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INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

MASTER'S PROGRAM IN GUIDANCE AND PSYCHOLOGICAL COUNSELING

PREDICTIVE ROLES OF

LONELINESS AND AUTOMATIC THOUGHTS

ON RESILIENCE OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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Abstract

This study was conducted to investigate the predictive roles of loneliness and automatic thoughts on the resilience of university students with regards to the age variable, which is a demographic feature. This research is a predictive correlational study using the screening model for finding causes of events or phenomena. The sample of the study was composed of 516 undergraduate students (405 female, 111 male) in Yeditepe University. The research group included students from Science and Social Sciences areas. In the study; UCLA Loneliness Scale (Russel, Peplau and Ferguson, 1978; Demir, 1989), Psychological Hardiness Scale (PHS) (Terzi. 2013), Automatic Thoughts Questionnaire (ATQ) (Hollon and Kendall, 1980; Şahin and Şahin, 1992) and the Demographic Information Form prepared by the researcher were used. Independent samples t-test and one way analysis of variance were used to assess the differences among university students' loneliness, automatic thoughts and resilience levels in term of demographic variable: age. In the main analyses of the study, firstly Pearson correlation analysis was used to examine the correlations among the study variables. Then, the multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine the predictive roles of loneliness and automatic thoughts on resilience. According to the results of the correlational analysis; it has been identified that university students' loneliness, automatic thoughts and psychological resilience level do not differ according to age; and that there is a moderate negative correlation between loneliness and automatic thought levels; a low negative correlation between loneliness, and automatic thought levels and challenge, a sub-dimension of psychological resilience; a low negative correlation between loneliness, and automatic thought levels and control sub-dimension; and a moderate negative correlation between loneliness, and automatic thought levels and commitment sub-dimension. It was also found that loneliness and

automatic thoughts negatively predict control sub-dimension at a low level, and commitment sub-dimension at a moderate level.

Keywords: loneliness, automatic thoughts, resilience, university students

Özet

Bu çalışma üniversite öğrencilerinin yalnızlık ve otomatik düşüncelerinin psikolojik dayanıklılıkları üzerindeki yordayıcı araştırmak amacıyla yapılmıştır. . Bu araştırma olayların ya da olguların nedenlerini bulmaya yönelik yordayıcı korelasyonel araştırma modeli tarama modelinde bir çalışmadır. Araştırmanın örneklemi Yeditepe Üniversitesinde öğrenim gören 516 lisans öğrencisinden (405 kız, 111 erkek) oluşmaktadır. Araştırma grubu Sosyal ve Fen Bilimleri alanlarında öğrenim gören öğrencilerden oluşmaktadır. Araştırma verileri UCLA Yalnızlık Ölçeği (Russel, Peplau and Ferguson, 1978; Demir, 1989), Psikolojik Dayanıklılık Ölçeği (PDÖ) (Terzi, 2013), Otomatik Düşünceler Ölçeği (ODÖ) (Hollon and Kendall, 1980; Şahin and Şahin, 1992) ve araştırmacı tarafından hazırlanan Demografik Bilgi Formu aracılığı ile toplanmıştır. Üniversite öğrencilerinin yalnızlık, otomatik düşünceler ve psikolojik dayanıklılık seviyelerinin yaş değişkeni açısından anlamlı farklılık gösterip göstermediğinin belirlenmesinde tek faktörlü varyans analizi (ANOVA) kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca, araştırma değişkenleri arasındaki korelasyonların belirlenmesi için Pearson korelasyon analizi; yalnızlık ve otomatik düşüncelerin psikolojik dayanıklılık üzerindeki yordayıcı rolünün belirlenmesi için de regresyon analizi gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırma bulgularına göre, üniversite öğrencilerinin yalnızlık, otomatik düşünce ve psikolojik dayanıklılıklarının yaş değişkenine göre anlamlı farklılık göstermediği; yalnızlık ve otomatik düşünce orta düzeyde negative anlamlı ilişki olduğu; yalnızlığın ve otomatik düşüncelerin psikolojik dayanıklılığın meydan okuma alt boyutuyla düşük seviyede negative anlamlı ilişki olduğu; yalnızlık ve otomatik düşüncenin psikolojik dayanıklılığın control alt boyutuyla düşük seviyede negative anlamlı ilişki olduğu; yalnızlık ve otomatik düşüncenin psikolojik dayanıklılığın kendini adama alt boyutuyla arasında orta derecede negative anlamlı

ilişki olduğu bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, yalnızlık ve otomatik düşüncenin control alt boyutunu düşük negative anlamlı şekilde yordadığı, kendini adama boyutunu ise orta derecede negative anlamlı şekilde yordadığı bulunmuştur.

Anahtar kelimeler: Yalnızlık, Otomatik Düşünceler, Psikolojik Dayanıklılık, Üniversite Öğrencileri

To my precious DAD…

ACKNOWLEDGE

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1. Introduction

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Each new beginning brings about new growth and new challenges. When coping with these, the individual may feel alone and may find it difficult to keep up with the situation. One of these is the university period. In this period, a new division of road that starts with separation from the family can force the resilience of the individuals. To be an individual from the comfort area that he has lived before can push people to loneliness and negative thoughts. This study was designed to investigate the degree of psychological resilience of university students' automatic thinking and loneliness levels.

A person, who is a whole with oneself and one's surroundings, is sometimes confronted with certain troubles that one's integrity and harmony are disrupted in the existing order. Especially as the world changes with globalization, people have begun to talk more about the psychological problems that directly affect them (Voltan- Acar, 2008). As teenagers begin their university education, they undertake a number of new responsibilities in their personal, social and educational life. For many students, getting into college means encountering various novel experiences since many students are confronted with several psycho-social problems such as living in an environment that is different from the place where they were born or completed their primary and secondary education, and away from their families and circle of friends (Sürücü & Bacanlı, 2010). Resilience emerges as an important factor in coping with these problems.

Resillience is considered as one of the important issues of positive psychology.

It has also been seen that the term resilience is named differently, as the definitions vary widely. According to two different studies, the word "resilience" in English corresponds with "hardiness" and "construct of resilience" in Turkish (Öğülmüş, 2001; Gizir, 2004; as cited in Tümlü, 2012). In fact, the related concept is also referred to as "the power of self-recovery" in the fields of psychiatry, psychology and education. The common ground of all definitions is that they suggest that individuals can recover from adverse living conditions, and that they will increase their strength by overcoming these constraints (Fraser, Richman & Galinsky, 1999; as cited in Terzi, 2008). Resillience, defined as surviving numerous challenges due to the life skills one possesses, leads individuals to have healthier, goal-focused and meaningful lives (Terzi, 2008).

Resilient people prefer living by questioning the life itself. When resillience is examined, the question that needs to be asked is: "Why do some people fall into despair quickly in situations like loss of a loved one, natural disasters, disease or war while others cope with such matters in a healthier way?". Looking at the developmental process, this question should be as follows: "How do some children and adolescents who are able to handle unfavorable issues grow into adults who are more confident and self-reliant, and who can wholesomely pull through their problems?" (Eminağaoğlu, 2006).

People are obliged to carry their duties and responsibilities at the same time as they deal with adverse situations. On the other hand, the somatic and psychological changes specific to the period that people are experiencing may lead to problems in their close relationships. The development of technology leads to obstacles in interpersonal communication. Seeing people as a threat and a high level of anxiety can drag one into loneliness and alienation (Yalom, 1999; as cited in Yılmaz & Altınok,

2009). In every society, it can be seen that each individual can experience loneliness from time to time regardless of age, sex and status. According to the type and level of loneliness, the effects on the individual can change. Specially, the sense of self and collective alienation is increasing, and the levels of social interest are decreasing (Bıyık, 2004).

Loneliness is a phenomenon that can vary depending on the individual's communication patterns. According to Sullivan (1953), loneliness is a mostly unwelcome and unpleasant experience that arises when the individual's need for closeness in the interpersonal relationship cannot be resolved or is inadequate. Peplau and Perlman (1982) define loneliness as an unpleasant sense that occurs when there is a significant qualitative or quantitative insufficiency of an individual's social relations. According to De Jong-Gierveld (1998), loneliness is a condition that is especially felt when one feels personally inadequate in establishing relationships that the individual wishes, and is felt when there is a difference between the desired interpersonal relationships and those the person has.

Duy (2003) states that university students widely experience a sense of loneliness. University students who are separate from their accustomed settings and their families are faced with problems in feeling themselves as a part of a group, getting a job in the future and adapting to novel environments. Due to these problems, the students are alienated from the settings they are in.

Another important factor affecting the level of resilience of individuals is the frequent use of depressive automatic thoughts in their lives. These thoughts are negative expressions underlying the belief systems of individuals (Nock & Kazdin, 2002). Beck (1976), one of the most prominent representatives of the cognitive

approach, views negative automatic thoughts as a normal characteristic of our cognitive processes. According to him, depressive automatic thoughts are imaginations and evaluations that occur mostly in our conscious thinking processes. Although automatic thoughts appear to be self-evident, they become clearly predictable by defining the patient's subconscious beliefs. Persons are far more aware of their emotions emerging as a result of those thoughts than the thoughts themselves (Beck, 2014).

Irrational beliefs that form the basis of depressive automatic thoughts can cause people to perceive and reflect their own feelings in an inaccurate way while negatively affecting their communication with the environment. This situation may detract the person from being a social individual (Ağır, 2007; Duy, 2003; Kılınç & Sevim, 2005). Jones, Freeman and Goswick (1981) examined interpersonal loneliness and the relationship between interpersonal perceptions at specific environments. The results of research conducted with university students suggested a relationship between loneliness and negative self-perception of the individual. According to this, lonely individuals perceive not only themselves in a negative way but also the people who criticize them. Additionally, it was also found in that study that lonely individuals are regarded as less positive by the others.

Hoglund and Collison (1989) investigated the relationship between university students' loneliness and irrational beliefs. They asserted that the role of cognition in the lives of individuals is significant. They have detected positive meaningful correlations between loneliness and five sub-dimensions of the Irrational Beliefs Test, which are high self-expectations, frustration reactive, anxious overconcern, problem avoidance, and helplessness. Hoglund and Collison studied whether there is a relationship between individual's loneliness and their irrational beliefs, and have found

that those who feel alone have generalized their past failures to their present and future lives, that their failures are constant, and that they see themselves as the reason of all the consequences.

Although there are numerous studies on loneliness and automatic thoughts in and out of the country according to the information found by the literature study, there is no direct study about the effect of loneliness and automatic thoughts on resilience levels. It is thought that this study will be a prominent scientific contribution to the field.

The problem statement of the study can be summarized as follows: "Is there a predictive effect of university students' loneliness and automatic thought levels on their resilience levels?".

The problem being addressed in this study is "To what extent do loneliness and automatic thought levels of university students explain their resilience levels?".

1.2. Purpose and Importance of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the predictive roles of loneliness and automatic thoughts on the resilience of university students. Additionally, crosschecking the relevant variables with socio-demographic variable of age is the other purpose of the study.

Sub-objectives established for the purposes of this research are:

1. Is there a meaningful relationship between loneliness and automatic thought levels of university students?

2. Is there a meaningful relationship between loneliness and resilience levels of university students?

3. Is there a meaningful relationship between the automatic thoughts and resiliencies of university students?

4. Do university students' loneliness and automatic thoughts predict their resiliencies in a meaningful way?

5. Is there a meaningful difference in the loneliness levels of university students in terms of age variable?

6. Is there a meaningful difference between the automatic thought levels of university students in terms of age variable?

7. Is there a meaningful difference in the level of resiliencies of university students in terms of age variable?

1.3. Assumptions

1. The scales used in the study (Automatic Thoughts Questionnaire, Psychological Hardiness Scale, UCLA Loneliness Scale) are valid and reliable.

2. The sample represents the population.

3. The statistics used in the study are in line with the variables in the study and the analyzes to be carried out.

1.4. Limitations

1. This research is limited to undergraduate students studying at Yeditepe University.

2. This research is limited to the qualities measured by "UCLA Loneliness Scale", "Automatic Thoughts Questionnaire" and " Psychological Hardiness Scale ".

2. Literature Review

In this section, the theoretical framework of the research is explained while information on loneliness, resilience and automatic thoughts was provided.

2.1. Loneliness

2.1.1. Loneliness concept and definitions. Being an individual brings about many things; one of them is loneliness. Loneliness is a process that occurs at every stage of life. Loneliness can emerge as a fear of not having someone to communicate within the present and future social environments of the individual. In addition, as a result of the increase in communication technologies today, a parallel progress in qualitative and quantitative dimensions of loneliness can be observed. The new urban lifestyle that modernization reveals can be shown as a reason for this. In such a lifestyle, it is very difficult to fulfill the most basic needs of humans, such as love, being accepted, belonging, sharing, cooperation, trust, attachment and being understood (Koçak, 2003).

Jones and Hebb (2003) mention essential points when defining loneliness; loneliness is an undesirable experience and a subjective process that relies on individuals' expectations and perceptions about the lack of social relations. As a result, individuals develop the ability to cope with loneliness. According to Young (1982), "loneliness is the lack of satisfactory interpersonal relationships or perceived deprivation of it, which is accompanied by symptoms of psychological distress". Rogers (1994) states that loneliness is a condition which occurs when the individual feels that there is no real connection with the others (as cited in Koçak, 2008).

According to Weiss (1987), there are two basic needs in interpersonal

relationships: attachment and belonging. The need for attachment is considered as the necessity to share one's life with someone who is closely related; whereas the need to belong is considered as feeling as a part of a group or a community, and being able to share interests, values and norms. Loneliness occurs when the two needs of relationships are not met (as cited in Prezza & Pacilli, 2007).

Ünlü (2015) defines loneliness as a sense that is felt by cognitively, emotionally and behaviorally synthesizing the desire of being in a close relationship with others. In this process, the individual interprets the past and present relationships with cognitive processes, and develops negative emotions because of these interpretations, and forms a behavioral pattern of loneliness.

While the notions of loneliness and being alone are used interchangeably, these two concepts actually have different meanings. Although loneliness is an undesired painful situation, being alone can be preferred by some people. To exemplify, some creative individuals can only work when they are alone (Geçtan, 2005).

Students with a high level of loneliness in the field of education are likely to be socially restricted and therefore have poor communication skills (Yüksel, 2002; as cited in Öz, 2004). Social networks of lonely students are smaller. They receive lower support from family and friends. Loneliness leads to greater internal psychological symptoms and negative experiences with reduced perceived social support (Arkar, 2004; Seginer, 2004; as cited in Öztürk, 2006).

When we look at the common point of definitions of loneliness in the literature, it is expressed that this state is related to the quality and quantity of social relations (Kaya, 2005). The number of persons that the individual has a relationship with and the frequency of communication constitute the quantity of the social relation;

while the satisfaction that the person gets from this relationship constitutes the quality of social relation. This reveals that the experience of loneliness depends on the perceived satisfaction of the person, that is, the perception and interpretation of the individual.

Another common point in loneliness definitions is that loneliness is an undesirable, disturbing and painful emotion. Booth (2000) states that individuals who experience serious loneliness feel unhappy, miserable, aimless, and in a void. Fromm (1965) compared loneliness to colds and described loneliness as a horrible feeling that is easy to catch, difficult to treat, and seldom fatal, but always unpleasant and sometimes beyond tolerance (as cited in Woodward & Frank, 1988).

Another common point in the related definitions is that the experience of loneliness is caused by the inadequacy of one's social relations. The individual feels a difference between the relationships one has and the relations one wants, and the person feels alone because one cannot find the warmth and closeness as expected.

The concept of loneliness is considered by some researchers to be one dimensional and some researchers to be multidimensional. People's feelings of inadequacy in relationships and their presence in unsatisfactory social lives affect their daily lives. Such a situation causes people to separate themselves from society and feel trapped in the feeling of loneliness (Buluş, 1997; as cited in Çağrı, 2010). Weiss (1973) stated that people need to establish different kinds of relationships with others to be healthy and not meeting this need will lead to feelings of loneliness. On that note, he evaluated loneliness in two dimensions; social and emotional. Social loneliness is caused by the absence of a desirable social network like a neighbor, cousin, friend, sibling relationship. With the restoration of the relevant social ties, this

kind of loneliness comes to an end. Social loneliness can occur when people change their social environment such as changing cities or moving. Social loneliness has been associated with behavioral problems such as boredom, depression, aimlessness, meaninglessness, self-talk and alcoholism. Emotional loneliness, on the other hand, is formed by the absence or loss of close and intimate relations such as courtship and friendship. It is the intense emptiness, abandonment, despair and feelings of loneliness that arise in situations such as the separation or loss of a partner. In the event of emotional loneliness, the individual may experience ultimate solitude, anxiety, extreme sensitivity, abandonment, constant alertness to danger and irrational fears.

Hymel, Tarulli, Hayden Thomson, and Terrell-Deutsch (1999) have described three dimensions of loneliness: emotional, cognitive, and interpersonal (as cited in Galanaki, 2004). The *emotional dimension* of loneliness is a painful mood dimension associated with boredom and sadness. The *cognitive dimension* is a perceived consequence of the lack of quality and quantity in interpersonal relationships. This dimension is related to unmet interpersonal needs such as cooperating, belonging to a group, emotional support, attention, and self-worth. Whereas the *interpersonal dimension* is associated with physical separation (loss, temporary absence, displacement) and psychological distance (stubbornness, rejection, infidelity, being undervalued).

