

THE EFFECTS OF PARTICIPATION IN A COMPETITIVE
PROGRAM ON THE CHILD'S SELF-CONCEPT

by

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION, STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND HYPOTHESES

The success of today's youth-oriented programs such as 4-H, Scouting, Campfire Girls, Y-Teens and Boy's Clubs indicates that boys and girls of all ages, races, socioeconomic backgrounds and interests will voluntarily participate in organized extracurricular group activities. An analysis of 1977 membership reports verifies the tremendous impact of these programs. For example, the Virginia 4-H Program conducted by the Extension Division, Cooperative Extension Service, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University reports an enrollment of 217,225 in 1977. Boy Scout officials disclose a 1977 Virginia membership figure of over 50,000. In 1969 "membership in the major traditional youth-serving agencies [in the United States] totaled well over 20 million" (Hanson & Carlson, 1972, p. 5). According to Hanson and Carlson (1972), "there is no question that a majority of the youth growing up in America today belongs to or has had some relation with at least one of the youth agencies" (p. 6).

All of the various youth programs are designed to contribute to the total development of the child--physically, socially, emotionally, and intellectually. As Hanson and Carlson (1972) state: "The successful youth organization does more than meet the basic needs; it helps the individual to reach his fullest potential as a human

being" (p. 23). Nowhere are these goals more evident than in the group's pledge. Two specific examples are: (1) the Boy Scouts who promise to be loyal, trustworthy, thrifty, brave, kind, reverent, and obedient; and, (2) the 4-H members who pledge their Head to clearer thinking, their Heart to greater loyalty, their Hands to larger service, and their Health to better living. One aspect of development not specifically mentioned in the various pledges but which deserves careful consideration is the self-concept. It is this hypothetical psychological entity, "the self" that accounts for acts of self-control and various purposive behaviors that are without rewards or agents of control (Wells & Marwell, 1976). As Carl Rogers (1965) states in his Proposition #12: "Most of the ways of behaving which are adopted by the organism are those which are consistent with the concept of self" (p. 507).

Historically, interest in the origins of the self can be traced back even to the Greeks who speculated about the soul as an entity separate from the body (Diggory, 1966). Although Aristotle and other philosophers never reached unanimity of belief about the soul, they did offer many perspectives. Early Christianity brought the importance of the soul to man's attention. The Church held that it was this entity which distinguished man from animal. Furthermore, each man's soul was believed to be unique. These basic Christian beliefs seemed to be fairly universal during the Middle Ages.

During the 17th and 18th centuries, great thinkers such as Descartes, Leibniz, Spinoza, Berkeley, and Hume vigorously attacked the mind-body controversy (Diggory, 1966). Descartes viewed the processes of the mind as being distinct from the body. Leibniz believed that the mind and body were so different that interaction was impossible without God's intervention. Mind and body were seen as being the same by Spinoza. In the early 1700's, Berkeley proposed that nothing exists but minds. He ignored the physical substance of the body. All that exists according to Berkeley are sensory experiences. Later, Hume employed the term "self" to distinguish between one's own views and those of others. He perceived the mind as consisting of successive perceptions.

In 1890, William James (Principles of Psychology) presented the psychological "I-Me" dichotomy--the self as the knower and that which is known. James defined the self as "the sum total of all that he [man] can call his" (p. 291). He also designated four levels of selves: (1) bodily selves; (2) spiritual selves; (3) material selves; and, (4) social selves. According to James, our overall self-feeling or self-esteem is determined by the ratio of "our actualities to our supposed potentialities; a fraction of which our pretensions are the denominator and the numerator our success: thus,

$$\text{Self-esteem} = \frac{\text{Success}}{\text{Pretensions}} \text{ " (p. 310).}$$

The importance of social interaction in the development of the self-concept was first emphasized by Charles Cooley and George Herbert Mead. In 1902, Cooley introduced the "social me" and popular "looking glass self." He noted three principal elements of the self: "the imagination of our appearance to the other person; the imagination of his judgment of that appearance; and some sort of self-feeling, such as pride or mortification" (p. 152). Two decades later, George H. Mead "accomplished what is considered the most cogent and systematic statement of the development of the self" (Wells & Marwell, 1976, p. 17). He attempted to unite the theoretical perspectives of James and Cooley and organize them "around the usage of symbols which, he postulated, differentiate uniquely human behavior from other forms of interaction" (Wells & Marwell, 1976, p. 17). Mead (1962) succinctly stated that "the language process is essential for the development of the self" (p. 135). Mead presented the "I-Me" dichotomy in the following manner: "The 'I' is the response of the organism to the attitudes of others; the 'Me' is the organized set of attitudes of others which one himself assumes" (p. 175). The unity of the self reflects the structure and unity of the social process as a whole.

