Contemporary Fears of Children and Adolescents: Coping and Resiliency in the 21st Century

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This study was prompted by the continual exposure of youth to disasters (e.g., 9/11, Iraq War, Hurricane Katrina, school violence) and the call for revisions in fear assessments to reflect contemporary fears. Fears of 1,033 students in Grades 2–12 were examined using the American Fear Survey Schedule for Children (J. J. Burnham, 2005). Results indicated that new fears have emerged in the 21st century, alerting counselors to consider preventative and intervention activities to address contemporary fears.

With more than a century of research, fears are well documented. Hall (1897) reported such fears as thunderstorms, darkness, death, animals, disease, and ghosts. Nearly 40 years later, Jersild and Holmes (1935b) classified fears as follows: (a) concrete events (e.g., animals, strange people), (b) losses (e.g., failure, health, death), and (c) imaginative fears (e.g., supernatural, darkness, being alone, movies, radio programs). When Hall's and Jersild and Holmes's (1935b) fear research were compared, technological advances (i.e., movies and radio) appeared to influence the content changes that were found. Nevertheless, distinct fear patterns were common (e.g., animals, darkness, death, supernatural) across these two studies and throughout the early 20th century.

Although technological advances prompted new fears in Jersild and Holmes's (1935b) research, the AIDS epidemic caused the fear of AIDS to soar among youth in the 1990s (Burnham, 1995; Gullone, 2000). Similarly, 9/11 instigated the fear of terrorist attacks in 2001 among children and adolescents in the United States (Burnham, 2007). Thus, with fear studies across 3 centuries (19th through the 21st) and data to show that fears can change based on present events, issues, and concerns (e.g., war, hurricanes, terrorist attacks, school shootings), it is imperative that researchers continue to study the fears of children and adolescents. With this in mind, the current study had three aims: (a) to examine contemporary fears of youth (i.e., most common fears) in Grades 2–12, (b) to determine whether a current fear assessment needs to be modified for the 21st century, and (c) to offer challenges for school counselors in the 21st century.

What Are the Contemporary Fears of the 21st Century?

There are no exhaustive lists of the contemporary fears of today's children, although researchers have attempted to examine contemporary fears through the years (Burnham, 1995, 2005; Muris, Merckelbach, & Collaris, 1997; Muris, Merckelbach, Meesters, & van Lier, 1997; Muris et al., 2002;

Owen, 1998; Shore & Rapport, 1998). Adler (1994) concluded that children fear crime, racial tension, poverty, divorce, pollution, overpopulation, world hunger, guns, shootings, gangs, dying, kidnapping, and being home alone. Owen added street drugs, gangs, gunshots, being burned, and drive-by shootings, whereas Gullone and King (1992) confirmed that AIDS was a contemporary fear.

Causes of Contemporary Fears

On the basis of the literature, the causes of contemporary fears of youth vary; however, many fears have emerged across time because of children's and adolescents' exposure to situations on a frequent basis. The common situations often include (a) global events (e.g., trauma, disasters, war, diseases), (b) television/media exposure, and (c) societal changes.

Global Events

Global events, crises, diseases, and disasters have prompted researchers to study contemporary fears of children and adolescents. For instance, Pratt (1945) looked at the effects of World War II on children. As world powers made nuclear war seemingly imminent in the 20th century, children's concerns about nuclear war were analyzed (Buban, McConnell, & Duncan, 1988; Slee & Cross, 1989; Wallinga, Boyd, Skeen, & Paguio, 1991). After the explosion of the Challenger space shuttle, Terr et al. (1999) studied posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms, whereas the AIDS epidemic brought attention to AIDS as a fear for children (Gullone, 2000). Similarly, the 9/11 terrorist attacks triggered an influx of studies addressing anxieties and concerns of youth (Pine & Cohen, 2002; Schlenger et al., 2002; Schuster et al., 2001; Squires, 2002; Stuber et al., 2002).

Television and Media Exposure

Media exposure, primarily television, has been another cause of fear among children for decades. In fact, prior to the popularity of television, Jersild and Holmes (1935a) reported fears of "characters met in stories, motion pictures, and radio programs" (p. 155). During the past 30 years, mass media has emerged

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more frequently as a factor in children's fears (Croake & Knox, 1973; Ferrari, 1986; Fremont, Pataki, & Beresin, 2005; King & Gullone, 1990; Larson, 2003; Moracco & Camilleri, 1983). From such studies, the understanding of how media affects children has become more apparent (i.e., developmental stage plays a role in how well children can interpret correctly what they view, younger children are more vulnerable and upset by what they view [Fremont et al., 2005]).