Peplau and Perlman (1984) addressed and categorized loneliness in terms of positive and negative aspects, root and process. *Positivity-Negativity dimension;* The experience of loneliness can lead to positive and negative situations. Moustakas (1961) distinguished between existential loneliness and loneliness anxiety. Existential loneliness is an inevitable experience that is inherent in human beings, allowing one to confront one's self, and providing for personal development. However, the feeling of

loneliness is a negative experience. It may be beneficial for the person to be alone, but it can be said that those who have a sense of loneliness rarely have positive feelings and thoughts (as cited in Peplau & Perlman, 1984). *Social versus Emotional Loneliness dimension*; Peplau and Perlman (1984) addressed the classification of Weiss (1973) with social and emotional loneliness and emphasized that emotional loneliness afflicts the individual more. *Chronic Loneliness (Chronicity) dimension;* It is the kind that occurs when the loneliness of the person lasts for two years or more and affects the person in the negative direction (Young, 1984; as cited it Peplau & Perlman, 1984). Gerson and Perlman (1979) noted that people who are temporarily feeling lonely are better at communicating feelings than those who have chronic loneliness.

Loneliness experiences can vary according to person, occasion, and social structure. Özodaşık (2005) classified loneliness into 6 categories in this context. Out of these, *physical loneliness*; It is the way a person lives alone. Physical loneliness can occur when there are physically no stimulants or stimulus around, when a person is alone and separated from others, or when loses a loved one. *Alienation (Society Excluders)* is the type of loneliness that is the result of the alienation of one's society. *Reproach (Society Outsiders)*; Rejecting the rules of society and alienation to it will result in society excluding the person in return. The loneliness experienced through reproach occurs when the people who are separated from society are excluded from it because of these differences and are pushed into loneliness. *Assimilation* is driving a community or individuals into a different lifestyle by oppressing them in an incompatible cultural environment. *Loneliness by Preference* is a type of loneliness which occurs when people prefer to keep their relationship with the environment to a minimum. *True Loneliness* is the psychological loneliness in which the individual

feels uncomprehended and orphaned even in the face of all sorts of social and physical stimuli.

Loneliness is considered as a process by Young (1982). These are; temporary loneliness, situational loneliness and chronic loneliness (as cited in Özatça, 2009). *Temporary loneliness;* This type of loneliness lasts for a few hours or a few minutes and its symptoms are not severe. It can be experienced from time to time by most people. *Situational loneliness*; A type of loneliness which occurs when a person is no longer satisfied in a relationship which once has been satisfactory due to changes in the individual's relationships or the loss of an important person in the social network. The other is *chronic loneliness*; It reflects the dissatisfaction experienced in relationships for at least two years or longer. Chronic loneliness affects physical and mental health negatively.

De Jong-Gierveld and Raadschhelders (1982) proposed three types of loneliness as a result of their research (as cited in Duy, 2003). One of these typologies is *Hopeless Loneliness;* It is a type of loneliness that occurs when one experiences very little satisfaction in one's relations. *Periodic or Temporary Loneliness*: In this type, even though there is a lack of a close relationship, there are a certain number of close relationships. Yet another type is the *Withdrawn, Hopeless Loneliness*; In this type of loneliness, even though individuals have very few friendships and close relationships, and even though they experience a serious sense of deprivation, they may not express their dissatisfaction as much as the first and second type of individuals.

Yalom (2001, p. 556) mentions existential isolation in his book "Existential Psychotherapy" and clarifies the concepts of isolation and loneliness. According to

Yalom, isolation is divided into three types; the first is *interpersonal isolation*; It is experienced as loneliness and means to stay away from people. This situation is caused by lack of social skills, geographic isolation, personality style (narcissistic, judicial, schizoid, etc.), cultural factors. *Self-isolation;* It occurs as the consequence of suppressing an experience, feelings or desires, and the person ignores one's own thoughts and potential by accepting "shoulds as one's own wishes. The other and the last one is *existential isolation;* Existential isolation is concerned with the separation between a person and the world. The individual is responsible for one's own existence in the universe and is the only person who can direct oneself. A person is also the only being with awareness and therefore is aware that one is mortal and that one day, life will end. This consciousness causes a feeling of emptiness in the person, isolation from the people, and loneliness. As it can be seen, the concept of loneliness is divided into dimensions according to the things that people acquire from their relationships, its positive and negative aspects, and process.

In understanding loneliness, it is important to know the causes of loneliness as well as dimensions of it, and it is especially helpful when individuals who suffer from loneliness differentiate the cause(s) of their situation. Perlman and Peplau (1984) sum up the basic elements of the formation of a sense of loneliness in four categories: *unpleasant experience, such as exclusion from a group;* When loneliness is thought to be related to disruptions and deprivations experienced in emotional and social relationships, individuals who meet different social and emotional needs can be expected to feel less lonely than individuals who do not meet these needs adequately (Duru, 2008). *Negative cognitive experience, such as thinking that the person is unloved*; According to Saks and Kruput (1988), people who experience loneliness attribute their situation to permanent personality traits such as I am alone because ı am

antipathetic, ugly, incompetent. Witkus and Horowitz (1987), however, argue that this situation experienced by lonely persons, is the result of adopting adverse burdens and passive roles related to their situation rather than lack of skills (as cited in Koçak, 2003). *The lack of skill in establishing and maintaining a relationship*; Karakurt (2012) has linked the reasons for loneliness to the inadequacies in relationships we have, the changes we want to have in our relationships, and personal characteristics. *Not making friends with whom one can share things;* Individuals who move away from home (for education) may experience anxiety about meeting new people; they may be hesitant to rebuild friendships that they had in high school. They may have difficulty developing new social skills and prefer loneliness (Çelen, 2011).

Michela, Peplau, and Weeks (1982) listed 13 perceived causes of loneliness that they found as a result of their studies as follows (as cited in Körler, 2011):

1. Pessimism: Thinking that a person finds someone to have a relationship with by chance, and that one does not have that chance.

2. Fear of Rejection: Fear of being rejected when a person tries to establish a relationship.

3. Lack of Trying: Not making enough effort in meeting someone.

4. Unluckiness: Feeling that one does not have the luck to meet someone.

5. Lack of Knowledge: Lacking the skill to establish a relationship.

6. Shyness: Experiencing a high level of shyness.

7. Physical Unattractiveness: One is not physically attractive enough.

8. Other's Groups/Relationships: Other people belong to a group and are not interested in people who experience loneliness.

9. Other's Fears: Other people are afraid of forging relationships with lonely people and do not engage in such behaviors.

10. Impersonal Situations: Having many impersonal relationships.

11. Lack of Opportunities: Not having the opportunity to establish relationships with others.

12. Other's Lack of Trying: Other people are reluctant in establishing relationships.

13. Unpleasant Personality: Having an unpleasant, unappealing and antipathetic personality. (Michela, Peplau and Weeks, 1982; as cited in Körler, 2011).

The above-mentioned reasons for loneliness show that both internal and external factors are influential in the formation of loneliness. Particularly, the additional reinforcement that the individual's cognitive structures on loneliness gets from the environmental conditions plays a role in their acceptance that loneliness is unchangeable and impossible to overcome. When considering the definitions of loneliness, related dimensions and causes, examining the theoretical perspectives of this concept constitutes a prominent subject.

2.1.2. Theoretical approaches explaining loneliness. In this section, psychodynamic, existential, interactionist, cognitive, cognitive-behavioral theories which give various explanations about loneliness in the related literature are introduced.

Psychodynamic approach. According to Duy (2003), although there is no direct explanation of loneliness in the works of Freud, one of the prominent names of the psychodynamic approach, it is indicated that Freud's children's one of the two

basic fears is loneliness, and that fear occurs in the absence of caretakers (often mothers) (as cited in Mijuskovic, 1980). Emphasizing the importance of psychosexual development in constructing the personality, Freud emphasizes that the individual's relationships in infancy and childhood will have absolute reflections in the later years of one's life.

Psychodynamic explanations for loneliness are mostly based on the theorists who have adopted Freud's psychotherapy approach and have seen it as the basis. Zilboorg is at the head of these followers. Zilboorg also performed the first known psychological analysis of loneliness. According to Zilboorg (1938), loneliness reflects the essential characteristics of narcissism, megalomania and hostility. Lonely individuals protect their personal childish feelings and want to be praised by others. They also rarely act openly to others or to themselves. (as cited in Perlman & Peplau, 1982).

According to Sullivan (1953), loneliness is a mostly unwelcome, unpleasant experience that arises at times when the individual's need for intimacy in interpersonal relationships is nonexistent or inadequate.

Erikson (1968) notes that the most important threat of early adulthood is not being able to establish close and profound relationships. An individual who develops the skills needed to establish close relationships can connect to another adult and establish a mutually satisfying relationship. Failure to find this deep relationship can create feelings of loneliness, distance and difference. In other words, if young adults in this period can not make deep personal connections with others, they will become isolated and focus on themselves. It is thought that the concept of isolation expressed in this developmental period is parallel to the concept of "loneliness".

According to Fromm-Reichmann, another representative of the psychodynamic approach, people can do everything possible to avoid or get rid of loneliness, which is extremely disturbing and frightening in every dimension. According to Fromm-Reichman, early childhood, post-childhood and pre-maturity period are important in the emergence of loneliness. According to him, the potentially lonely individual has the potential to lose the ability to distinguish between one's individual life and environmental life, which is also called one's general world (Karaduman, 2013).

Existentialist theories. Loneliness is experienced by the individual as an inevitable part of existence. The notion of existential loneliness that has emerged at this point has been addressed in various ways by existentialist theorists. Yalom describes loneliness as "the distinction between the individual and one's world" (2013, p. 533). According to Yalom, individuals are affected by four existential conflicts in life events. These conflicts are the concepts of "loneliness", "death", "meaninglessness" and "freedom". However, he thinks that the basic existentialist conflict is the death concept, and that feelings such as loneliness, meaninglessness and freedom are a result of the presence of an ending (Yalom, 2013, pp. 51-549).

According to Sartre (2015), when an individual takes responsibility, one takes responsibility not only of one's own but of all other people. Sartre's statement "existence precedes essence" explains this responsibility. That is, first an individual comes to the world, then the person forms one's own essence. The individual is always alone in this process, and can only become existent when in absolute solitude. One decides and takes responsibility without being affected by an internal or external factor. The individual also takes responsibility for one's life in this process of creating one's self. The individual who is trying to create one's essence actually chooses all the people when choosing oneself, which raises one's responsibilities (Sartre, 2015, pp.

37, 41).

The underlying dimension of Moustakas' classification of existentialist loneliness and loneliness anxiety, who looks at loneliness from an existentialist point of view, is the positivity-negativity dimension (Perlman & Peplau, 1981, p. 33, 1984, p. 16). Existentialists take "the fact that people are alone" as a starting point. Others can not experience our thoughts and feelings; differences are the basic condition of our existence. Those who accept this view often focus on the question of how people can live with their loneliness. True solitude can be a creative force. That is why existentialists encourage people to overcome their loneliness fears and learn to use loneliness positively (Perlman & Peplau, 1982, p.126). According to Moustakas, existentialist loneliness is an inevitable part of human life that involves the periods of self-confrontation and opens a channel for self-development. This is the positive form of loneliness (Perlman & Peplau, 1984, p. 16, 1981, p. 33).

Rogers' client-centered approach. Rogers (1994), the founder of the client-centered approach, viewed loneliness as a situation that occurs when the individual feels that there is no real relationship with the others. According to Rogers (1994), because people think that no one can fully comprehend the personality they have, they behave in a way that can be approved by their inner circles and develop defense mechanisms to hide their personalities. The individual experiences the deepest sense of loneliness when they stop using the defense mechanisms, when their true identities, personalities and selves emerge. The level of loneliness increases as one hides their true identities, personalities by using defenses and masks from others as much as possible (as cited in Karakoç, 2013).

Interactionist theory. Weiss (1973) is the pioneer of interactionist theory. He distinguishes between situational and characterological loneliness. In situational loneliness, the individual sees loneliness as a situation, whereas personality traits play a role in the emergence of loneliness according to characterological theory. Weiss (1973) suggests that loneliness is neither solely attributed to personal factors nor environmental factors. Moreover, he states that emotional loneliness leads to feelings such as anxiety, isolation, hypersensitivity to even the smallest insinuations, hardheadedness and irrational fear, while social loneliness leads to distress, aimlessness, depression, alcoholism and marginality in individuals (Weiss, 1974; as cited in Sarıçam, 2011).

Cognitive theory. Peplau, Miceli and Morasch (1982) are advocates of the cognitive approach about loneliness. In the cognitive approach, which does not reject the existence of the emotional and behavioral items of the loneliness phenomenon, it is focused more on the cognitive processes; in other words, how the individual perceives and assesses the self and one's social relations. According to this, it is expressed that loneliness is caused by an individual's perceived dissatisfaction in one's social relations. (Perlman & Peplau, 1982).

In the formation of loneliness, the cognitive processes that intervene when there are discrepancies between the desired and actual social relations have an important role. Labeling is one of these cognitive processes. Labeling oneself as "lonely" can be influenced by the beliefs of the cultures in which the person lives. A person may also be able to get help from their cultural descriptions and some social signs while labeling their experience as loneliness. One may be motivated to make some self-explanations of the causes of one's loneliness. There are individual differences in loneliness based on whether it is caused by internal or external factors

(attributions), whether it is perceived as temporary or permanent, emotional reactions of persons, anticipations for future, and the way of coping with loneliness (Perlman & Peplau 1981, pp. 46-47).

Cognitive Behavioral Approach. Within the cognitive-behavioral approach, the concept of loneliness is not clearly explained. However, Young (1982), an advocate of this approach, made significant clarifications on loneliness. Young summed up the typical automatic thoughts that cause loneliness as 12 items. These thoughts are; feeling unhappy of being alone, low self-concept, social anxiety, social dissonance, insecurity, limitations, problems in choosing a partner, rejection of intimacy, sexual anxiety, anxiety of emotional attachment, passivity and unrealistic expectations (as cited in Koçak, 2008).

The feeling of loneliness is handled within the framework of experiences, perceptions of one's own inner world in the cognitive dissonance model. How the person perceives, assesses oneself and one's social life, one's relations is prominent in cognitive dissonance model. One of two people with similar social affiliations may be satisfied with this situation while the other may have been lonely. The most fundamental factor that causes this difference is the perceptions and evaluations of oneself and one's social relations. The level of relationships that a person with loneliness possesses may not be sufficient for the levels that are determined within oneself. The level of loneliness possessed is determined by the level of social relations that one has (Duy, 2003).

As a result, several conclusions have been drawn by the theoreticians and researchers that loneliness has various causes and effects. The definitions and explanations made about loneliness have come about thanks to the studies carried out

in Turkey and abroad.

2.1.3. Domestic and foreign studies on the concept of loneliness. Loneliness, a psychological condition, is closely related to many psychosocial variables. Many studies have been carried out especially abroad.

Foreign studies on the concept of loneliness. Most of the limited number of studies on how to deal with loneliness involve interventions based on cognitive-behavioral approach. In one of these studies, Abbott (1985) examined the effect of short-term group therapy based on cognitive-behavioral approach in reducing feelings of loneliness. In group therapy based on cognitive-behavioral approach, psycho-education, active listening and active participation skills training were given to the group members about the failures they experienced in interpersonal relationships. Three different comparison groups were established to question the effectiveness of this group approach. One of the comparison groups was trained on cassettes as well as on active listening and active participation, but not on group interaction and practice. In the other comparison group, two interaction group sessions were held where the general topics were shared with the individuals. In the last comparison group, it is stated that no process has been applied and that the waiting list has been created. As a result of the analyzes made, it was seen that all groups had a decrease in loneliness scores. Contrary to expectations, there was no statistically significant difference in the levels of loneliness of the individuals from the group where cognitive-behavioral approach was applied, which changed their attribution styles due to the given training, compared to the individuals in the other groups.

In another study, Orchard (1986) compared the effectiveness of cognitive-restructuring approach and social skills training, which is a very common method of

reducing loneliness. Three groups were established to compare the effectiveness of the procedure; social skills training group, cognitive restructuring group and control group. Compared with the control group, it was found that the individuals in the social skills training group and the cognitive restructuring group showed a significant decrease in depression and loneliness scores and a significant increase in the self-esteem scores. As expected, it has been seen that individuals who are subjected to treatment in the two different groups have developed more effective coping skills in coping with loneliness. However, contrary to expectations, it has been observed that the social skills of individuals in the social skills training group did not differ significantly over time (in follow-up measures) from the social skills of individuals in the cognitive restructuring and control groups. Furthermore, no significant differences were found among the groups in terms of any of the behavioral indices.

In their study, Schultz and Moore (1986) emphasize that loneliness is more associated with negative personal and effective self-assessment in college female students, and that males can react more negatively to loneliness than females. This study examined the gender differences among university students with quantitative and qualitative aspects of loneliness. Loneliness, emotional reactivity and social risk-taking scales were applied to 112 undergraduate students. It has been proven that men perceive themselves as lonelier than women. Emotional and social risk-taking depending on loneliness, was found among men more than women. The results show that loneliness is associated with more negative personal and emotional self-evaluations of loneliness in female students. It is seen that men seem to think that their loneliness is due to their own personal mistakes rather than external, uncontrollable causes. These results show that males have more negative reactions to loneliness than females. Evidence also shows that the difficulty in initiating social risks is the reason

why men have more loneliness than women.

