects of temperament and resources for growth.

Comprehensive Coping Inventory:

1. Coping I--involved active problem solving, making use of opportunities and effectively responding to demands, challenges and barriers in the child's environment.

2. Coping II--encompassed the maintenance of internal balance and integration under stress.

Murphy suggested that factors promoting resilience could be divided into two categories:

1. biological, physical, and psychological aspects which enhance the child's ability to recover

2. those factors that enable the child to avoid threats or lessen their impact

Project Competence at the University of Minnesota: examined the competence of several different groups of children with identifiably different stressors including the following:

1. Children already showing signs of maladaptation.

2. Children at risk due to parental psychiatric disorder.

3. Normative heterogeneous children drawn from school populations.

4. Children with life-threatening, congenital heart defects.

5. Children with severe physical disabilities mainstreaming from a special school into a regular public school.

The value of his work lies more with laying the groundwork for examination of protective factors than in empirically identifying such factors themselves.

Rutter, Michael: sought to make information about risk and protection useful to researchers by detailing several epidemiological strategies for performing research on vulnerable children. He emphasized the importance of moving beyond the simple attribution of psychiatric disorders to multiple factors. He emphasized the importance of the "linking" of adverse environments in childhood and those later in life. This "linking" is important because protective factors "operate through their effects...on chain reactions over time;...[thus] the analysis of protective processes must examine each of the individual links in such longitudinal chains."

Werner, Emmy (Protective factors study in Kauai, Hawaii): found four sets of factors which aided resiliency during adolescence and childhood: (a) some level of commitment to conventional social norms and mores, (b) a child's sense of internal balance, (c) positive family relationships, and (d) interpersonal support including family emotional support.

Werner and Smith: presented a model for the interaction between risk, stress, and sources of support and coping.

Sroufe, L. Alan & Jacdobvitz, D. (1987). Diverging pathways, developmental transformatins, multiple etiologies and the problem of continuity in development. Paper presented at the Biennial Meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development. Baltimore, MD. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 282 664)

APPENDIX C

Abstract

ABSTRACT

This review of literature presents a synthesis of current information from educational journals, university research programs, institutes, foundations, experts, and practicing programs relevant to at-risk children. At-risk individuals are defined as those who are faced with an endless list of stressful contemporary issues and few protective factors. The paper summarizes and discusses the concept and protective factors of resiliency, notes suggested practices, provides analysis of several programs specifically addressing resiliency as a goal, examines both common pitfalls to avoid when planning programs and benefits affiliated with undertaking such a strategy, mentions evaluation formats, and recommends sources for further study. Findings imply that a web of abilities and support are necessary if at-risk students are to be viewed instead as at-promise. Web components include early intervention, a positive school climate, parent and community involvement, self-esteem support building, and peer involvement. Eighty references are cited and references are listed for further research.

ABSTRACT

This review of literature presents a synthesis of current information from educational journals, university research programs, institutes, magazines, papers, and practicing programs relevant to at-risk children. At-risk individuals are defined as those who are faced with an endless list of stressful contemporary issues and few protective factors. The paper summarizes and discusses the concept and protective factors of resiliency, notes suggested practices, provides snapshots of several programs specifically addressing resiliency as a goal, examines both common pitfalls to avoid when planning programs and benefits affiliated with undertaking such a strategy, mentions evaluation formats, and recommends sources for further study. Findings imply that a web of abilities and support are necessary if at-risk students are to be viewed instead as at-promise. Web components include early intervention, a positive school climate, parent and community involvement, self-esteem, support building, and peer involvement. Eighty references are cited and references listed for further research.