Societal Changes

Societal changes are a third cause of the contemporary fears of children. Adler (1994) illustrated the impact societal changes have on children. The categories offered by Adler included changes in family dynamics (e.g., increases in single-parent homes, number of working mothers, more juvenile offenders from single-parent homes) and outside influences (e.g., watching television violence, viewing real violence, increases in child abuse, increases in sexual activity at earlier ages, and violent crime). On the basis of the literature, other issues are also emerging at this time. A few examples include cyberbullying (Li, 2007), bullying and teasing (Weinhold, 2007), school violence (National Association of School Psychologists [NASP; n.d.-b]; Weinhold, 2007), drug abuse (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2005), marked growth of English as a second language populations (Clemente & Collison, 2000; McCall-Perez, 2000), and obesity among youth (Daniels et al., 2005). Researchers have surmised that as the social and political aspects of a particular time change, so do the fears of children (Burnham, 2005; Gullone & King, 1992). This conclusion shows the need to define and measure contemporary fears of youth in the 21st century.

Measuring Fears of Today's Youth

Global events, traumas, war, natural and human-made disasters, and diseases influence the emotional balance of youth (Burnham, 2007; Pfefferbaum et al., 1999; Pine & Cohen, 2002; Squires, 2002; Terr et al., 1999). Because the last few years in the United States have been more pernicious than ever (e.g., 9/11, Iraq War, plane crashes, obesity increases among youth, number of teenage pregnancies, major illnesses, death, drive-by shootings, bullying, shootings at school, violence near home and on television, snipers, kidnappings, anthrax scare, West Nile virus, Asian tsunami, Hurricane Katrina, avian influenza virus, mad cow disease), it is imperative to investigate children's fears. In response to the changing fears, researchers have also called for the continual examination of contemporary fears (Burnham, 2005; Gullone & King, 1993; Moracco & Camilleri, 1983; Owen, 1998). The need to persevere has been based on the findings that current fears of children are different from those of the past, and future fears are predicted to be even more distinctive (Gullone & King, 1992; Moracco & Camilleri, 1983; Shore & Rapport, 1998).

With 4 decades of use in the United States, Australia, and Great Britain (Burnham, 1995, 2005; Gullone & King, 1992,

1993; Ollendick, 1983; Scherer & Nakamura, 1968), the Fear Survey Schedule has been chosen as the choice assessment tool for examining children's fears (Gullone, 2000). Nonetheless, issues have been reiterated, such as the call to examine contemporary fears and to question whether available fear assessments truly measure present-day fears of children and adolescents (Burnham, 2005; Owen, 1998; Shore & Rapport, 1998). Logically with time, content modifications of fear surveys have been essential to keep assessment tools current. For example, Gullone and King (1992, 1993) added "AIDS" and later reported it as the most highly endorsed fear among Australian youth. Burnham (1995) added 20 contemporary fears to the American Fear Survey Schedule for Children (FSSC-AM) and reported that the overall mean scores of 19 of the 20 new contemporary fears were in the top one half of the 98-item fear survey. Six of the 20 that were added were in the top 20 most common fears (i.e., "car wreck," "terrorist attacks," "being raped," "drive-by shootings," "having to fight in a war," "shootings"), thus showing the importance of adding contemporary fears to assessments.

Because the FSSC-AM was modified in 1995, the current version may lack the contemporary fears of the 21st century. Thus, the opportunity to accurately measure contemporary fears, as discussed by several researchers (Burnham, 2005; Muris & Ollendick, 2002; Owen, 1998; Shore & Rapport, 1998), is presently limited unless current fears are determined and subsequently added to fear assessments. With this issue in mind, the current study examines two questions: (a) What are the top 20 most common fears for children and adolescents in the 21st century based on the FSSC-AM? and (b) In preliminary preparation to modify and update the FSSC-AM, what new contemporary fear content will emerge from children and adolescents in Grades 2–12?

Method

Participants

Data were collected in 23 schools (from November 2001 [i.e., after 9/11] to April 2004) in two southeastern states after institutional review board approval. The participant sample (N = 1,033) consisted of elementary students in Grades 2–6 (n = 466) and middle/secondary students in Grades 7–12 (n = 567). Participants' racial identity was as follows: 481 Caucasians, 241 African Americans, 239 Hispanics, 23 Asian Americans, 6 Native Americans, and 43 without a specified racial background. There were 544 girls, 457 boys, and 32 students who did not identify gender.