Le Roux and Connors (2001) found in their research examining two hundred and ninety-two college students in terms of gender, age, socio-economic level that male students are lonelier than females and that there is no meaningful difference in terms of age and socio-economic level. The main purpose of this research is to determine whether the two student groups from different cultures differ in terms of their experiences of loneliness. The researchers also wanted to determine whether the gender, age, internal conditions, and socio-economic status of the groups differed in their experience of loneliness. Information was gathered by forming two groups of senior students from Charles Ntt University in Wagga Wagga (N = 189); The data were also obtained from students of Free State University in Bloemfontein, South Africa, by distributing questionnaires to second and third year students (N = 104). The data were analyzed using t-tests for independent samples. The results first indicated that the students of Charles Sturt University in New South Wales were significantly lonelier than the students from Free State University. It was also found that female Australian students were significantly lonelier than female students from South Africa and that there was no age difference between the two groups. In addition, internal conditions have been found to play an important role in the loneliness experience, as Australian students with happy parents are much lonelier than their South African counterparts.

Jones, Freemon, & Goswick (1981), found in their studies examining loneliness' personal and other determinants that lonely students perceive themselves negatively, that they exibit inadequacies in their senses of self and social skills, that they identify other people as negative, alienated, and outsidered in general, and that these people perceive themselves negatively as well. Results show that loneliness is

also related to its cognitive and emotional determinants.

McWhirter and Horan (1996), who sympathize with the idea that loneliness is multidimensional, questioned the effect of cognitive-behavioral approach in reducing emotional loneliness, social loneliness and general loneliness, which is the compound of these two. For this purpose, they have formed 4 groups of 3-5 members each: (1) The emotional loneliness group in which the only intervention is to reduce emotional loneliness; (2) The social loneliness group in which the only intervention is to reduce social loneliness; (3) The general loneliness group, in which both intervention methods are integrated and general loneliness is reduced, and finally; (4) The group of people whose members share their feelings and thoughts, but the group leader has no intervention. Each group was subjected to 6 group sessions, each of which lasted 2 hours. Contrary to the expectation of the measurements made after the end of the experimental procedure, the intervention to reduce emotional loneliness did not have a significant effect on the measurements of the closeness obtained. Interestingly, the intervention to reduce social loneliness was found to have a significant effect on each of the measures of closeness, as well as a significant effect on two of the four measures of social loneliness obtained. In the follow-up measurements made 2 months after the adjourning of the groups, there have been found no significant differences between the social loneliness and emotional loneliness scores of individuals who were in emotional loneliness and social loneliness groups. Although interventions that aim reducing social loneliness allow quick and persistent changes, the results obtained did not support the research hypothesis that interventions for individuals that experience different loneliness situations (social/emotional) should also be different. In addition, the loneliness scores in the follow-up measures both in the experimental and placebo groups decreased to normal levels.

In a study conducted in America, 26% of American society perceive themselves as lonely and disconnected. In America, 30% of the students who applied to the counselling service complained of loneliness and 6% of them stated that they experienced this emotion intensively (Whister, 1997; as cited in Hamarta, 2000).

Wilbert and Rupert (1986) applied the Dysfunctional Attitudes Scale, UCLA Loneliness Scale, Beck Depression Inventory, and Young Loneliness Scale in their study to examine the effect of dysfunctional attitudes on loneliness experienced by university students. As a result of the analyzes made, significant and high correlations were obtained between scores obtained from Dysfunctional Attitudes Scale, UCLA Loneliness Scale and Young Loneliness Scale.

Domestic studies on the concept of loneliness. The most detailed research on loneliness in our country was made by Demir (1990). The results of this research on university students show that;

- male students experience more loneliness than females,

- academically unsuccessful people experience more loneliness than successful ones,

- those who spend their leisure time alone experience more loneliness than those who not,

- those who are not satisfied with their monthly income experience more loneliness than those who are,

- those who do not receive social support from their social circles experience more loneliness than those who do,

- those who have few close friends experience more loneliness than those who have several,

- those who are reluctant to establish new social relationships experience more loneliness than those who are not,

- those who find themselves inadequate in their social skills experience more loneliness than those who do not,

- those who do not share their problems experience more loneliness than who do,

- those who are dissatisfied with their relationships with their mothers, fathers, opposite sex, same sex and siblings experience more loneliness than who are not,

- those who are dissatisfied with the relationship between their parents experience more loneliness than who are not.

Experimental studies related to loneliness are also found in the domestic literature. For example, Duy (2003) questioned the effectiveness of group counseling based on cognitive-behavioral approach in reducing the loneliness and dysfunctional attitudes of university students in his experimental research. For this purpose, he constituted three groups as experimental group, placebo group and control group. Group counseling based on cognitive-behavioral approach was applied in the experimental group, while activities without therapeutic effect were organized in the placebo group, and no treatment was performed in the control group. Statistical analyzes of pre-test, post-test, and follow-up measures showed that group counseling based on cognitive-behavioral approach was partially effective in reducing loneliness whereas it was effective in reducing dysfunctional attitudes. Duy (2003) also questioned the relationship between loneliness and dysfunctional attitudes within the scope of this study and found a significant relationship at .28 (p <.01) level.

The aim of Gurses, Merhametli, Sahin, Gunes, & Acikyildiz 's study (2011) is to determine the relationship between the levels of loneliness of students attending high school at four stages. The relationship between loneliness and various variables such as school, sex, type of accommodation and academic achievement has been examined. The case study was selected by random sampling. The sample of this study was formed with the participation of one hundred thirty-one female high school students and one hundred thirty-six male students. Sixty-five students from A high school, seventy-two students from B high school, sixty students from C high school, and sixty-eight students from D high school were randomly selected. Thus, three hundred and twenty-five students accepted to participate in the study. In this study, the UCLA loneliness scale (California Los Angeles Loneliness Scale) and a brief information form prepared by researchers were used as a means of data collection. Information has been gathered from students about their school, sex, type of accommodation, and academic averages. Data from loneliness scale (UCLA) were analyzed using SPSS. The compositions written by the students are qualitatively evaluated by the researchers. Accordingly, there was a significant relationship between loneliness and gender at the level of 0.05 in the study. Girls' loneliness levels were found to be higher than boys. ($XF = 22.27$ and $XM = 20.88$). There was no significant relationship between loneliness of students and types of accommodation. Moreover, there was no significant relationship between academic achievement and feelings of loneliness.

One of the most widely used methods to reduce the level of loneliness experienced by university students is social skills education. Çakıl (1998) formed 2 experiment groups and 2 control groups in a study aiming to decrease the loneliness experienced by university students using this method. The subjects assigned to the

experimental groups were given social skills training for the duration of 12 sessions, whereas the subjects in the control groups did not receive any treatment. The results of both the last measurements made immediately after the end of the experimental groups and the follow-up measurements taken after 3 months showed that there was a significant difference between the loneliness score averages of the individuals in the experimental groups and the loneliness score averages of the individuals in the control groups in favor of the experimental group.

Bilgen (1989) investigated the effects of university students' loneliness levels on their personal, social and general adjustment levels. In addition, the effects of students' departments, grade levels and gender on their levels of personal, social, general adaptation and loneliness were investigated. The sample group of the study consisted of 196 students, including 90 girls and 106 boys, who were receiving education in the first and fourth grades of Hacettepe University, Department of Educational Sciences; Psychological Services in Education, Curriculum Development in Education, Assessment and Evaluation in Education majors. "UCLA Loneliness Scale" and "Hacettepe Personality Inventory" were used as data collection tools in the research. In the analysis phase of the study data, the personal, social and general adjustment and loneliness scores of the groups entering the independent variables, standard deviations and n numbers were found, and the importance controls of the differences between the groups' averages were made by the "t" test used for independent sample groups. Research findings; the level of personal, social and general adjustment decreased as the level of loneliness of the students increased. Additionally, there have been found no significant difference between; first-grade students of Psychological Services in Education, Curriculum Development in Education and Assessment and Evaluation in Education in terms of personal

adaptation levels; fourth-grade students of different majors in terms of social and general adaptation levels; first-year and fourth-year students in terms of personal, social and general adaptation and loneliness levels; female and male students in terms of personal, social and general adaptation and loneliness levels. First-grade students were found to be different from each other in terms of social adaptation, general adaptation and loneliness levels; and this difference was found to be in favor of the students of the Curriculum Development in Education department. Fourth-grade students were found to be different from each other in terms of personal adaptation and loneliness levels, and this difference was found to be in favor of students of Psychological Services in Education department in terms of personal adaptation levels, whereas it was found to be in favor of students of Curriculum Development in Education department in terms of loneliness levels. Findings by comparison with the departments showed that the students' personal, social, general adaptation and loneliness levels were in favor of the students of Curriculum Development in Education major. The proposals at the end of the study emphasized the importance of family education, and psychological counseling and guidance organizations in educational institutions.

In the study conducted by Tambelli, Ammaniti & Ercolani (1989), the level of loneliness in female adolescents was examined and it was found that loneliness increased with age, and this feeling was more intense in those living in small settlements than in those living in metropolitan areas. The aim of the study is to explore and define the loneliness of girls who are of puberty regardless of loneliness and loneliness itself. The Self-Visual Questionnaire or the self-defined questionnaire developed by the Proposer was applied to 804 adolescent girls aged between 13 and 18 years. Data were analyzed using factor analysis. Three major components have

been identified: (1) the domain of coping self and psychopathologic self; (2) an emotional order characterized with a weak self-acceptance and a reduced self-confidence; (3) interpersonal relationships focusing on peer relations. In addition, variance analysis shows that loneliness increases with age and is more pronounced in small towns than in metropolitan areas of mid-size or greater size.

Seçim, Alpar & Algür (2014) conducted a study to determine the loneliness levels of students who study in 3 different departments of the Vocational School of Social Sciences of Akdeniz University and to reveal the effect of some demographic variables. A questionnaire containing UCLA Loneliness Scale was administered to 348 students, and 54% of the sample was found to have a loneliness score above the average. According to the one-way ANOVA analysis, it was found that there is a significant relationship between the student's department, their monthly income, having a personal computer, whether there is an internet connection where they lived and the high loneliness scores they obtained.

Kozaklı (2006) examined the relation between the level of social support that university students perceive from various sources and loneliness levels. The research was carried out on a total of 385 university students, 195 of which were girls and 190 were males. According to the findings of the research, the level of loneliness of university students was found to vary according to their age, where their families reside, the education levels of their mothers and the ways of meeting educational expenses. It has been found that the loneliness levels of the students in the sample decrease as the age increases, the parents live at places with less population density, the education level of the mother increases, the expenses of the education are met by oneself by working or obtained from the family. The levels of social support differed according to gender, where the family resides and the ways of meeting educational

expenses. It has been found that the level of social support for long-term dormitory residents who live at places with fewer population densities, who cover education expenses themselves or with the help of their families differ significantly from those of other students. According to gender differences, females' levels of social support and social support from their families were found to be higher. It was also found that there was a negative relationship between the levels of social support and loneliness, and that the relationship between loneliness levels and social support resources (family, friends and someone intimate) was also negative.

2.2. Automatic Thoughts

2.2.1. Definitions of automatic thoughts. While cognitive approaches focus on the automatic thoughts, schemas, suppositions, and beliefs that shape the perceptions and evaluations of one's self and the external world (Beck, Freeman & Davis, 2004), one of the main presuppositions of it is that cognition affects emotion and behavior (Gladding, 2013; Tursi & Cochran, 2006; White & Freeman, 2000). In the cognitive approach, while the cognitive structure of the individual is conceptualized, cognitions are branched into two as automatic thoughts and schemas.

Automatic thoughts are internal dialogues about the individual, the world, and the future, and are self-evident ideas that are not easily noticed; and most importantly, they are accepted as right without being analyzed by the individual. Automatic thoughts refer to automatic self-expressions that are repeated positive or negative self-expressions that people say in certain situations, in certain forms (Beck, 2001). Previous negative events are coded as schemas; when similar events happen later, these schemas are become active and affect the interpretation of events. Emotional problems are caused by distortions of people in perceiving, interpreting and evaluating

events and concepts; whereas the majority of the problems faced by a person are caused by distorting the truth by the false thoughts and beliefs one has (Beck, Freeman, & Davis 2004; as cited in Corey, 2008).

Automatic thoughts cause emotions. Although individuals are not aware of these thoughts, it has ben stated that automatic thoughts come to mind before the emotion felt. The facts that individuals first feel and interpret the emotions and immediately after realize the automatic thoughts by questioning them supports this idea (Beck, 1991).

Although automatic thoughts, which are uncontrollable and directly related to experience, and which spring to mind, vary from person to person, they have some common directions and formulas. These automatic thoughts are not intellectualized, not aimed at a target and not questioned, and even so, they are considered to be plausible and reasonable (Beck, 1991, 2001).

To summarize, one of the factors that cause or determine when and what to feel is automatic thoughts (Gökdağ, 2014).

2.2.2. Theoretical explanations on the concept of automatic thoughts.

Cognitive theory. Cognitive Theory, which is effective in the conceptualization of automatic thoughts, was developed as a result of his work on depression by Aaron Beck. The essence of the relevant approach is summarized as follows: The emotion and behavior of the individual is largely determined by the viewpoint of the world. The individual's cognition (verbal or imaginary) is based on the suppositions or attitudes that develop with past experiences (Beck et al., 1979).

The cognitive approach examines the individual in four perspectives as cognitive, physiological, emotional and behavioral. Miscellaneous events lead to

differences in the individual in these areas, leading to a certain behavior to emerge. Cognitive theory implies the importance of beliefs and thought structures in the development of behavior and emotions (Sharf, 2000). In this sense, cognitive theory is based on information processing model. The model of information processing consists of senses, perceptions and cognitions. The senses are defined as the first result when sensory neurons are stimulated. Perception is described as a result of organizing and evaluating these senses in order to gather information about the inner and outer world. Cognition is expressed as complex processes such as problem solving and thinking which are formed by the methods and plans that are developed by processing the information gathered from the senses and perceptions (Türkçapar, 2017).

It is stated that the cognitive theory is based on two basic principles: the first one claims that there is an intermediary between the stimuli coming from the periphery and the reactions emerging, and that this is the cognitive system of the person. The individual's cognitions are where the stimulus is processed and where some changes are being made and reacted to. The second basic principle is claimed to be related to human learning. Unlike animals, people can also acquire knowledge through social learning; therefore, it is not necessary for a person to directly experience the same phenomenon in order to learn the same thing (Türkçapar, Sungur & Sargın, 2009).

Cognitive therapy is based on the cognitive model. According to this model, people's emotions and behaviors are influenced by how they interpret events. What determines what people feel is not the event itself, but what they have in their minds about it. The emotions that people experience are related to how they perceive and interpret situations. According to this approach, the situation itself does not determine these feelings; what determines the emotional response is the interpretetion of the

events (Beck, 2001). According to cognitive therapy, in order to understand the nature of a mental state or problem, one needs to focus on the thoughts or cognitive content of the person's reaction to discomfortable situations (DeRubeis, Tang & Beck, 2001).

Just as in many theories of therapy, there are some assumptions that cognitive therapy is based on. These basic assumptions on which cognitive therapy is based are expressed as follows (Beck et al., 1979):

(1) Perception and experience are active processes that contain data based on internal analysis and questioning in general.

(2) The client's cognition provides a synthesis of internal and external stimuli.

(3) An individual's assessment of a phenomenon finds meaning in the cognitions (thoughts or visual images) one has.

(4) These cognitions constitute a "stream of consciousness" that reflects the fiction of the individual, the world, the past, and the future.

(5) Changes in the content of basic cognitive structures that an individual possesses determine the individual's emotional state and behavioral pattern.

(6) Through therapy, the client may become aware of the cognitive distortions one has.

(7) Correction of these dysfunctional structures provides clinical healing.

Cognitive therapy argues that incompatible, negative, exaggerated, irrational beliefs about people and the events they are experiencing lead to problematic behaviors and that changing the way that one perceives, interprets and evaluates these events creates positive changes in behavior in the same way. According to Beck, negative suppositions about people's lives lead to negative thoughts about themselves,

their situation and their future. These negative thoughts also affect both emotions and the resulting behavior. Cognitive therapists accept that beliefs begin in early childhood and continue to develop throughout life. According to this, early childhood experiences guide one's basic beliefs of oneself and the world. (Beck, Freman & Davis, 2008).

Cognitive theory and therapy is based on the cognitive structure of core beliefs, intermediate beliefs and automatic thought concepts. The cognitive model focuses on two basic structures called "automatic thoughts" to understand one's behavior and "schemas" that are thought to have caused those thoughts. The schemas have recently been divided into two, and studied as "intermediate beliefs" and "core beliefs".

Some authors have thought of this trilogy as intertwined circles, and they described this layered structure respectively as core beliefs, intermediate beliefs and automatic thoughts, arguing that the innermost influences the outermost (see figure 1.1). The explanations for these notions are given below.
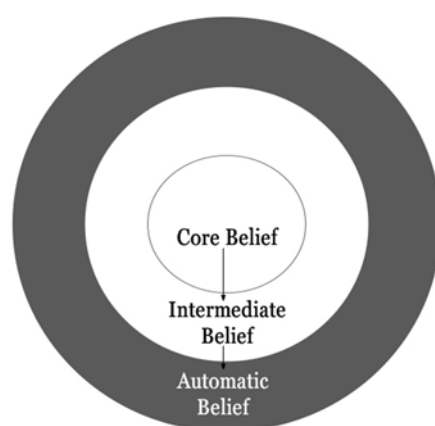
Figure 1.1. Core belief, intermediate belief and automatic thought relation. (Indiana University School of Social Work. The three layers of cognitive dysfunction).