Of the 1,033 participants who answered the 98-item FSSC-AM, 422 (41%) responded to the optional question, "What else makes you or people your age afraid, scared, or fearful?" This subset of students represented the 23 schools visited to collect data. Of the sample, 168 were in Grades 2–6 and 254 were in Grades 7–12. The racial identity was approximately 55% Caucasian, 35% African American, 8% Hispanic, and 2% other. There were 243 girls, 174 boys, and 5 students who did not identify gender.

Instrument

This study used the American version of the Australian Fear Survey Schedule for Children–II (FSSC-II; Gullone & King, 1992, 1993)—the FSSC-AM. The first FSSC was introduced by Scherer and Nakamura (1968). Gullone and King (1992, 1993) offered a second revision of the fear survey (i.e., FSSC-II). Burnham (1995, 2005) modified the Australian FSSC-II, changed the wording of certain fear items to fit the American culture (e.g., "dingoes" to "dogs" and "bushfires" to "forest fires"), added 20 contemporary fears for use in the United States (e.g., "terrorist attacks," "getting pregnant," "being raped," and "drive-by shootings"), and renamed the survey the FSSC-AM.

The FSSC-AM is a 98-item ipsative self-report fear survey. Burnham (2007) reported a Cronbach's alpha estimate of .97. After principal component factor analysis, Burnham (2005) offered factor structures for the FSSC-AM: Factor 1 = Fear of Death and Danger, Factor 2 = Fear of the Unknown, Factor 3 = School/Social Stress Fears, Factor 4 = Animal Fears, and Factor 5 = Fear of Failure and Criticism. The FSSC-AM is administered in a classroom setting and takes approximately 15–30 minutes to administer, based on age level. Participants respond to the 98 fear items by marking one of the following for each item: *not scared, scared*, or *very scared*. The aforementioned optional question, "What else makes you or people your age afraid, scared, or fearful?" is given at the end of the survey. An open-ended question has been used in previous studies (cf. Burnham, 1995, 2005, 2007; Drevensky, 1979; Gullone & King, 1992, 1993; Shore & Rapport, 1998).

Procedure

Directions for the FSSC-AM are read aloud to all participants. Students in Grades 4–12 respond to the fear items independently, whereas the survey and optional question are read aloud to Grades 2–3. Three questions on the FSSC-AM are not given to children in Grades 2–6 because of the fear content (i.e., "being raped," "my getting pregnant or getting my girlfriend pregnant," and "cults, satanic worship, and voodoo"). Questions from participants are addressed immediately.

Analysis

To address the first research question, I calculated the fear items with the highest means (i.e., *very scared* response) for the total sample of participants in the study. This method has been used to determine the top most common fears with the Fear Survey Schedule (Burnham & Gullone, 1997; Gullone & King, 1992; Gullone, King, Tonge, Heyne, & Ollendick, 2000; Lane & Gullone, 1999; Muris, Merkelbach, Meesters, & van Lier, 1997; Muris et al., 2002). Data were extracted from the FSSC-AM and coded by demographic information (e.g., school, gender, age, grade, ethnicity, and fear responses).

To address the second research question, I analyzed the optional question, "What else makes you or people your age afraid, scared, or fearful?" A grounded theory approach to data analysis was used (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Grounded theory methodology assumes that the theory is concealed in the data for the researcher to discover. Three raters reviewed the responses to the optional question (two of whom were counselor educators and one was a doctoral candidate in counselor education) and generated basic codes. As coding occurred, certain categories were revealed by each rater. The codes were then analyzed for similarities among the raters to discern continuity within the basic codes. From this work, a final basic code list was developed. The final code list was then reviewed to determine the common categories presenting from the data.

After analyzing the categories, I combined several categories (e.g., *health* became *health/medical issues*, *relational issues* became *relational issues/social adjustment*). Categories without rater agreement were deleted (e.g., weapons, abandonment, violence). With input from the raters, nine major categories emerged. For further analysis, I listed all fear responses under each of the nine categories. Fear responses were deleted if they seemed staged or unlikely (e.g., three "bungee jumping" responses in a row, "getting frozen in an iceberg"), were unclear (e.g., "loud music"), or were similar to what was found on the FSSC-AM (e.g., "blood," "being alone," "strangers," "sharks," "car wrecks," "knives"). A tally of the number of responses per item was calculated. When 3 or more participants endorsed a new fear item, the item was added to the pilot version of the FSSC-AM.