Core beliefs are solid, global, over-generalized, change-resistant mental building blocks that are deepest in the mind (Beck, 2001, p.198). It is thought that the automatic thoughts and intermediate beliefs reflect the core beliefs that are in the deepest of the person. Meaning, the most important layer of cognitive structure is the core beliefs because the actual important factor in shaping one's other thoughts is these beliefs.

Naturally, all people have core beliefs, and these beliefs are present in the minds of individuals in pairs. To exemplify, I am beloved and I am not beloved core beliefs are both existent at the same time. However, in a healthy person with no significant mental illness, the positive core beliefs are the generally active ones. Negative core beliefs are activated when healthy people experience a negative situation or feel a negative feeling; nevertheless, when the person feels better, the positive core belief is again dominant (Türkçapar, 2007).

As a result, core beliefs that are the corner stones cause intermediate beliefs, and intermediate beliefs cause automatic thoughts, causing the person to feel different emotions and behave differently. In Figure 1.2. this relationship is clearly summarized.

Core Beliefs $\Longrightarrow$ Intermediate Beliefs $\Longrightarrow$ Automatic Thoughts
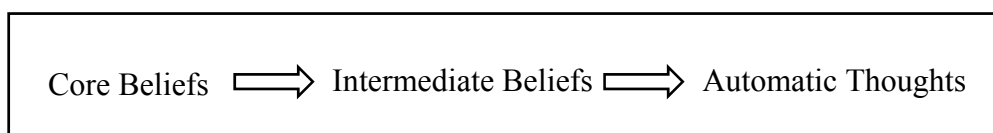
Figure 1.2. The way from core belief to automatic thought.

Underlying automatic thoughts, which are specific to the present moment/situation, are rules, suppositions and the intermediate beliefs that the person believes but not expresses. Rules and suppositions are abstract regulators of behavior even if they are not spoken. In a sense, the behaviors of oneself and other people can

be seen as a permanent set of rules and anticipations about the things that happen to them and their experiences (Beck, 2001).

Intermediate beliefs are often expressed by conditional clauses. To exemplify, "If I disclose myself, people will use it against me" or "Only insufficient people make mistakes". Identification and change of intermediate beliefs is more difficult than automatic thoughts, but not as difficult as core beliefs (Beck, 2004).

Automatic thoughts consist of negative or false beliefs that arise from intermediate beliefs, that the individual is unaware of. These beliefs are shaped by the cause-and-effect relationship that the individual acquired from previous experiences. Intermediate beliefs are formed by the inferences that individuals acquire in their lives, and this is determined entirely by the way one perceives oneself in one's own world. When describing intermediate beliefs that root in the core beliefs, what constitutes the core beliefs of a person and how they are shaped takes an important place in cognitive therapy. It is thought that this situation is seen more in individuals whose resilience level is lower and loneliness level is higher than others.

Important beliefs of individuals about people, events and the environment constitute *cognitive schemas* that are caused by automatic thoughts (Sharf, 2000). Schemas, which have a prominent place in cognitive theory, are quite constant and permanent features that begin in childhood and develop throughout life; they are also constantly supported by cognitive distortions. Since the schemas are earned so early, the person has not yet reached the capacity to question them correctly and effectively. For this reason, all schemas that are positive (functional) or negative (dysfunctional) are considered correct (Beck, 2001).

Freeman (1993; as cited in Sharf, 2000, p. 377) discusses 5 factors in the

description of the schemas.

1. Each schema has a strong affective compenent about the belief system.

2. The schemas vary depending on how long one possesses certain belief systems.

3. Schemas are generally learned from other individuals. The more important the person who is taken as an example is, the more important the schema is.

4. The cognitive element clarifies how detailed and comprehensive the schema of one's mind is.

5. The schemas have behavioral complementarities that determine how the individual behaves according to belief systems.

Reinterpreting and using information through cognitive schemas bring about cognitive distortions (Beck, 2004). According to Kendal (1994), cognitive distortions are the cognitive structures caused by beliefs or schemas that arise when an individual falls into confusion in knowledge processing (as cited in Şahin & Sarı, 2010, pp. 2-3). In cognitive distortions, as each new piece of information that comes from the environment is processed, it is desired to be fitted to the existing schema in mind; and for this reason, the content or meaning of the information is distorted. This distortion that the mind has made, brings itself to the level of consciousness in the form of automatic thoughts or images.

According to Beck (2001), clients often make some mistakes in their minds in a balanced way. These errors are usually caused by a systematic bias towards adversity in their cognitive processes. Cognitive errors, also known as cognitive distortions or typical faults in our thoughts, are summarized as follows (Beck, 2001;

Sharf, 2000; Patterson & Watkins, 1996):

All-or-nothing Thinking: In this way of thinking, which is also known as "black and white", "polarized", "dichotomous thinking", thinking of something as "exactly what we want or nothing" is essential. Instead of evaluating any situation according to the process, it is handled in only two categories. To exemplify, the thought of a student as "If I cannot get an A from this exam, I will fail" is an example of this type of cognitive distortion. Another example can be a mother's thought as "I am not a good mother if I do not breastfeed my child until the age of two".

Catastrophizing: The individual negatively predicts the future without considering more realistic results. For example, when an individual is driving a car, suddenly the thought of running into a person comes to mind, and this thought turns driving into a disaster.

Labeling and Mislabeling: Without considering the evidence avaliable for the individual, one ignores these evidences and adopts generalized, judicial and negative attributes to oneself and others. To exemplify, it can be summarized as self-labeling as "I am nothing", "I am not worthy", "I do not understand anything".

Mental Filter: In this way of thinking, which is also known as selective abstraction, an event, idea, or a reality could be suppressed or be used to support negative thoughts. In this sense, negative thoughts are supported.

Disqualifying the positive: It is stating that the success or the positive experiences that the individual has accomplished to oneself is not valid. For example, an individual saying to oneself, "I made that difficult presentation, but it does not mean that I'm good enough. I just got lucky" is an example of this kind of cognitive distortion.

Magnification or Minimization: It occurs at times when individuals magnify their deficiencies or minimize their positive sides. These cognitive distortions support the belief of worthlessness and feelings of depression. The thought of a student who does not enter a test due to having abdomen pain as "I am finished if I cannot enter this test today" is an example of such a cognitive distortion.

Overgeneralization: Assuming always the same things will happen based on a single act. For example, a university student thinks that all the other midterms will go badly based on doing poorly in the first midterm only.

Arbitrary Inference: Although having no evidence at hand, the individual makes reasoning according to one's pleasure or emotions and achieves a contradictive outcome. In other words, one thinks that something is right because one lives it very intensely, ignoring the opposing evidence. Emotional reasoning occurs in two ways.

Mind Reading: It shows what others think about ourselves. As an example, a woman's friend might not go to the movies with her and the woman might interpret this as her friend not loving her anymore. In fact, there are many logical reasons why the friend did not go to the movies.

Negative Prediction: While in negative prediction, there is a negative prejudice although having no reasons or evidences. To exemplify, a student who is getting prepared for a test notices that he or she has missing lecture notes and thinks that all the questions in the exam will come out of the missing part. In short, both mind reading and negative prediction are concerned with distorting information at hand or making negative comments based on lack of attention.

Should Statements: Having certain rules about how one and others should behave, having an exaggerated way of thinking that everything will go wrong if these

rules are not followed. For example, "I must always do my best, it would be terrible for me to make mistakes".

Personalization: Blaming oneself or others disproportionately on negative events. Associating an external phenomenon with oneself while it is not associated with the individual at all.

2.2.3. Domestic and foreign studies on the concept of automatic thoughts.

Foreign studies on the concept of automatic thoughts. Acting on the assumption that altering the negative thoughts can change the feeling of loneliness in a positive way, Keyes (1991) formed a group with structured cognitive intervention (experimental group) to question this hypothesis and another group with structured relaxation exercises (control group). The effects of both methods on reducing the loneliness experienced by university students are compared. Loneliness, dysfunctional attitudes and depression were determined as dependent variables. At the end of the experimental process, a meaningful difference in favor of the experimental group was found between the mean scores of the loneliness and dysfunctional attitudes scores of the subjects in the experimental group, in which the cognitive approach-based activities were used, and the mean scores of the loneliness and dysfunctional attitudes scores of the subjects in the control group, in which relaxation exercises were taught, in the last test measurements. However, in the context of behavior change (such as the number of friendships), there was no difference between the experimental and control groups. In the follow-up measurements made after 4 months from the end of the experimental process, it was inferred that the meaningful difference, which was present in the previous measurements and favored the experiment group, disappeared. This result is explained by the continuation of the change in relaxation group. Another

explanation is that while modifying cognitions can change emotions and behaviors, modifying emotion or behavior may also change thoughts and cognition, and thus the behavioral change in the relaxation group may have altered dysfunctional attitudes, which in turn may have affected perceived loneliness levels (as cited in Duy, 2003).

Hoglund and Collison (1989) found that there is a meaningful and positive relationship between Irrational Beliefs, which is quite similar to dysfunctional attitudes and which is a cognitive structure addressed in Ellis' Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT), and loneliness in their study of questioning the relationship between these two variables. The higher the level of interpersonal loneliness, the greater the incidence of irrational beliefs. Significant correlations were obtained between the five subscales of loneliness and irrational beliefs scale; a correlation level of .20 ($p < .001$) with high self-expactations, .28 ($p < .001$) with frustration reactivity, .32 ($p < .001$) with anxious overconcern, .22 ($p < .001$) with problem avoidance, .28 ($p < .001$) with hopelessness, and .-41 ($p < .001$) with dependency were found. Dependency (-.39, $p < .001$) and frustration reactivity (.14; $p < .05$) dimensions were determined as the subscales that predicted loneliness as a result of the regression analysis.

In another study (Mahoney, 1999) that was questioning the relationship between alienation, which is sometimes used interchangeably with loneliness, and irrational beliefs, there was found a positive relationship of .29 ($p < .01$) between alienation and irrational beliefs. As the frequency of using irrational beliefs increases, so does the alienation that individuals feel.

The study of Boelen and van den Bout (2002) aimed to investigate the relationship between positive automatic thoughts and positive thinking, which is

treated as optimism frequency, and depression, anxiety, and traumatic grief symptomatology. The data were obtained from 326 adults who lost their first degree close relatives 3 years ago. The analysis showed that positive thinking was inversely proportional to depression, anxiety, and traumatic grief symptomatology. However, positive thinking did not coordinate with anxiety and traumatic grief. Conversely, even when anxiety and traumatic grief were controlled, positive thinking remained inversely proportional to depression. Findings show that low positive thinking among older individuals is a cognitive feature of depression, which is relatively independent of anxiety and traumatic grief symptomatology.

Moreover, there are studies that show the existence of a meaningful relationship between attributions and loneliness (Anderson, Horowitz & French, 1983; Horowitz et al., 1982; Snodgrass, 1987). Individuals with high loneliness levels tend to refer to their personality traits as a cause of their loneliness and tend to believe that loneliness is a personality trait and that this situation cannot be changed with effort. Snodgrass (1987) also reports that attributions about loneliness that are attributed to personality are a significant predictor of the duration of loneliness.

Domestic studies on the concept of automatic thoughts. In the study of İmamoğlu and Gültekin (1993, p.37), 38 articles/books that were published between the years of 1982-92 were taken into the scope of analysis. While more than three fourth of the study were based on empirical evidence, it is often made do with giving evidence of the reactions of a single sample chosen from the institutions the researchers work. In this respect, in approximately one third of the studies, data were provided as frequencies and percentages; whereas statistical analyzes that examine the significance levels of the basic dimensions of problems, relationships between variables or observed differences were not used. In their study about problems of

university youth; boys, who especially come from lower socio-economic levels, have stated that they cannot freely express themselves, their feelings and thoughts due to gender roles, and that since they lack social skills and cannot form satisfying social relations, they end up becoming introverted and feeling lonely compared to girls.

The aim of Güloğlu and Aydın's (2007) study is to investigate whether there is a relationship between learners' levels of learned resourcefulness and automatic thought styles, and whether it changes depending on sex. For this purpose, Self-Control Scale for Children (SCS-C) and Cognitive Triad Inventory for Children (CTI-C) were applied to 232 5th grade students from two primary schools in Ankara. The data were analyzed by multiple variance analysis with 2 (learned resourcefulness level) X 2 (sex) factors applied to CTI-C scores. Findings pointed out that students with a higher learned resourcefulness level had high scores both in the subtests of "having a positive point of view towards themselves, the future and the world" and "having a negative point of view towards themselves, the future and the world", and in the sum of the test. However, the data showed that there was no difference both in the sum of the test and two subtests between the girls and boys. These findings show that children with higher learned resourcefulness levels are more likely to have a positive point of view toward themselves, the future and the world than children with lower levels of learned resourcefulness.

The aim of Çivitci's study is to examine the irrational belief levels of the students in their early adolescent periods according to some sociodemographic characteristics. In the study, Irrational Beliefs Scale for Adolescents developed by Çivitci (2006) and personal information form were applied to 405 6-8th grade students. One-way analysis of variance, t-test and non-parametric tests were used in the analysis of the data. The findings of the research show that the students' level of

irrational beliefs differs according to the educational level of the parents, perceived parental attitudes, perceived academic achievement and the number of siblings; that it does not differ according to grade level, age, gender, mother's employment status and family structure.

In the study of Türküm (1996), it is aimed that the subjects identify the cognitive distortions they possess and reduce the frequency of using them and thus exhibit more effective communication skills. For this purpose, an experimental group in which cognitive-behavioral approach based treatment was applied and a placebo group in which an activity thought not to have a therapeutic effect was given. In both end-test and follow-up measurements it was seen that there was a significant difference in favor of the experimental group in the context of recognizing cognitive distortions. In addition, it was found that the scores of the subjects in the experimental group were significantly lower than both the initial measurement scores of the experiment group and the final measurement scores of the control group in terms of the frequency of using cognitive distortions. In the follow-up measurements made 40 days after the end of the experimental procedure, this significant decrease in favor of the experimental group was observed to be preserved. These findings show that group counseling based on cognitive-behavioral approach is an effective approach to increase the ability to recognize cognitive distortions and consequently reduce the frequency of using cognitive distortions.

In the study of Kılınç and Sevim (2005), it was tried to determine whether the cognitive distortions of interpersonal relationships differed in high school students according to their loneliness levels and genders. "UCLA Loneliness Scale", "The Interpersonal Cognitive Distortions Scale" and "Personal Information Form" were applied to a total of 429 students, 263 of which were females and 166 were males,

studying at Ankara central high school. Findings have shown that students' distortions of avoiding closeness differ in terms of their loneliness levels and genders. There have been found no difference in the dimension of unrealistic relationship expectation according to loneliness levels and genders; it was determined that female students and not lonely individuals had more mind reading distortion. At the end of the study, the researchers noted some findings contradicting the literature. According to these findings, mind reading cognitive distortions were high in individuals who are not lonely. It is stated that this situation can be investigated whether it is due to the nature of puberty or the level of loneliness, and accordingly, more detailed information can be obtained by studying adults in the same subject or comparing adults with adolescents.

In a recent other study, Hamamcı (2002) questioned the effect of psychodrama-based group counseling that is integrated with cognitive-behavioral approach on cognitive distortions about relationships and reducing negative basic beliefs. For this purpose, an experimental group in which psychodrama-based intervention that is integrated with cognitive-behavioral therapy approach was applied, a placebo group in which an activity that has no therapeutic effect was given, and a control group with no treatment were formed. In the last measurements made, it was found that the experimental group's cognitive distortions related to interpersonal relationships decreased significantly compared to both the initial measurement scores of the test group and the final measurement scores of the placebo and control group. In the follow-up measurements made 3 months after the end of the experimental process, it was seen that this decrease in favor of the experimental group was preserved.

2.3. Resilience

2.3.1. Definitions on the concept of resilience. Masten (1994) stated that in recent years positive psychology has emerged as one of the prominent areas of psychology to promote individuals raise their effectiveness in their lives in order to become happy and healthy persons, realize that change and development do not emerge from external factors but from themselves, and thus apply this to their lives (as cited in Durak, 2002). Although positive psychology focuses on positive experiences, emotions and especially on well-being and happiness, that does not mean that it disregards the importance of negative experience and emotions. The obvious aim of this movement is to put an end to the dominance of a "disease model" which focuses on the negative phenomena such as human weaknesses, defects, discomforts and problems that result in ignoring an imbalance defined in psychology, that is, the strengths, values, capacities, abilities and development of a person (Masten & Reed, 2002). According to positive psychology, people who do not perceive the world and the environment as negative, who do not have a negative point of view despite experiencing the negativities present in oneself and the situation that one is in, are more resilient, can better recover from problems and cope with difficulties by seizing opportunities (Mark, 2011). In this context, psychological resilience has a significant place in the relevant field.

The root of the concept of psychological resilience has largely been traced to studies involving children that develop in a surprisingly normal way despite growing up in extreme poverty and adverse living conditions in the 1970s (Bonanno & Mancini, 2008). Findings from these studies indicate that some of the poor children are dragged into despair and abandonment of many things in adulthood, while others are able to manage their lives effectively. It is seen that such individual differences

observed in the reactions of individuals with similar negative experiences can be explained by resilience (Angulo-Macias, 2007). Masten (1994) indicates to be careful of not to emphasize this as simply "an individualistic trait" when using this notion. Because this kind of perspective can create the idea that other individuals cannot develop the ability to defy negativities (Luthar, Cicchetti & Becker, 2000). Researchers have noted that psychological resilience is a skill gained by learning processes rather than innate traits. Although it is suggested that some people can inherently have more tendency to resilience skills, these traits can later be gained by the vast majority of normal people. Resilience can be improved by the young or elderly under appropriate conditions (Öğülmüş, 2001).

There are many different definitions of psychological resilience by the researchers concerned. Psychological resilience can be described as the ability of the individual to return to the pre-event status and to recover from adverse life events and traumatic experiences, and the skill to overcome life crises (Masten, 2001). Furthermore, this notion has been named as psychological endurance, psychological strength, psychological robustness, durability, indomitableness (Basım & Çetin, 2010). It was also expressed as a dynamic harmony and adaptation process resulting from interaction between risk factors and protective factors (Olssons et al., 2003; Rutter, 1985), accomodating to the environment in a positive way despite challenging conditions (Luthar, 2003; Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000; Masten, 2001), regaining former functionality (Luthar, Cicchetti & Becker, 2000), self healing (Boanno, 2004; Henderson & Milstein, 1996), defying challenges, the ability to self mend (Wolin & Wolin, 1993), the skill of coping with stress, loss and difficulties (Begun, 1993), the power of self restoration (Terzi, 2008).

Psychological resilience is considered not only for survival but also for a combination of cognitive, emotional attitudes and behaviors that are necessarry for the enrichment of life during the developmental process, and the related concept is explained by existentialist approach. According to existentialist approach, there are people first. No theory, thought, approach come before people. The existence and reality of people do not develop according to an externally developed plan or theory. It is shaped according to their realities. The existence of a person gains meaning according to one's life, behaviors, preferences and functions. It is based on the assumption that people are free, so they are responsible for their choices and behaviors. According to this, life is filled with decisions taken by the individual and life becomes meaningful with these decisions. In this approach, which has a view that an individual can freely choose, the individual must take responsibility for one's behavior to make life meaningful. An individual is a constantly developing entity and not a static entity because one has the ability to take responsibility of oneself. The person builds one's identity, develops one's own potential, and does all these things on the terms and conditions one deems appropriate. A person shapes one's own self and its essence, in short, existence with one's own choices. While there are many definitions of the concept of psychological resilience, each definition contains a different characteristic of resilience (May, 1969).

According to Kobasa (1979), stress-resistant individuals have some typical attitudes towards life. These are openness to new situations, being able to focus on their work and finding the power to control things around them. Resilient individuals tend to make positive and optimistic cognitive assessments and use these positive and optimistic assessments and appropriate coping strategies. Psychological resilience is accepted as a concept that helps measuring emotional and cognitive resilience used to

cope with stress in adverse life events (Connor, 2006). Tugade and Frederickson (2011) state that psychological resilience is associated with negative thoughts and negative emotions.

When the literature is examined, it can be seen that the concept of psychological resilience can be defined in three different ways (Masten, Best & Garmezy 1990; Masten, 1994):

Psychological resilience is the belief that individuals who can overcome present difficulties in spite of negativities and who develop better than expected have a trait or personal ability to survive. Despite being brought up in adverse and difficult living conditions, life stories of famous or successful people are related to this basic phenomenon. This relationship was parallel and consistent with the results of systematic psychological resilience studies aimed at determining the variables at which children that grow up under high-risk and groups that are under high-risk could achieve successful outcomes.

Despite the fact that there are situations that are sources of stress in life, achieving adaptation to this condition is psychological resilience. Those who succeeded are defined as individuals who can survive situations as stressful experiences, separations, and so forth.

Psychological resilience is the ability to survive trauma (such as the death of a mother, father, or sibling). Although the concept of invulnerability has been used from past to present, no one is really "invulnerable". When stress sources reach extreme or life-threatening dimensions, resilience gives way to traumatic experiences (Masten, 1994). People can be more or less affected by these stresses. The important thing is to have the strength and specific abilities to survive this stress. Measures need to be

taken before stressful or traumatic situations arise.

It can be seen that the concept of psychological resilience cannot be explained in a single dimension but there is a common point in definition. This common point is summarized as follows: Psychological resilience is the ability to withstand and heal in spite of the risky, compelling and threatening situations that harm one's harmony, balance and development (Masten, 1994; 2001; Masten, Best & Garmezy, 1990). Psychological resilience indicates not exactly a feature but a process (Henderson & Milstein, 1990). In order to understand psychological resilience, it is necessary to reveal the roles played by all the parts that provide a good harmony in spite of adverse circumstances (Masten, 1994). Resilience is usually explained according to the results and the causes of these results. These variables are explained as risk factors and protective factors.

Resilience and adaptation process occurs when risky conditions are reduced by protective processes (Howard, Dryden & Johnson 1999; Masten, 1994). Risk means difficulty, hardship and adversity. Risk factors such as stressful life events and harmful environmental factors increase the individual's vulnerability. On the other hand, protective factors are personal, familial, social and environmental. These support for individuals at risk, reduce harmful effects, and function in a protective role (Kumpfer, 1999; Norman, 2000).

Risk factors are biologic and psychosocial threats (Werner & Smith, 1992) that increase the likelihood of a negative situation to occur or cause a possible problem to continue (Kirby & Fraser, 1997; as cited in Gizir, 2007), that reduce effectiveness of positive experiences (Rutter, 1985) and prevents the development of the individual (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000). These factors, which may impair the functioning of the

individual if they are present in the individual's life, are examined in three groups: individual, familial and environmental:

Risk factors related to the person; it indicates a low level of intelligence, an anxious temperament, experiencing health problems, having low self-confidence, having low self-esteem, inability to use effective coping mechanisms, low self-control ability, ineffective self-expression, having an aggressive personality and incompatible behaviors.

Risk factors related to the family; emotional ties, communication, support, closeness and compatibility are high in the families of children with high psychological resilience (Meredith et al., 2011). Behaviors such as compassionate relationships in the family, communication, stability, high parental expectations, positive discipline methods, supervision, support for a meaningful existence and opportunity recognition can increase the psychological resilience of the child (Larsen, 2010). In a family with these characteristics, a harmonious relationship (a parent or caregiver) with a supporting adult facilitates the child's ability to get away from the effects of loss, stress and trauma (Brooks, 1994).

Environmental risk facors; The support of the individuals that are in the social circle of a person affects the resilience of the person and the family positively. In addition, the existence of various active institutions (school, health, security institutions, etc.) and their activities in the social environment have important implications on increasing the resilience of the individuals (Blyth & Roelkepartin, 1993). It is understood that each individual, family, or social support system individually or interactively have effects on psychological resilience (Walsh, 1998). In general, common environmental risk factors include low socioeconomic status,

physical and sexual abuse, poverty, homelessness, child neglect, malnutrition, peer support deprivation, and social violence exposure (Gizir, 2007; Özcebe, 2008).

In addition to the risk factors, *protective factors*, which are another important issue for resilience, have been defined by Rutter (1987) as the conditions and processes that lead to resilience by regulating the negative effects of risk factors. Scientific studies point to the existence of a large number of internal and external protective factors in individuals facing risk conditions (Mandleco & Peery, 2000).

According to Masten (1994), protective factors are circumstances that alleviate or eliminate the effects of a risk or difficulty, provide healthy adaptation, and improve individual's competence. As in the risk factors, protective factors consist of individual, familial and environmental conditions (Fraser, Galinsky & Richman 1999; Garmezy, 1991).

Haynes (2004) argues that in order to learn, develop and train resilience traits, it should be supported by schools, families and other social support systems that provide protective factors.

Rutter (1990) emphasizes the individual's active role by stating that "people can overcome risk situations" rather than viewing protective factors as the individual's impotency or weakness.

Internal characteristics or protective factors emerging in the literature when describing the common features of psychologically resilient individuals are defined as self-efficacy, problem solving skills, internal locus of control and sense of future (Gizir, 2007; Karaırmak, 2006).

Self- efficacy, is defined as beliefs about the ability/capacity of a person in organizing and taking necessary actions in order to achieve positive results or succeed

(Bandura, 1997). In other words, it can be argued that self-efficacy includes an individual's beliefs of what one can do (Schwarzer & Warner, 2013).

Problem-solving skills, is another source of psychological resilience (Rutter & Quinton, 1994). This skill includes abstract reflective and flexible thinking and the ability to produce alternative solutions for cognitive and social problems (Benard, 1991).

Internally motivated children are reported to have *internal locus of control* and internal attribution. These children are stated to strive for success and, at the same time, are more intelligent than others according to cognitive learning approach, and understand phenomenons earlier.

Sense of purpose and future, Werner (1992) states that a factor in the experiences of resilient people is the "desired help". Desired help is defined as the responsibility and duties assigned to them in society, at school and at home.

Autonomy and sense of self; individuals with an autonomous character are sufficient in self-esteem, acting independently and making an effort to have a control over their environments.

According to Krovetz (1999), *external protective factors* related to psychological resilience are the presence of positive family climate, reliable parents, close relationships with parents and other persons, a stable home environment, a high parental education level, a responsible and conforming social circle, socio-economic advantages, highly met security needs and having positive services (as cited in Zafer, 2016).

Social factors refer to support from peers and adults outside the family. Recent studies have shown that a positive school experience can compensate for a negative

home environment to a degree (Larsen, 2010). In addition, psychologically resilient individuals can use social support systems more effectively than their peers (Smokowski, Reynolds & Bezruczko, 1999).

In addition to all these, it is constantly emphasized that there is an interactive process between the above mentioned individual and social protective factors and the factors within themselves and between each other (Mandleco & Perry, 2000).

2.3.2. Models and approaches of resilience. In this section, developed models and theories about psychological resilience are discussed; *Henderson and Milstein's Resiliency Wheel*, which was developed by Henderson and Milsten (2003) and is called "Resiliency Wheel", offers six stages of strategies to improve resilience in schools. Strategies presented by the model in question are shown in Figure 1.3.
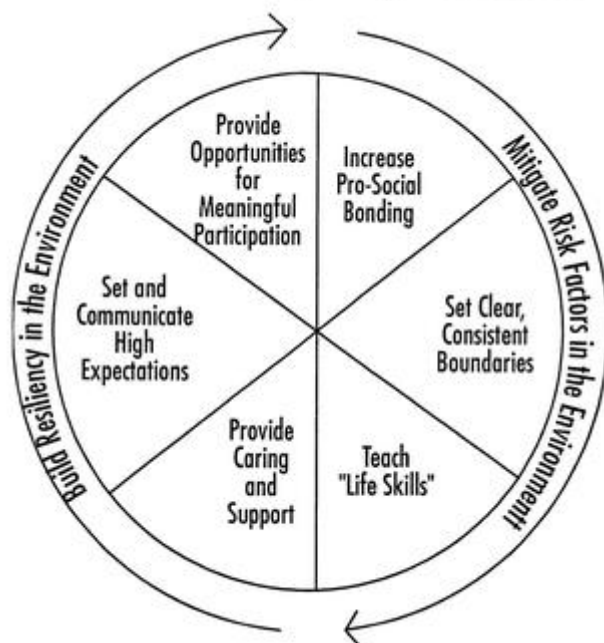
Figure 1.3. Henderson and Milstein's Resiliency Wheel. University of Lethbridge (2011)

The three items on the left of the circle are described by Benard (1991) by synthesizing several studies on resilient people. These items are related to the

development of resilience in the environment. The items on the right side of the wheel, that are increasing pro-social bonding, setting clear and consistent boundries and teaching life skills are aimed at reducing the risk factors surrounding the individual. The model implements the following tasks for school administrators to develop these strategies (Milstein & Henry, 2008; as cited in Arastaman, 2011):

1. Caring and supporting: It includes unconditional respect, support and encouragement. This part of the circle is important because the relationships start here. In this context, the school leader must create a warm school climate, where positive feedback and cooperation are dominate.

2. Setting high expectations: It involves persuading young people that we believe they will be successful and providing them with the resources to be successful.

3. Providing opportunities for meaningful participation: Providing young people the opportunity to show their competence and willingness in meaningful ways.

4. Increasing pro-social bonding: Pro-social bonding refers to positive relationships such as empathy, sharing, cooperation. To increase positive social ties, the school leader must put forward respect, support and trust, and must demonstrate exemplary behavior in this sense.

5. Setting clear and consistent boundaries: The boundaries of the school represent behavioral expectations that are shaped by formal and informal politics, norms and rules. In this context, school principals should be attentive to ensure that their mission and vision statements are loud and clear so that their goals and priorities can be understood correctly.

6. Teaching life skills: Today, schools that only focus on routine tasks and academic foundations are inadequate to improve the life skills of students, teachers,

parents and employees. In this sense, the school leader should adopt that change and renewal in every field is necessary, and make other school members adopt it as well.

Wollin and Wollin's resiliency model; Wollin and Wollin (1999) developed their model based on the research they conducted on people who attached temselves to life despite experiencing adversities such as drug or substance use, violence, racism, poverty, neglect, abuse and divorce when they were kids.

Steven Wolin and Sybil Wolin grouped resilience-related behaviors and eventually called these behaviors "the seven resiliencies" (Thomsen, 2002):

1. Insight: Asking self difficult questions and giving honest answers. People with insight see themselves and their lives in a complete, clear and realistic way; they do not avoid pain and difficulties, they take responsibility instead of blaming others.

2. Independence: Emotional and physical detachment from a troubled family in order to avoid damage.

3. Relationships: Satisfying ties with people who provide peace, support and love that the troubled family could not. As a result, people develop their sense of belonging, self-expression, friendship and so forth.

4. Initiative: Striving by owning responsibility of what one does. Initiative people do not see themselves as helpless or victims; they perceive difficulties as opportunities to overcome, they make plans, set goals and act.

5. Creativity: Expressing and reflecting on the painful experiences and sadnesses by any branch of art. It was illustrated as building a new world from the ruins of an old one.

6. Humor; finding humor even in tragic situations. Having humor eases pain

and tension.

7. Morality: The "wisdom-based" conscience that fills a person with "goodness" although the person is surrounded with "wickedness" makes people fairer and helps them form healthier and more self-confident relationships with the others.

Wollin and Wollin (1999), additionally, have developed a working model called "The Challenge Model". According to this model, children are confronted with difficulties or troubles, but there are two forces involved in the interaction process. Difficulties or troubles are a threat for children as well as an opportunity at the same time. The difficulties encountered can cause injuries in children, hurt them; but on the other hand, children can challenge troubles; they may escape or limit these effects by gaining experience and developing their own resources.

Benard and Marshall's framework of resilience; Benard and Marshall (1995, as cited in Marshall, 2004) have established a framework that combines theory to merge theoretical studies and applications on psychological resilience, that is, to demonstrate resilience. There are five core components (Benard & Marshall, 1997) that are necessary for developing groups that make the concept of resilience real whether at school or in a community; these are beliefs, conditions of empowerment, strategies, personal development outcomes and societal impacts.

1. Beliefs: In order to create an environment that supports or fosters resilience, it is firstly necessary to acknowledge that individuals have a potential to explore and that they come to the world with their potential regardless of the condition or the family they were born into.

2. Conditions of empowerment: Creating a successful learning and development environment depends on the establishment of good relationships, setting

high expectations, and providing opportunities for contribution and participation.

3. Strategies: In the unveiling of resilience, first of all, the person or institution aiming at it must be aware of their own resilience. It is necessary for the trainer to develop strategies for establishing healthy relationships, setting high expectations and providing participation.

4. Personal development outcomes and societal impacts: It is possible to derive from the developmental consequences and social influences on how successful the steps taken are. In a sense, developmental outcomes and social influences are the stages of evaluation.

According to *Richardson, Neiger, Jensen and Kumpfer's resilience model* (1990); in order for an individual to become psychologically resilient, one should experience complex circumstances, stressors or risks, get into an irregularity and come through it, learn from their experiences. Thus, one may become stronger with the protective factors and coping mechanisms that were developed in the process (Richardson, Neiger, Jensen & Kumpfer, 1990).

Individuals may experience four types of reintegration as a result of deterioration. These are dysfunction, dissonance, internal balance and resilience. Resilience is the result of learning from the negative situations that one is experiencing, coping with these situations, and growing by strengthening oneself (Richardson, 2002). Internal balance, on the other hand, expresses the return to the old state from the difficult situations that the individual experiences. However, it is unlikely that the individual will learn from one's experiences as in resilience. Therefore, it does not contribute to growing and the individual may experience the same situation again (Richardson, Neiger, Jensen & Kumpfer 1990). Dissonance

results from some loss of hope, motivation or impulse when in the face of life. Dysfunction occurs when the individual resorts to substance use, destructive behaviors, or similar ways when dealing with the needs of life. Individuals at the level of dysfunction may not be self-assessing themselves in a health way, and their insight may be lacking (Richardson, 2002).

2.3.3. Foreign and domestic studies on the concept of resilience.

Foreign studies on resilience. Simeon et al. (2007) studied the relationship between psychological resilience and various risk factors in healthy young adults. Defense Style Questionnaire, Relationship Questionnaire, Childhood Trauma Questionnaire and Three-Dimensional Personality Inventory were applied to the participants. In the study, psychological resilience's relationship with trauma, attachment, temperament, stress and cognitive performance were investigated. 25 women and 29 men, who had an age average of 33.2 in total, participated in the research. As a result of the research, it has been found that psychological resilience is negatively related to adverse childhood interpersonal trauma and stress hormones. Psychological resilience was found to be positively related to secure attachment and cognitive performance. In linear regression analysis, strong determinants of psychological resilience were found to be childhood traumas. This is followed by avoidance and cognitive performance from harm under stress. In young adults with psychiatric disorders, it has been demonstrated that psychological resilience can be improved by developmental, biological, and cognitive roles.