Results

The top 20 most common fears were generated from the means scores of the 1,033 participants. After the top 20 most common fears were examined, it was clear that 8 of the 20 fear items were the same contemporary fears endorsed on the FSSC-AM in a previous study more than a decade ago (Burnham, 1995). The fears and the rank order for this study were as follows: "being raped" (1st), "terrorist attacks" (11th), "having to fight in a war" (13th), "drive-by shootings" (15th), "shootings" (17th), "tornadoes/hurricanes" (18th), "my getting pregnant or getting my girlfriend pregnant" (19th), and "drowning/swimming in deep water" (20th). Further analysis revealed that of the remaining 12 contemporary fear items endorsed as most common fears in this study, 11 ranked in the top one half (i.e., "going to jail" was 21st; "car wreck" was 25th; "carrying guns, knives, and weapons" was 28th; "cults/satanic worship/voodoo" was 34th; "violence near my home" was 35th; "crime" was 37th; "being poor" was 38th; "gangs" was 39th; "robberies" was 40th; and "my parents losing their jobs" was 41st).

Of the 1,033 participants, 422 offered answers to the optional question, which was further analyzed. The optional question was used to generate possible new contemporary fears to add to the pilot version of the revised FSSC-AM (i.e., preliminary step for modification). Nine categories resulted from the qualitative analysis using grounded theory. The categories were safety, animals/reptiles, spiritual/religious,

school, people, death, relational issues/social adjustment, sex-related issues, and health/medical issues. Of the 67 fear responses from the participants, 22 fears met the criteria level set for consideration as a new contemporary fear for a pilot study. The new safety category fears were "abuse," "scary movies and scary characters from movies (e.g., Freddy Krueger, Jason Voorhees, Chucky)," "snipers at school," "heights," and "driving." From the animals/reptiles category, the new fears were "insects (e.g., roaches, hornets, wasps)," "cats (domestic and wild, including cheetahs, lions, leopards)," "bats," "reptiles," and "bears." From the spiritual/religious category, "God/going to hell" was added. The school category included "failing school" and "teachers." The people category covered "clowns." "Death of a close person (e.g., grandparent, best friend, spouse)" came from the death category, and "breaking up with a boyfriend/girlfriend," "detention/juvenile system/jail," and "being embarrassed/humiliated/being talked about" were under the relational issues/social adjustment category. "STDs" and "sex" were under the sex-related category, whereas "smoking" and "broken bones" were from the health/medical issues category.

Discussion

From an examination of the top 20 most common fears, it is clear that issues of the day emerged as highly ranked fears in this study (e.g., terrorist attacks, having to fight in a war, tornadoes/hurricanes). The high rank order of the contemporary fear items on the FSSC-AM suggested that the fear content resonated with the youth. This finding was important because fear researchers have admitted concern about whether fear assessments measure contemporary fears of youth (Burnham, 2005; Muris & Ollendick, 2002; Owen, 1998; Shore & Rapport, 1998). This study also appeared to validate the reasoning that actual world fears often translate into fears among children and adolescents (Burnham, 2007; Gullone & King, 1992; Schuster et al., 2001; Squires, 2002; Terr et al., 1999). The most common fears also had similarities to those in past studies. With the exception of "my getting pregnant or getting my girlfriend pregnant," the items were strikingly similar to those of the death and danger fear factor (Factor 1) found in previous fear studies that examined the structure of fears of youth via principal component analysis (Burnham, 1995; Burnham & Gullone, 1997; Gullone & King, 1992; Ollendick, 1983; Shore & Rapport, 1998) and confirmatory factor analysis (Burnham & Giesen, 2005). Because this study is a preliminary step toward updating the FSSC-AM, the high endorsements of the 20 contemporary fear items Burnham (1995) added to the FSSC-AM more than a decade ago were also compelling. It appears that the contemporary fear additions are still relevant to the children and adolescents in this study and should be retained on the FSSC-AM revision.