Cohan, Sills and Stein (2006) examined the relationships between psychiatric symptoms and psychological resilience, personality traits and coping styles in university students. Psychological resilience was found to be positively related to

conscientiousness and extroversion which are dimensions of personality; and negatively related to neuroticism. Coping styles seemed to be more important in predicting psychological resilience than personality dimensions. While task-oriented coping was positively associated with psychological resilience, emotion-directed coping was found to be negatively associated.

Howard and Johnson (2008) sorted 35 girls and 36 boys, who were identified as "risky" by their teachers, as students with high psychological resilience behaviors and those with low psychological resilience behaviors in their research on "Does school make a difference in psychological resilience?". During the face-to-face interviews, students were asked about their future plans, important people and events in their lives, helpers, and their advice. The information obtained at the end of the interviews suggests that the school is effective in gaining many protective factors. It has been stated that students from dissonant and disadvantaged families are likely to improve their psychological resilience if they continue the school successfully and receive support from attentive and helpful teachers.

In a study by Voegler (2000), 50 children, aged 9-15 years, and their mothers who were living in shelter were interviewed to explore the role of child and maternal factors in reducing the cumulative risk on homeless children's resilience. The resilience of the children was measured by various scales. Social behaviors in the face of high risk were characterized by getting high scores from social experiences and affective responses. Individual characteristics such as cognitive ability, adjustment, social self-efficacy were found to be related to the resilience of the children (as cited in Gökmen, 2009).

The aim of Major, Richards, Cooper, Cozzarelli, & Zubek's study (1998) is to

measure the effects of personality (self-esteem, control and optimism) on post-abortion adaptation (distress, well-being and decision-making satisfaction). Pre-abortion and post-abortion coping strategies are assumed to be fully related to one's cognitive appraisals (stress assessments and self-efficacy evaluations). It is also suggested that the effects of pre-abortion evaluators on adaptation will be fully related to post-abortion strategies. The results of the longitudinal study of 527 women who had an abortion in the first trimester were supported by the hypothesis. Women with more resilient personalities regarded having an abortion as less stressful, and they had a higher self-efficacy in coping with abortion. More positive evaluations predict more acceptance/reassertion and less avoidance/denial, voidance, support seeking and religious coping. Acceptance-reassertion predicts a cognitively better adaptation, while avoidance-denial has led to a more unsuccessful coping way. The search for more support was proportionately contingent with diminished distress; and religious coping strategies were associated with less dissatisfaction.

Padesky and Mooney's strengths based cognitive–behavioural therapy (CBT), called 'A Four Step Model', is designed to help clients build positive qualities. This article shows how cognitive aspects can be used to develop and strengthen personal resilience. The methods designed to discover the counsel's potential are illustrated by therapist-client dialogues. The development of positive qualities requires a varietion in the perspective of therapy and in treatment methods from those the therapist has designed to relieve anxiety. Emphasis is placed on clinical modifications designed to support the client's strength development, such as the necessary adjustments to the classical CBT, the current strengths of the client, and the focus on the metaphors they create. Although the focus of this article is on resilience, this strengths based CBT model offers a template that also can be used to develop other positive human

qualities (Padesky, 2012).

The work of Kaye-Tzadok and Davidson-Arad (2017) examines the contribution of the four strategies (self-forgiveness, realistic control, unrealistic control, and hope) to the resilience of 84 sexually abused women and 100 victims of childhood sexual abuse (CSA). Findings show that CSA survivors exhibit lower resilience, less self-forgiveness, lower hope and higher post-traumatic symptoms (PTS). In addition, psychological endurance states that participants' financial status is manifested by PTS severity and two cognitive strategies (self-forgiveness and hope). Finally, PTS and hope directed the relationship between CSA and resilience.

Domestic studies on resilience. Resilience is a relatively new subject of study, especially for Turkey. Gizir (2004) investigated protective factors that contributed to the academic achievement of the eighth grade students in poverty. He identified a positive relationship between resilience levels and students' level of internal supervision, high hopes of the future, high expectations of their education and positive perceptions of their academic self-efficacy. The high expectations at home, affection and compassion in school relationships, and affection and compassion in friend relationships were identified as the most important external protective factors that predict the academic integrity of poor learners. Internal protective factors were students' positive perceptions about their own academic expectations, an empathetic understanding, self-supervision and hope of the future. On the other hand, the author has found a significant negative relationship between resilience and expectations, love and affection in the family, expectations in friend circles, and problem solving skills. However, this finding is contradicting with the literature. Because expectations, love and affection in the family and friend circles, and roblem solving skills are not indicated among factors that affect resilience in a negative way, but a positive way.

Terzi (2008) studied the relationship between psychological resilience level of univeristy students and internal protective factors. The results showed that the psychological resilience scores of the students were not significantly different according to sex, and that these scores were positively meaningful in terms of optimism, self-efficacy, problem-solving based coping skills scores. According to the results of the regression analysis, it was determined that psychological resilience levels were significantly predicted by optimism, self-efficacy, problem-solving based coping skills variables in the group total, and in boys and girls.

Sipahioğlu (2008) applied the Resilience and Youth Development Module to 499 students (264 females, 235 males), who were studying at various high schools in Aksaray, in his study investigating the psychological resilience levels of adolescents who were thought to be at risk because of a poor family or living with a single parent. As a result of the research, it was determined that psychological resilience levels differ according to the variables of poverty, living with a single parent, sex and school type. When students whose parents live together and students living with a single parent were compared, the levels of affection in domestic relationships, high expectations and participation in domestic activities were found to be higher in the adolescents living with a single parent, whereas problem-solving skills, goals (having future-oriented goals and a purpose in life) and educational expectations were found to be higher in students that live with both parents. When comparing participants under the poverty risk factor according to sex, females had a higher level of goals, educational expectation, affection and empathy in their friend groups, while males' perception of problem-solving skills was higher. When comparing participants living with a single parent according to sex, females had a higher level of affection and empathy in their domestic relationships and in their friend groups, while males' perceptions of problem-

solving skills were at a higher level. When the school type variable is considered, it is stated that the students who attend to 'anatolian teacher training high schools' and 'science high schools' have higher perceptions of affection in school relationships, educational expectations, goals and problem-solving skills than those of 'anatolian high schools'.

Güloğlu and Kararmak (2010) applied UCLA Loneliness Scale, Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and Ego-Resiliency Scale to 410 (296 female, 114 male) students from different grades at the Faculty of Education of Kocaeli University in their study. Pearson correlation coefficient technique to see the interrelationships between variables in the study, and stepwise multiple regression analysis technique to determine the order of contribution of the variables that predict loneliness were used in the study. Findings show that there is a negative relationship between loneliness and self-esteem, and psychological resilience. In addition, self-esteem and psychological resilience variables were found to be predicting loneliness in university students.

In the study conducted by Sürücü and Bacanlı (2010), it was examined whether Gazi University Faculty of Education students' general, social and academic adjustments to the university showed differences according to their levels of psychological resilience, sex, grade, and the locations and environments that they were living in before entering the university. The results showed that students with moderate psychological resilience had higher overall adjustment scores than those with low level of psychological resilience. It was also found that students with moderate and high level of psychological resilience had higher academic adjustment scores than those with low level of psychological resilience. In addition, it was determined that male students' adjustment to the university was significantly higher

than female students.

In Karaırmak's study (2007) named "Investigation of Personal Quailities Contributing to Psychological Resilience among Earthquake Survivors", a structural equation model that explains psychological resilience in earthquake victims by examining the relationships between positive emotional and cognitive factors was tested. In this study, the relationship between resilience and positive cognitive, and emotional personal factors (self-esteem, humorous hope, optimism, life satisfaction, positive affects) was investigated. A structural equation model describing the cognitive and emotional pathways that explain the psychological resilience between earthquake victims was proposed. The results show that all positive personal factors in the model are directly or indirectly related to psychological resilience. It is also stated that self-esteem, hope and optimism have indirect effects on positive affects of psychological resilience and life satisfaction. In addition, self-esteem and psychological resilience were found to be two prominent concepts for well-being and mental health.

Eminağaoğlu (2006) investigated the resilience of street children living under difficult conditions. The aim of the study was to determine which strengths of theirs street children use or activate against the negative aspects of street life, with the aim of determining the resilience characteristics of street children. It has been determined that street children have more positive perceptions of interpersonal relations than working children, more tendency to cooperate and more desire to establish emotional closeness. However, there were no significant differences between the street children and working children in terms of inability to cope, which can be linked with depressive affect.

One of the researches examining the psychological resilience levels of the students getting ready for the university exam is Dayıoğlu's (2008) and the other one is Oktan's (2008). In Dayıoğlu's (2008) study, the roles of learned resourcefulness, perception of social support and gender on predicting the psychological resilience levels of students that are preparing for the university entrance examination were investigated. As a result of the research, it was determined that the candidates who reported a high level of learned resourcefulness and social support perception had higher psychological resilience scores. It was also found that being male is associated with a higher score of psychological resilience.

3. Method

This section contains information on the model of the study, sample, data collection tools, and analysis of the data.

3.1. Model of the Study

The correlational research model was used in this study. Correlational research is the study in which the relationship between two or more variables is examined without interfering with these variables in any way. Correlational studies can be divided into two. These are exploratory and predictive correlational research. Exploratory correlational research is used to try to understand an important phenomenon by analyzing the relationships between variables. In predictive correlational studies, however, one of the variables is tried to be predicted based on the other by examining the relationship between them (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006).

This study is a predictive correlational study since it aims to investigate how much loneliness and automatic thoughts explain resilience levels.

3.2. Population and Sample of the Study

The population of the study is formed of university students who were studying at Yeditepe University Science and Social Sciences areas during the spring semester of the 2017-2018 academic year. According to the data provided by Yeditepe University Student Affairs Office, the size of the population is 18.752 persons. Within this information, the sample size is calculated according to the following formula (Baş, 2010, p. 39).

$$n = Nt2p (1-p) / d2 (N-1) + t2p (p-1)$$

In the related formula, (n) for sample size, (N) for universe size, (t) level of confidence (1.96), (p) for the probability of occurrence of observed data (0.50) and (d) for deviation amount (0.05) are used. As the result of the sample size formula, 377 people were found to represent the universe. The number of participants was 541 students in the related research group. In this study, out of 541 samples, extreme and misentered data were excluded from the analysis, and the study was conducted on the data of 516 individuals. Appropriate sampling method was used to reach participants in the study. Appropriate sampling means collecting data from the population members that the researcher can easily reach (Büyüköztürk, Kılıç-Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz & Demirel, 2015). The age, gender, grade level and department details of the sample are presented in table 1.1.

Table 1.1.

Characteristics of the sample

	Groups	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender	Female	405	78,5	78,5
	Male	111	21,5	100
	Total	516	100	
Age	18-20 (1)	113	21,9	21,9
	21-22 (2)	264	51,2	73,1
	23≤ - (3)	139	26,9	100
	Total	516	100	
Department	Life sciences	259	50,2	50,2
	Social sciences	256	49,8	100
	Total	516	100	

The sample of study consisted of 405 female students (78,5%) and 111 male students (21,5%). 113 participants (21,9%) were 18-21 years old. 264 participants (51,2%) were 21-22 years old. 139 participants (26,9%) were older than 22 years old. Considering the distribution of students by departments; 259 students (50,2%) were from life science departments and 256 students (49,8%) were from social science departments.

3.3. Instruments

3.3.1. Demographic information form. The demographic information form (Appx-1) was developed by the researcher as the first part of the questionnaire package. The form contains questions about the participants' gender, age and department.

3.3.2. UCLA loneliness scale. A 20-item scale designed to measure one's subjective feelings of loneliness as well as feelings of social isolation.

University of California Los Angeles (UCLA) Loneliness Scale's original version was developed by Russel, Peplau and Ferguson in 1978 and adapted to Turkish by Demir (1989).

UCLA Loneliness Scale consists of 20 items, 10 of which are positive statements and the other 10 are negative. Individuals are asked to specify how often they experience the situations asserted in the items on a 4-point Likert type scale. The positive expression items are scored as 4 points for "I never feel this way", 3 for "I rarely feel this way", 2 for "I sometimes feel this way" and 1 for "I often feel this way"; whereas the negative expression items are contrarily scored as 1 point for "I never feel this way", 2 for "I rarely feel this way", 3 for "I sometimes feel this way" and 4 for "I often feel this way". The highest score that can be taken from the scale is 80 and the lowest score is 20. A higher score indicates a higher level of loneliness (Demir, 1989).

In the reliability study of the scale, a correlation of .91 was found between the first form and the form that was revised in 1980. The internal consistency coefficient was found to be .94. In terms of the scale's reliability, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was found to be 96, while a correlation coefficient of .94 was found by a 5-week test-

retest method.

For the present study, reliability coefficient of UCLA Loneliness Scale was investigated. Cronbach alpha coefficient of Loneliness Scale was detected to be .89. In the original study of the scale, this value was stated to be .96. In the adaptation study of it, Cronbach alpha coefficient was found to be .89. Thus, it can be said that reliability coefficient was consistent with the ones in the original and adaptation studies.

3.3.3. Automatic thoughts questionnaire (ATQ). It is a Likert type scale consisting of 30 items scored between 1-5. The score range for the scale is 30-150. Getting a high score from the total of the scale indicates that the individual's negative automatic thoughts frequently occur (Savaşır & Şahin, 1997).

The "Automatic Thoughts Questionnaire" developed by Hollon and Kendall (1980) was conducted to measure the frequency of university students' depressive automatic thoughts. Automatic Thoughts Questionnaire was adapted to Turkish by Şahin and Şahin in 1992. The scale is intended to measure the frequency of negative automatic thoughts that are associated with depression. The scale was first translated into Turkish by Şahin and Şahin in 1988 and then administered to 53 students in both English and Turkish. The correlation coefficient between the two forms was found to be .92. The Automatic Thoughts Questionnaire consists of a total of 30 items and five subscales, which are "Negative Self-concepts", "Confusion – Escape Fantasies", "Personal Maladjustment and Desire for Change" and "Loneliness – Isolation and Helplessness" (Savaşır & Şahin, 1997).

The reliability coefficients of the scale's validity-reliability studies conducted abroad varied between .47 and .97. The validity coefficients were found to be between

.45 and .79. (Hollon & Kendall, 1980; Harrel & Ryon, 1983; Dobson & Breiter, 1983).

In the reliability studies in our country, Cronbach Alfa internal consistency coefficient was found to be .93 by Şahin and Şahin (1992) and .95 by Aydın and Aydın (1990). The item total correlations between the scores of each item of the scale and the scores of the whole scale were calculated by Şahin and Şahin (1992) as .30 and .69; and as .37 and .85 by Aydın and Aydın (1990).

For the present study, reliability coefficient of Automatic Thoughts Questionnaire was examined. In this study, reliability coefficient of Automatic Thoughts Questionnaire was found to be .93. In the original study, total confidence coefficient value was detected as .93. Therefore, it can be said that reliability coefficient was consistent with the one in the original study.

3.3.4. Psychological hardiness scale (PHS). The scale developed by Terzi (2013) consists of 3 subdimensions as challenge, commitment and control. In the first phase of the development of PHS, the scale was conducted to a total of 169 persons, 112 women and 54 men in the age range of 19-26 years. In the second stage, the scale was administered to 407 persons, 285 women and 122 men in the age range of 20-42 years. In order to develop the PHS, the relevant literature was first reviewed and then expressions of "commitment", "control", and "challenge" dimensions of psychological hardiness were written based on existentialist personality theory. Thus, a 60-item item pool was created. The 60-item trial form, which was prepared by taking all the features of each sub-dimension into consideration, was presented to seven experts in the field of Psychological Counseling and Guidance to receive their professional

opinions. Based on those feedbacks, the application form of the scale was created by making betterments.

The data obtained by conducting the application form and the the factor structure of PHS were examined by exploratory factor analysis. Accordingly, items with a factor load of less than .30 were removed, and the final form of the scale was made to consist of 21 items and three sub-dimensions. Items 7, 8, 9, 13, 14, 16, and 17 of the scale constitute the challenge sub-dimension; items 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 18, and 21 constitute the commitment sub-dimension; 4, 10, 11, 12, 15, 19 and 20 constitute the control sub-dimension. Items 2 and 15 of the scale are reverse-scored. For the factor analysis to be performed in determining the construct validity of the scale, firstly, the suitability of the data for factor analysis was tested by Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett test. The calculated KMO value for the suitability of the sample was found to be .85. In addition, Chi-Square obtained by Bartlett test ($X2 = 2082.187$, p <.00) was found to be meaningful. The total reliability coefficient of the scale was found to be .76; .62 for the commitment subscale, .69 for the control subscale, and .74 for the challenge subscale. Test-retest reliability was found to be .81.

The scale is a 5-point Likert type scale with 21 items. (0 = strongly disagree, 4 = strongly agree). Higher scores on the scale indicate a superior resilience level.

For the present study, reliability coefficient of ATQ was examined. In the study, reliability coefficient was found to be .78. In the original study, total confidence coefficient value was detected as .76. Cronbach alpha coefficients of challenge, control and commitment subscales were found to be .72, .42, .64 respectively. In the original study of the scale, these values ranged between 0,62 and 0,76. In the adaptation study of resilience scale, cronbach alpha coefficients ranged between 0,42

and 0,72. Thus, it can be said that reliability coefficients were consistent with the ones in the original and adaptation studies.

3.4. Data Collection Process

Firstly, necessary permissions were obtained from the Ethics Committee of Yeditepe University. Then, personal visits were made to the heads of departments of the faculty that the researcher would administer the study, and assistance was requested. After arranging the appointments with the instructors, data was collected from Yeditepe University at the beginning of the first semester of the 2017-2018 academic year. A questionnaire package, which consists of Informed Consent Form, Demographic Information Form, UCLA Loneliness Scale, Automatic Thoughts Questionnaire, and Psychological Hardiness Scale, was given to each student in the pre-set course hours by the researcher. At the beginning of data collection, all students were informed about the purpose of the research and assured of the secrecy and anonymity of the study. Participation was totally voluntary. Completion of the questionnaire package took about 10 minutes.

In this study, out of 541 samples, extreme and misentered data were excluded from the analysis.

3.5. Analysis of the Data

Before performing the main analysis, firstly, internal consistency reliability was measured by Cronbach α. Subsequently, the differences between participants' scores were examined withing a single demographic subheading: age. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used for the age variable since normal distributions of the study variables were provided. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to determine whether there are significant differences in means of

instruments of two or more independent groups (Büyüköztürk, 2015). In the main analyzes of the study, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used first to evaluate correlations between variables. Later, multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine the predictive roles of loneliness and automatic thoughts on resilience. All statistical analyzes in this study were conducted through the subprograms of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25.0.

4. Findings

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics for two independent variables (loneliness and automatic thoughts) and the dependent variable (resilience) used in this study are presented in the Table 4.1

Descriptive statistics for the main variables of the study

Variables	N	Mean	SD	Min-Max
Resilience				
Challenge	516	22,96	3,45	12,00-28,00
Control	516	18,85	3,08	9,00-26,00
Commitment	516	19,20	3,93	7,00-28,00
Automatic Thoughts	516	57,14	18,76	30,00-111,00
Loneliness	516	41,97	9,58	20,00-68,00

For challenge dimension, mean score was 22,96 ; standard deviation was 3,45 and minimum maximum scores ranged between 12,00 and 28,00. For control dimension mean score was 18,85; standard deviation was 3,08 and minimum maximum scores ranged between 9,00 and 26,00. For strong sense of commitment

dimension, mean score was 19,20, standard deviation was 3,93 and minimum maximum scores ranged between 7,00 and 28,00. For automatic thoughts mean score was 57,14 standard deviation was 18,76 and minimum maximum scores ranged between 30,00 and 111,00. For, loneliness mean score was 41,97, standard deviation was 9,58 and minimum maximum scores ranged between 20,00 and 68,00.

As a second step in descriptive analyses, to decide either parametric tests or non-parametric tests are used, normality of variables was assessed by skewness and kurtosis values. According to Büyüköztürk (2016), the skewness and kurtosis values are assumed to be -1 and +1 to prove that it is the normal univariate distribution.

Table 4.2.

Skewness and Kurtosis values of study variables

Variables	N	Mean	Skewness	Kurtosis
Resilience				
Challenge	516	22,96	0,90	-0,172
Control	516	18,85	-0,436	0,019
Commitment	516	19,20	-0,290	-0,086
Automatic Thoughts	516	57,14	0,897	0,137
Loneliness	516	41,97	0,897	-0,618

As it is shown in Table 4.2, skewness and kurtosis values of challenge subscale were 0,90 and -0,172; skewness and kurtosis values of control subscale were -0,436 and 0,019, for commitment subscale, -0,290 and -0,086, for automatic thoughts scale, 0,897 and 0,137 for loneliness scale, 0,897 and -0,618 respectively. All of the research variables are in acceptable skewness and kurtosis values. (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) In the light of such information, parametric tests were used in the present study.

4.2. Correlations among the study variables

In this section, the analysis results and findings of the following sub problems are presented.

4. Is there a meaningful relationship between loneliness and automatic thought levels of university students?

5. Is there a meaningful relationship between loneliness and automatic thought levels of university students?

6. Is there a meaningful relationship between loneliness and resilience levels of university students?

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to examine the correlations between university students' loneliness, automatic thoughts, and resilience. The analysis results are presented in Table 4.3

Table 4.3.

Pearson correlation coefficients among study variables

	Loneliness	Automatic Thoughts	Challenge	Control	Commitment
Loneliness	1				
ATQ	0,470**	1			
Challenge	-0,132**	-0,128**	1		
Control	-0,211**	-0,267**	0,422**	1	
Commitment	0,302**	-0,419**	0,473**	0,441**	1

**p<0.01 *ATQ=Automatic Thoughts Questionnaire

The results showed that intercorrelations among predictor variables (loneliness, automatic thoughts) and criterion variable (resilience) ranged from -0,419 to 0,473. These results stated low to moderate correlations among predictor variables and criterion variable. While strong sense of commitment was significantly and positively correlated with control dimension (r=0,441, *p*<.01), challenge (r=0,473, *p*<.01), loneliness (r=0,302, *p*<.01), it was significantly and negatively correlated with automatic thoughts (r=-0,419, *p*<.01). Indeed, as participants' sense of commitment levels increased, their control, challenge and loneliness levels increased. Additionally, as university students' commitment levels decreased, their automatic thoughts score increased. In sense of commitment level, higher scores refer to be able to cope with stressful life situations and lower scores refer to inability to cope with stressful situations. Thus, as university students become more cope with stressful life situations, their challenge, control and loneliness levels increase. Additionally, as they become more inability to cope with stresfull life situations, their automatic thoughts levels decrease.

As it is shown in Table 4.3., while control of resilience dimension was significantly and positively correlated with only challenge, it was significantly and negatively correlated with automatic thoughts (r=-0,267, *p*>.01) and loneliness levels (r=-0,211, *p*>.01). In other words, as participants' control increased, their challenge score increased whereas university students' control increased, their automatic thoughts score decreased. In control level, higher scores refer to beliefs that it can affect the results of situations and lower scores refer to inability to beliefs that it can affect the results of situations. Thus, when university students become more beliefs to affect the results of situations, their challenge levels increase. Additionally, as they

become more inability beliefs to affect the results of situations, their automatic thoughts levels increase.

Challenge dimension of resilience was significantly and negatively correlated with loneliness (r=-0,132, $p<0.01$) and automatic thoughts levels (r=-0,128, $p<0.01$). Therefore, as university students' challenge levels increased, their loneliness and automatic thoughts scores decreased. In challenge level, higher scores refer to beliefs that challenge is a stimulant for development and lower scores refer to the beliefs that challenge is a threat to security. Consequently, when university students become more beliefs that challenge is a stimulant for development, their loneliness and automatic thoughts levels decrease.

Automatic thoughts was significantly and positively correlated with loneliness variable (r=0,470, $p>0.01$). Hence, while pariticapants' automatic thoughts levels increased, their loneliness score increased. Higher score of automatic thoughts consist of irrational beliefs about their self perception and lower score of automatic thoughts consist of rational beliefs about their self perception. For this reason, as university students have irrational beliefs.

4.3. Multiple Regression Analysis for Resilience

In this section, the analysis results and findings of the following sub problem are presented.

7. Do university students' loneliness and automatic thoughts predict their resiliencies in a meaningful way?

Preparation for multiple regression analyses, normality, linearity and homoscedasticy assumptions were checked by graphs in SPSS. For testing of multicollinearity assumption, correlation matrix of study variables, VIF and tolerance

values were investigated. Higher than 0,80 correlation coefficients between predictor variables, lower than 0,20 tolerance values which refer to the variance ratio of an independent variable that cannot be explained by other independent and higher than 10 variance inflation factor (VIF) values indicates multicollinearity problem in the regression analysis (Büyüköztürk, 2015).

As illustrated in table 4.4. all the correlation coefficients between predictor variables were lower than 0,80, tolerance values were higher than 0,20 (0,77 for loneliness; 0.77 for automatic thoughts) and VIF values were lower than 10 (1,28 for loneliness; 1,28 for automatic thoughts). When these values were taken into consideration, multicollinearity problem was not found for the present study.

A standard multiple regression analyses were conducted to estimate how well university students' loneliness and automatic thoughts levels predicted their challenge, control and commitment levels respectively. Based on the results of multiple regression analysis including loneliness, automatic thouughts and challenge variables, the two predictor variables explained 0,2% of the variance (R=0.152, R^2=0.023, F (2, 513)= 6,065 p>.05).

In Table 4.4., the raw and β coefficients of the predictor variables, their correlations with challenge leves and their partial correlations are summarized.

Table 4.4.

Multiple Regression Analysis of Loneliness and Automatic Thought Levels on Challenge Prediction Results (N=516)

	B	Std. error	β	t	p	Zero-order	partial
						Correlations	
Constant	25,250	0,698	-	36,185	0,000	-	-
Loneliness	-0,033	0,018	-0,092	-1,863	0,063	-0,132	-0,082
Automatic Thoughts	-0,016	-0,009	-0,085	-1,723	0,085	-0,128	-0,076
R=0,152	**R²=0,023**						
F(2,513)=6,065	**p=0,012**						

As it is shown in Table 4.4., loneliness (β=-0.092, t(515)=-1,863, p>.05) and automatic thoughts (β=-0.085, t(515)=-1,723, p>.05) do not significantly predict students'challenge levels. Partial correlations of the predictors are low.

A multiple regression analysis was also done to estimate how well university students' loneliness and automatic thoughts levels predicted their control levels of resilience. The results demonstrated that the two predictor variables explained 8% of the variance (R=0,152, R²=0.023, F (2, 513)= 6.065 p<.01). With regard to the results of regression analysis, the regression equation was found as follows:

In Table 4.5., the raw and β coefficients of the predictor variables, their correlations with control dimension and their partial correlations are summarized.

Table 4.5.

Multiple Regression Analysis of Loneliness and Automatic Thought Levels on Control Prediction Results (N=516)

| | B | Std. error | β | T | p | Correlations | |
						Zero-order	partial
Constant	22,358	0,605	-	36,968	0,000	-	-
Loneliness	-0,035	0,015	-0,110	-2,294	**0,022***	-0,211	-0,101
Automatic Thoughts	-0,035	0,008	-0,215	-4,281	**0,000***	-0,267	-0,194
R=0,284	**R²=0,080**						
F(2,513)=22,447	**p=0,000**						

As it is illustrated in Table 4.5., loneliness (β=-0.110, t(515)=-2,294 p<.05) and automatic thoughts (β=-0.215, t(515)=-4,281 p<.01) significantly predict the levels of control dimension. Partial correlations of the predictors are low.

There was a significant negative correlation between loneliness and control dimension of resilience (r=-0.21, p<.05), and between automatic thoughts and control dimension of resilience (r=-0.27, p<.05).

A multiple regression analysis was also done to estimate how well university students' loneliness and automatic thoughts levels predicted their control levels of resilience. The results demonstrated that the two predictor variables explained 8% of the variance (R=0.284, R²=0.080, F (2, 513)= 22.358, p<.05). With regard to the results of regression analysis, the regression equation was found as follows:

Control= 22,358 – 0,110Loneliness – 0,215 AT

In Table 4.6., the raw and β coefficients of the predictor variables, their correlations with commitment dimension and their partial correlations are summarized.

Table 4.6.

Multiple Regression Analysis of Loneliness and Automatic Thought Levels on Commitment Prediction Results (N=516)

	B	Std. error	β	T	p	Zero-order	partial
						Correlations	
Constant	25,803	0,725	-	35,601	0,000	-	-
Loneliness	-0,056	0,019	-0,135	-3,008	**0,003***	-0,302	-0,132
Automatic Thoughts	-0,075	-0,009	-0,355	-7,896	**0,000***	-0,419	-0,329
R=0,436	**R²=0,190**						
F$_{(2,513)}$=60,103	**p=0,000**						

As it is stated in Table 4.6., loneliness (β=-0.135, t(515)=-3,008 p<.01) and automatic thoughts (β=-0.355, t(515)=-7,896 p<.05) significantly predict the levels of commitment dimension. Partial correlations of the predictors are moderate.

There was a significant moderate negative correlation (r=-0,30, p<.05) between loneliness and commitment dimension of resilience, and a high negative correlation (r=-0,419, p<.05) between automatic thoughts and commitment, therefore, when other variables were controlled for each pair, the partial correlations between predictor variables and commitment variable were r=-0,13, r=-0,32 respectively.

A multiple regression analysis was also done to estimate how well university students' loneliness and automatic thoughts levels predicted their commitment levels

of resilience. The results demonstrated that the two predictor variables explained 19% of the variance (R=0.436, R^2=0,190, F (2, 513)= 60.103, p<.05). With regard to the results of regression analysis, the regression equation was found as follows:

Commitment = 25,803 - 0 ,135Loneliness – 0,355AT

4.4.Demographic variables

Differences among the participants' scores obtained from loneliness, automatic thoughts and resilience scales were not examined in terms of gender demographic variable. Since normal distributions of study variables were not ensured, independent samples t-tests for gender variable was not computed.

4.4.1. Is there a meaningful difference in the loneliness levels of university students in terms of age variable?

To answer the question "Is there a significant difference among university students' loneliness levels with regard to age?" one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed. Findings related to mean scores and standard deviation are stated in Table 4.7. and the results of ANOVA analysis are shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.7.

Descriptive statistics of loneliness levels with regard to age

Group	N	Mean	SD
18-20 (1)	113	42,28	8,58
21-22 (2)	264	41,94	9,58
23≤ - (3)	139	41,78	10,38
Total	516	41,97	9,58

Table 4.8.

One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) results related loneliness levels with regard to age

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	16,000	2	8,000		
Within Groups	47287,72	513	92,179	0,087	0,917
Total	47303,72	515			

Results of one way analysis of variance revealed that university students' loneliness levels did not differ significantly in terms of age [F(2, 513)= 0,087, *p*>.05].

4.4.2. Is there a meaningful difference between the automatic thought levels of university students in terms of age variable?

To answer the question "Is there a significant difference among university students' automatic thoughts levels with regard to age?" one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed. Findings related to mean scores and standard deviation are stated in Table 4.9. and the results of ANOVA analysis are illustrated in Table 4.10.

Table 4.9.

Descriptive statistics of automatic thoughts levels with regard to age

Group	N	Mean	SD
18-20 (1)	113	55,43	17,70
21-22 (2)	264	58,42	18,57
23≤ - (3)	139	56,11	19,89
Total	516	57,14	18,76

Table 4.10.

One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) results related to automatic thoughts levels with regard to age

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	912,96	2	456,48	1,298	0,274
Within Groups	180440,54	513	351,73		
Total	181353,51	515			

As it is shown in Table 4.10, Results of one way analysis of variance detected that university students' automatic thoughts levels did not differ significantly in terms of age $[F(2, 513)= 1,298, p>.05]$.

4.4.3. Is there a meaningful difference in the level of resiliencies of university students in terms of age variable?

Aim to answer "Is there a significant difference among university students' resilience levels with regard to age?" one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed. Findings related to mean scores and standard deviation stated in Table 4.11. and the results of ANOVA analysis are illustrated in Table 4.12.

Table 4.11.

Descriptive statistics of resilience levels with regard to age

Dimension of Resilience	Group	N	Mean	SD
Challenge	18-20 (1)	113	22,82	3,21
	21-22 (2)	264	23,15	3,35
	23≤ - (3)	139	22,71	3,80
	Total	516	22,96	3,45
Control	18-20 (1)	113	19,00	2,81
	21-22 (2)	264	18,84	3,14
	23≤ - (3)	139	18,74	3,19
	Total	516	18,85	3,08
Commitment	18-20 (1)	113	19,35	3,89
	21-22 (2)	264	19,24	3,86
	23≤ - (3)	139	19,00	4,13
	Total	516	19,20	3,93

Table 4.12.

One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) results related resilience levels with regard to age

Dimension of Resilience		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Sig. difference
Challenge	Between Groups	20,33	2	10,16			
	Within Groups	6122,88	513	011,93	0,852	0,427	-
	Total	6143,22	515				
Control	Between Groups	18,95	2	9,47			
	Within Groups	497,22	513	1,19	0,219	0,803	-
	Total	516,18	515				
Commitment	Between Groups	0,20	2	0,10			
	Within Groups	482,68	513	1,15	0,267	0,766	-
	Total	482,88	515				

Results of one way analysis of variance occur that challenge, control and commitment dimensions did not differ significantly by age [$F(2, 513)= 0,852$, $p>.05$; $F(2, 417)= 0,219$, $p>.05$; $F(2, 417)= 0,267$, $p>.05$].

5. Discussion

In this study, firstly, loneliness, automatic thoughts and psychological resilience variables were examined in terms of age variation from demographic variables. When the findings of the study were examined, it was seen that the university students' loneliness, automatic thoughts and psychological resilience levels did not show any significant difference according to age variables. As a matter of fact, Le Roux and Connors (2001) also found that the loneliness levels of university students did not change according to age in their study examining the loneliness levels of two hundred and ninety two university students in terms of sex, age, socio-economic levels. In the research examining the effect of stress coping education on stress coping styles and automatic thought levels, Karaırmak and Çetinkaya (2016) also found that the automatic thoughts of undergraduate students did not change according to age. Similarly, in the study of Aksoy (2016), it was also found that there was no significant difference in terms of automatic thoughts named as incompatible schema variables. Maddi, Khoshaba, Persıco, Harvey & Bleecker (2006) concluded that the total score of psychological resilience and its three different dimensions did not show any significant relationship with age. Therefore, on the basis of these findings, the concepts of loneliness, automatic thoughts, and psychological resilience can be seen equally in every developmental stage regardless of age.