In preparation to update the FSSC-AM, the optional question was used to generate possible new fears for the revision. This study revealed the need to modify the FSSC-AM to ensure that future fear surveys measure "direct experiences of children and

their daily lives" (Muris et al., 2002, p. 1325). Out of the 67 fears generated from the participants, 22 fears from nine categories (i.e., safety, animals/reptiles, spiritual/religious, school, people, death, relational issues/social adjustment, sex-related issues, and health/medical issues) will be included on a pilot version of the revised FSSC-AM. Even though 45 fears did not meet the criteria set for inclusion on the revised FSSC-AM, there were trends and evidence from this set of items that reflected how the current climate in the United States influences youth and are worth noting. For example, participants feared a wide range of issues related to societal anxiety (e.g., "anthrax," "explosives," "snipers at school," "world wars," "Bin Laden," "Saddam Hussein," "homeless people," "obesity"). The participants also had concerns about school-related and personal/social issues (e.g., "transitions at school and after graduation," "not graduating," "peer pressure," "racism," "prejudice/not being accepted," "my appearance," "trying out for sports").

School Counseling Implications

Sink (2005) asked, "What issues should stay on school counselor's radar screens?" (p. 393). Undoubtedly, the contemporary fears of youth should be on the radar. This study underscores the need to examine what the school counseling field has done and intends to do from a preventative and intervention perspective to help children and adolescents deal with fears, disasters, and adversities in today's perilous society. This study, similar to previous fear studies, shows that the fears of youth are undeniably challenging, real, disturbing, and drastically similar to what society faces as a whole. In addition, "new fears and pressures" are "robbing a generation of its childhood" (Adler, 1994, p. 43), and "real-life fears are occurring at younger ages than past research has shown" (Owen, 1998, p. 486). Such conclusions lead to the question, Are school counselors prepared to assist children in times of war, after terrorist attacks, after school-related shootings, and after devastating hurricanes and other natural and human-made disasters? In answer to the question, I contend that three tasks are necessary: (a) school counselors need more preparation and training to meet the concerns of 21st-century youth; (b) more resources are needed for school counselors to relate to fears, disasters, and adversities faced by youth in the 21st century; and (c) school counselors must teach skills to foster resilience among youth to ensure positive coping in the 21st century (Benard, 1995; Gallagher & Chase, 2002; Grotberg, 1994; Lewis, 2006; Morin & Linares, 2004).

Training: Are School Counselors Prepared to Assist in the 21st Century?

Skills and knowledge are needed to work with children and adolescents in the 21st century. The need for training is especially evident in postdisaster situations (e.g., school shootings, terrorist attacks, natural disasters) because students need to know that school counselors are accessible, helpful, and supportive during crises. The following study magnifies the urgency for competency. Auger, Seymour, and Roberts

(2004) reported in a post-9/11 study that school counselors were not actively sought by students, even though high levels of stress were found among the students. Auger et al.'s work also highlighted the varied actions taken by school counselors to assist students after 9/11 (e.g., some spent more time with students, some provided materials and information to teachers and parents, 12% took no action). Auger et al. also found that school counselor preparedness varied widely (e.g., from reading professional literature, course work, workshops, no training, inadequate training by 36%).

School counselors are positioned to offer assistance to distressed children at school. Training and preparation are urgently needed in regard to screening, referrals, and a broad range of issues (e.g., initial shock, fears, coping, resilience after loss), all of which are limited in the school counseling literature presently and are minimally addressed in the American School Counselor Association (ASCA; 2005) National Model. Stronger preparation is needed to help children during global crises (e.g., war, terrorism, shootings at school) and with everyday affairs and adversities (e.g., graphic television coverage of the ravages of the Iraq War, teasing, bullying, cyberbullying, school failure, and economic disparity).

In addition, counselor education programs must focus on the importance of school counselor disaster and crisis training (e.g., course work, practicums, and internship). In line with this view, the 2009 draft from the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (2008) has an "Emergency Preparedness Initiative" that should aid the needed focus. ASCA should mirror this initiative by encouraging practitioners to develop preventative measures to help youth and ensuring that future revisions of the ASCA (2005) National Model should include student acquisition of attitudes, knowledge, and skills necessary to face fears and develop coping and resiliency. Such objectives will lead to a more comprehensive focus, benefiting children, adolescents, and their immediate families.

School Counseling Resources: Are School Counselors Prepared to Assist in the 21st Century?

Violence, disasters, and catastrophic events occur each year. Studies in the past have shown that traumatic events stimulate anxiety and fear in children (Fremont et al., 2005; Pine & Cohen, 2002; Schlenger et al., 2002; Stuber et al., 2002). In response, school counselor educators have provided relevant information to help students cope in the climate of terrorism (Auger et al., 2004; Baggerly & Rank, 2005; Chibbaro & Jackson, 2006; Nicholson & Pearson, 2003). Yet, similar school counseling literature is needed for additional contemporary fears endorsed by students in this study (e.g., war, natural disasters, and school shootings).