There was a low positive correlation between loneliness and automatic thought levels of university students in the findings of the study. One of the works supporting this situation is the study of Wilbert and Rupert (1986). They have obtained meaningful correlations in their study examining the relationship between dysfunctional attitudes, which are defined as automatic thoughts that one possesses,

and university students' loneliness levels. In the experimental study performed by Duy (2003), the relationship between loneliness and dysfunctional attitudes was questioned and a meaningful relationship was obtained as well. Hoglund and Collison (1989) suggested that there is a meaningful and positive relation between these two variables in their study questioning the relationship between loneliness and Irrational Beliefs, which is a cognitive structure addressed in Ellis' Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT) approach, and which is quite similar to dysfunctional attitudes. In another study interrogating the relationship between irrational beliefs and alienation, which is sometimes used interchangeably with the concept of loneliness, a positive relationship between alienation and irrational beliefs has been asserted (Mahoney, 1999). In a study examining the factors affecting the level of social adjustment of university first-year students, there have been found a positive relationship between dysfunctional attitudes and loneliness which are considered as factors that can have effects on adjustment to the university (Halamandaris & Power, 1997).

According to Young (1982), the prevention of loneliness only begins by addressing the irrational beliefs of individuals, and Young (1982) aims individuals who have such beliefs to evaluate themselves and reorganize their beliefs in his work. Young also mentioned the existence of automatic thoughts that lead to a feeling of loneliness. Based on this, we can say that loneliness can be experienced in different ways, that individuals can be in different "loneliness groups" and that automatic thoughts can cause loneliness.

In another finding of the study, there have been found a low negative correlation between automatic thoughts and challenge, a sub-dimension of psychological resilience; a moderate negative correlation between automatic thoughts and control sub-dimension; and a moderate negative correlation between automatic

thoughts and commitment sub-dimension. It has also been found that automatic thoughts predict moderate levels of control and commitment in a negative way. When the literature is reviewed, it is seen that the relation between automatic thoughts and psychological resilience is limited, and that there are few studies addressing the relationships between automatic thoughts and the sub-dimensions of psychological resilience. In this respect, the related study brings innovation to the field. On the basis of these findings, it can be said that the individuals who use more automatic thoughts cannot be competent in terms of self-regulation, commitment to a certain topic, not giving up in the face of difficulties, being assertive and effectively using coping strategies.

Furthermore, it has been found in the study that there is a low negative correlation between loneliness and challenge, a sub-dimension of psychological resilience; a moderate negative correlation between loneliness and control sub-dimension; a moderate negative correlation between loneliness and commitment sub-dimension. It has been inferred that loneliness predicts low levels of control and commitment in a negative way. In support of these findings, Güloğlu and Kararmak (2010) concluded that there was a significant negative correlation between loneliness and psychological resilience in their studies examining loneliness, psychological resilience and self-esteem in university students. At the same time, Alver, Dilekmen, Seçer, Kodan & Cetinkaya (2013) investigated the relationship between loneliness levels of university students and trustworthiness, social support, and psychological resilience. As a result, loneliness was found to be significantly related to psychological resilience. Moreover, Perron, Cleverley and Kidd (2014) tried to determine whether loneliness has a different relation with resilience than it does with psychological distress among street youth. Results show that homeless youth who

experience higher psychological distress recieved lower resilience scores. However, resilience levels are not significantly related to feelings of loneliness when psychological distress was considered.

 In the light of this information, it can be said that individuals who have a family or other social support system have a better sense of controlling the outcomes of traumatic events, and that they are more optimistic about their future with a sense of being not alone when experiencing problematic situations. On the other hand, it can also lead to a more effective use of social support resources as a result of high psychological resilience.

One of the prominent results of the study is the finding that the level of loneliness, automatic thoughts and psychological resilience did not change according to the common influences of age variables of university students. Since most of the participants are within a certain age group, age may not have a differential effect. That being the case, it is thought that studying the variables with wider age ranges may produce differential and in-depth results.

One of the other significant results was that university students' loneliness and automatic thought levels were found to be not predicting challenge, a sub-dimension of psychological resilience. In other words, the level of loneliness and the level of automatic thoughts do not play a determinative role in challenge. The ability to seize opportunities that are at stake, and to adapt to new situations and environments can be related to the developmental and cognitive processes of university students. In this case, feeling alone or developing false beliefs can result from different personality traits or their ability in adapting to new settings. Students' self-confidence, adaptation skills, social support perceptions and self-esteem can be further studied in support of

this research.

In addition, despite the fact that negative correlation between loneliness and psychological resilience is supported in the literature, studies in which the stress factor affects the relationship between these two variables are included in the literature. Based on this information, it can be said that the stress factor is related to resilience, and that resilience alters its relation with loneliness. To understand the relationship between these two variables in depth and to contribute to future research, one can work with different variables.

6. Results And Suggestions

In this section, some suggestions are presented within the scope of the results based on the general findings that are obtained as a result of the research.

6.1. Results

The main aim of this study, which investigated the relationship between the level of loneliness and the automatic thinking of college students as well as the relationship between psychological resilience and the role of explaining psychological survival, the following results were obtained from the findings obtained in this study:

1. According to research findings, university students' loneliness, automatic thinking and psychological endurance did not differ according to gender.
2. According to research findings, it was seen that there is a meaningful relationship between university students' loneliness levels and automatic thinking levels. It was found that only students have automatic thinking, and that as loneliness levels increase, automatic thinking increases.

3. It has been seen that the loneliness levels of university students are related to their psychological resilience. Psychological resilience of loneliness levels was found to be significantly related to challenge, control and self-promotion sub-dimensions. In other words, it was seen that only the students' psychological resilience levels were lower than those who were not alone and the psychological strengths increased as the levels of loneliness increased.

4. From the independent variables, it has been found that the psychological resilience of automatic thoughts is related to control and self-promotion. It has been seen that university students have a negative impact on their psychological resilience.

5. When we considered the psychological well-being, which is a tool-changer tool, as a dependent variable, it was seen that the control and self-promotion sub-dimension were automatic thinking after loneliness which explains the most. In other words, having loneliness and automatic thinking causes a negative change in terms of psychological resilience.

6. When the research results are evaluated in an integrated manner, the fact that university students' loneliness and automatic thinking levels are high in which psychological resilience is being reduced and control along with self-determination sub-dimensions are explained and reached as conclusion.

6.2. Suggestions

In this section, based on findings and results obtained from the research, some suggestions has been made. These recommendations are addressed separately to field researchers and psychological counselors who provide counseling and guidance.

6.2.1. Suggestions for Field Researchers

1. This research was conducted on young people who are student at the university. On the other hand, based on this research, it is not possible to say whether there is a change and differentiation of psychological resilience of people who are at other developmental periods. Therefore, this may help to keep the age range wide in the future research and to compare the individuals in different developmental periods to get more realistic and holistic results.

2. In this study, loneliness, automatic thinking and psychological resilience were examined in terms of age, gender, class level demographic variables. Considering future work, family or stress factors related to other demographic variables will further help understanding university students in terms of loneliness or negative self-esteem in relation with their psychological health. Besides, individual's personality traits, attachment styles and their effects on their academic achievements can be investigated.

3. The fact that the concept of psychological endurance has been started to be investigated in our country in the recent years shows that there is a need for original researches to investigate this in an experimental and relational way. Therefore, future studies may reveal how this concept works in our country,

the description of aggression in different risk groups and the effects of their approach on psychological resilience. The researches in Turkey on psychological resilience are insufficient. Thus, in different risk groups on psychological resilience and age in children in Turkey with trials to be conducted and adolescents identification of factors contributing to increase resilience and this in line with the survey results may be possible to develop a variety of preventive programs mentioned above. Particularly in the recent period, studies on psychological resilience, which are frequently encountered and prevented from undesirable events such as school violence, aggression and bullying that are beginning to become serious problems for children and society, can offer significant contributions.

4. Literature contributions may be made by university researchers in order to create an important resource for assisting the students in thinking that they constitute a potential risk group in terms of their psychosocial characteristics, their efforts to create identity, their ability to find groups they can feel belong to, or not.

5. The individual differences that affect university students' adaptation efforts, their need for belonging, attitudes toward loneliness, psychological persistence of overcoming the problems in this period can be examined in later researches. Thus, it is possible to elicit other factors which influence the acquisition of psychological resilience in this situation.

6.2.2. Suggestions for Psychological Counselors

1. One of the most important results obtained from this research is that the university students' loneliness and automatic thinking have negative effects on their psychological resilience and psychological symptoms. In this context, there may be more classroom guidance activities and group guidance programs that can help achieve psychological resilience while preparing comprehensive developmental guidance programs.

2. Important factors that affect the psychological resilience of university students are loneliness and automatic thinking. It will be useful to reduce and rebuild negative self-esteem, understand the causes of loneliness, and prepare group guidance programs to deal with them.

3. The fundamental point of raising resilience individuals is that raising them in a way that they understand themselves enough. For this, it is important to increase the qualifications of young people. Young people may be helped to stand strong against risk factors. This depends on improving the resilience properties and protective factors. Durability properties and protective factors preventive and intervention studies can be carried out.

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APPENDICES

Appendix-1: Demographic Information Form

Açıklama: Aşağıda size ait bazı demografik bilgileri öğrenmek amacıyla yazılmış

sorular bulunmaktadır. Lütfen her soruyu dikkatlice okuyup size uygun olan seçeneğin
yanındaki parantezin içine çarpı işareti koyunuz. Katkılarınız için teşekkür ederim.

Burcu DOK

1. Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın ( ) Erkek ( )
2. Yaşınız: …..
3. Bölümünüz?

   ....
4. Sınıf Düzeyiniz: …..

Appendix-2: UCLA Loneliness Scale (Version 3)

UCLA YALNIZLIK ÖLÇEĞİ – III

The UCLA Loneliness Scale (Version 3)

Aşağıdaki ifadeler, bireylerin hissettiklerini tanımlamaktadır. Lütfen, her bir durum için tanımlanan duyguyu ne sıklıkta hissettiğinizi ilgili rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

Örneğin, "Ne sıklıkta kendinizi mutlu hissedersiniz?" sorusu için eğer kendinizi "hiçbir zaman" mutlu hissetmiyorsanız 1'i, eğer "her zaman" kendinizi mutlu hissediyorsanız 4'ü daire içine alınız.

HİÇBİR ZAMAN	NADİREN	BAZEN	HER ZAMAN
1	2	3	4

	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Her zaman
1. Ne sıklıkta kendinizi çevrenizdeki insanlarla uyum içinde hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
2. Ne sıklıkta bir arkadaşın eksikliğini hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
3. Ne sıklıkta başvurabileceğiniz bir kişinin olmadığını hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
4. Ne sıklıkta kendinizi yalnız hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
5. Ne sıklıkta kendinizi bir arkadaş grubunun parçası olarak hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
6. Ne sıklıkta çevrenizdeki insanlarla ortak yönlerinizin olduğunu hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
7. Ne sıklıkta artık hiç kimseye yakın olmadığınızı hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
8. Ne sıklıkta ilgilerinizin ve düşüncelerinizin çevrenizdekilerce paylaşılmadığını hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
9. Ne sıklıkta kendinizi sempatik ve arkadaş canlısı hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
10. Ne sıklıkta kendinizi insanlara yakın hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
11. Ne sıklıkta kendinizi dışlanmış hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
12. Ne sıklıkta diğerleri ile ilişkilerinizin anlamsızlaştığını hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
13. Ne sıklıkta hiç kimsenin sizi gerçekten çok iyi tanımadığını hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
14. Ne sıklıkta kendinizi diğer insanlardan soyutlanmış hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
15. Ne sıklıkta istediğiniz zaman arkadaş bulabileceğinizi hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
16. Ne sıklıkta sizi gerçekten anlayan insanların var olduğunu hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
17. Ne sıklıkta kendinizi içine kapanık hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
18. Ne sıklıkta çevrenizde insanlar olmasına rağmen onların sizinle iletişim içinde bulunmadıklarınıhissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
19. Ne sıklıkta konuşabileceğiniz birilerinin var olduğunu hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4
20. Ne sıklıkta başvurabileceğiniz kişilerin olduğunu hissedersiniz?	1	2	3	4

Appendix-3: Automatic Thoughts Questionnarie (ATQ)

Aşağıda, kişilerin zaman zaman aklına gelen bazı düşünceler sıralanmıştır. Lütfen her birini okuyarak, bu düşüncenin son bir hafta içinde aklınızdan ne sıklıkla geçtiğini yanındaki kutucuğa işaretleyiniz. Samimi yanıtlarınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.	Hiç aklımdan geçmedi.	Ender olarak aklımdan geçti.	Arada sırada aklımdan geçti.	Sık sık aklımdan geçti.	Hep aklımdan geçti.
1.Tüm dünya bana karşıymış gibi geliyor.					
2.Hiçbir işe yaramıyorum.					
3.Neden hiç başarılı olamıyorum.					
4.Beni hiç kimse anlamıyor.					
5.Başkalarını düş kırıklığına uğrattığım oldu.					
6.Devam edebileceğimi sanmıyorum.					
7.Keşke daha iyi bir insan olsam.					
8.Öyle güçsüzüm ki.					
9.Hayatım istediğim gibi gitmiyor.					
10.Kendimi düş kırıklığına uğrattım.					
11.Artık hiçbir şeyin tadı kalmadı.					
12.Artık dayanamayacağım.					
13.Bir türlü harekete geçemiyorum.					
14.Neyim var benim?					
15.Keşke başka bir yerde olsaydım.					
16.Hiçbir şeyin iki ucunu bir araya getiremiyorum.					
17.Kendimden nefret ediyorum.					
18.Değersiz bir insanım.					
19.Keşke birden yok olabilseydim.					
20.Ne zorum var benim?					
21.Hayatta hep kaybetmeye mahkumum.					
22.Hayatım karmakarışık.					
23.Başarısızım.					
24.Hiçbir zaman başaramayacağım.					
25.Kendimi çok çaresiz hissediyorum.					
26.Bir şeylerin değişmesi lazım.					
27.Bende mutlaka bir bozukluk olmalı.					
28.Geleceğim kasvetli.					
29.Hiçbir şey için uğraşmaya değmez.					
30.Hiçbir şeyi bitiremiyorum.					

Appendix-4: Psychological Hardiness Scale (PHS)

PSİKOLOJİK DAYANIKLILIK ÖLÇEĞİ (PDÖ)

Aşağıda insanların yaşam durumlarını betimleyen ifadeler yer almaktadır. Her bir ifadeyi dikkatle okuyarak katılma derecenizi belirtiniz. Okuduğunuz cümlelerin doğru veya yanlış cevapları yoktur, önemli olan sizin kişisel görüşünüzdür. Bu nedenle okuduğunuz cümle üzerinde uzun süre düşünmeden, içinizden gelen ilk cevabı vermeniz gerekmektedir. İlginiz için teşekkür ederim.

0	1	2	3	4
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum

1. Çalışmaktan çok keyif alıyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
2. Hayatın benim için monotonlaşmaya başladığını hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
3. Çok çalışarak her zaman amacıma ulaşabilirim.	0	1	2	3	4
4. Çıkabilecek sorunları önceden kestirerek önlemlerimi alırım.	0	1	2	3	4
5. Devam ettiğim işime/okuluma/mesleğime yürekten bağlıyım.	0	1	2	3	4
6. Hayatımda ilginç ve zaman harcamaya değer şeylerin var olduğunu düşünüyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
7. Her yeni deneyimin yaşamımı zenginleştirdiğini düşünüyorum.	0	1	2	3	4
8. Hep aynı yaşam tarzına bağlı kalmak yerine riskli de olsa yeni şeyler denemeyi tercih ederim.	0	1	2	3	4
9. İnsan hatalarından öğrenir ve gelişir.	0	1	2	3	4
10. Kaderimi değiştirebileceğime inanırım.	0	1	2	3	4

11. Yargılarıma ve kararlarıma daima güvenirim.	0	1	2	3	4
12. Kişisel özgürlüklerimin sınırlandırılmasına genellikle büyük tepki gösteririm.	0	1	2	3	4
13. Kendimle ilgili bir şeyler öğrenmek benim için heyecan vericidir.	0	1	2	3	4
14. "Öldürmeyen şey güçlendirir" cümlesi beni ifade ediyor.	0	1	2	3	4
15. Önceden yaptığım bir programın dışına çıkmak zorunda kaldığımda rahatsız olurum.	0	1	2	3	4
16. Yeni şeyler denemekten hoşlanırım.	0	1	2	3	4
17. Yaşamımda olan önemli değişikleri, kişisel gelişimim için bir fırsat olarak görürüm.	0	1	2	3	4
18. Keyif aldığım etkinliklere düzenli olarak katılırım.	0	1	2	3	4
19. Yarın bana ne olacağı bugün yaptıklarıma bağlıdır.	0	1	2	3	4
20. Yeni bir işe/projeye/göreve başladığımda ayrıntılı bir plan yapmayı tercih ederim.	0	1	2	3	4
21. Yapacak bir şeylerimin olması benim için önemlidir.	0	1	2	3	4