Web resources are currently an important avenue of assistance for school counselors in the pursuit of helping children and adolescents cope with issues (e.g., NASP, n.d.-a; National Center for Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder, 2006; National Institute of Mental Health, 2001). For instance, NASP provides beneficial information for parents, teachers, and counselors in search of

ways to help youth cope after war, death, grief, and terrorism. Conversely, ASCA and the American Counseling Association need more extensive Web-based resources to offer assistance to school counselors, teachers, parents, and the general public. Increasing counseling resources through the associations' Web sites would greatly benefit school counselors and would also raise the visibility of school counseling across other disciplines (i.e., similar to that of NASP). To ensure that school counselors are ready for future concerns and crises, they need curriculum-based materials that address the fears and concerns of youth and teach coping skills. Additional general resources would enable school counselors to deliver classroom guidance routinely in collaboration with teachers and other school professionals.

Fostering Resilience and Coping: Are School Counselors Prepared to Assist in the 21st Century?

Resilience has been defined as "a set of qualities that foster successful adaptation and transformation despite risk and adversity" (Benard, 1995, ¶ 1). Adversities, such as trauma and disaster, often leave children feeling "lonely, fearful, and vulnerable" (Grotberg, 1994, p. 9). Nonetheless, Grotberg (1994) illustrated that "feelings are less overwhelming for children who have the skills, attitudes, beliefs, and resources of resilience" (p. 9), thus underlining the importance of fostering resilience in 21st-century schools. As the resilience literature has become increasingly popular in education (Lambie, Leone, & Martin, 2007), positive alternatives to view at-risk students have been clarified (Benard, 1995; Lambie et al., 2007; Lewis, 2006). For example, Lewis (2006) described the progressive shift in practice from a "deficit-focused model" to a "view that sees youth as a promise rather than at risk" (p. 35), whereas Lambie et al. (2007) discussed the challenge "to increase the number of children who fall in the resilient category" (p. 105). Resiliency researchers (Benard, 1995; Grotberg, 1994; Lambie et al., 2007; Lewis, 2006) have also emphasized the need for multifaceted, long-term interventions and the involvement of change agents across systems (i.e., home, school, community).

This resiliency approach fits with the results found in this study. To help cultivate resilience across the home, school, and community systems, school counselors should become familiar with resiliency characteristics (e.g., persistence, motivation, goal-oriented qualities, adaptability, optimism, self-esteem, and appropriate social skills [Morin & Linares, 2004]) and be willing to assist students with the "protective processes" (Benard, 1995, ¶ 4) involved with resilience. Benard's protective processes included (a) caring relationships in the family (e.g., a minimum of one person who unconditionally cares and supports the child/adolescent), (b) high expectations at school (e.g., offers tools for success, school officials believe in the child/adolescent, offers a curriculum that underlines resilience), and (c) participation in the community at school (e.g., respect, caring, helping peers, mentoring).

The basic philosophy found in resilience literature is analogous with the tenets of the ASCA (2005) National Model, thus soundly supporting the applicability of resiliency-based efforts in

the school counseling field. Additionally, Lewis's (2006) explanations from the resilience literature (i.e., "proactive approach for enhancing human development" [p. 58] and encourages helpers to "create supportive systems and work as partners in collaborating with people" [p. 44]) emulate the ASCA National Model language. Most important, ASCA's goal of reaching all students has also been illustrated in the resilience-based literature (Benard, 1995; Grotberg, 1994; Lewis, 2006).

The urgent need to foster resilience among youth has been highlighted in recent years. With such adversities as 9/11, Hurricane Katrina, the Amish school shootings, and the recent college shootings at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University and Northern Illinois University, the society in which youth live is often frightening, full of uncertainties, and ever changing. Thus, in preparing students for the future, school counselors should consider the usefulness of teaching and reinforcing resiliency skills to foster coping in the 21st century. This is especially profound because resiliency skills have been found to help disaster survivors cope in the aftermath of crises (Gallagher & Chase, 2002). Without a doubt, resiliency skills are tools to help children and adolescents successfully navigate through the present world and into the future. By endorsing resiliency skills, school counselors can proactively support youth with day-to-day matters and during crises in the 21st century.

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