Concomitantly, the emerging and increasingly popular psychoanalytic theories of Freud and Jung adopted the concept of the self to accompany the id, ego and superego. Although Freud most frequently employed the concept of ego, he seems to have been referring to the same entity--the self (Diggory, 1966). One major perspective

offered by the psychoanalytic theorists concerned the importance of the unconscious. Jung (1957) states that "the ego knows only its own contents, not the unconscious and its contents" (p. 7). More emphatically, the "real psychic factors" are "for the most part hidden" (p. 7).

In 1951, Carl Rogers' Client Centered Therapy provided a clinical application of self-concept theory. A series of nineteen propositions served as his theoretical framework.

Today, "the self" is a viable construct in the areas of therapy, research, and theory construction. In her review of self-concept research, Ruth Wylie (1961) states that "all theories of personality which have been put forth within the last two decades assign importance to a phenomenal and/or nonphenomenal self-concept with cognitive and motivational attributes" (p. 2). Recently, Wells and Marwell (1976) offered an interesting perspective: "the self involves only that portion of the personality which consists of reflexive or self conscious cognitions and behaviors" (p. 39). Furthermore, the self is (1) "a learned structure acquired through social processes"; and, (2) "a symbolic process based upon language acquisition" (p. 39). The contributions of the early theorists are indeed evident.

The self is not an innate entity; so, when and how does it develop? Carl Rogers (1965) proposes that in early childhood a portion of the perceptual field is recognized as the "I" or "Me." More specifically:

As a result of interaction with the environment, and particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others, the structure of the self is formed--an organized, fluid, but consistent conceptual pattern of perceptions of characteristics and relationships of the "I" or the "Me," together with values attached to these concepts. (p. 498)

The middle-years of childhood (ages 6 to 12) may be the most critical for the development of the self-concept. In their 1976 text, Helms and Turner state: "It is during the middle-years that children experience a rather critical period of personality and social maturation, especially as far as their developing self-concepts are concerned" (p. 292). According to Elizabeth Hurlock (1968), "the child's concept of himself as a person is clarified when he sees himself through the eyes of his teachers and classmates and when he compares his abilities with those of his peers" (p. 296). Long, Henderson, and Ziller (1967) report that the self-concept undergoes marked changes during the middle-years. Individuation of the self definitely increases. In a recent study employing a sample of 6,092 children in grades 1-6, Stevens (1975) noted changes in the structure of the self-concept during these years as reflected by the factor structure of the "Self-Observation Scales." Furthermore, responses to the scale could be used to predict membership in various age groups. Based on his research with 504 elementary school students, Stuckey (1975) suggests that first, third, and fifth grades are "times when decreases in self-concept may be expected in low achievers" (p. 1282). It also appears that boys may have "more negative

self-concepts in primary grades than girls" while girls appear to have more negative self-concepts in the upper elementary grades (p. 1282). To the contrary, Andrews (1976) found that primary grade boys (3rd graders) scored higher on a self-concept measure than girls. Hare (1976), however, reports "no significant differences in any measure of self-esteem at this preadolescent age (5th graders) by sex" (p. 4350). Possibly marked changes in self-concept are fairly complete by early adolescence.

Piaget (1950) describes the middle-years as a period of transition from the concrete operations of childhood to the formal, hypothetico-deductive propositional processes of the adolescent and adult. One result of this major cognitive change is a decline in egocentrism. The child in the late middle-years is able to consider another's point of view and reciprocal relationships. He is able to shift perspectives; yet, as Elkind (1970) proposes, he remains firm to his "assumptive realities" (hypotheses about himself) even in the face of bold truth. The structure of the self continues to develop out of the child's direct experiences and his distorted perceptions of others' evaluative comments, values, and concepts (Rogers, 1965). Critical evaluations are modified to fit his developing self-concept. According to Rogers (1965): "As experiences occur in the life of the individual, they are either (a) symbolized, perceived, and organized into some relationship to the self, (b) ignored because there is no perceived relationship to the self-structure, (c) denied

symbolization or give a distorted symbolization because the experience is inconsistent with the structure of the self" (p. 503).

The child behaves in ways consistent with his own unique concept of himself. An awareness of his self-concept provides better understanding of his behavior. Dinkmeyer and McKay (1973) view the self-concept as "the key to understanding his [the child's] uniqueness" (p. 23). Another adult-child interaction theorist, Haim Ginott (1961), states that the child seeks "clarity of image" (p. 40). In Parent Effectiveness Training, Thomas Gordon (1975) emphasizes that "children often become what their parents tell them they are" (p. 32). Fortunately, the self-structure is open to modification. Previously denied experiences may be accepted into consciousness whenever there is complete absence of threat to the self. Rogers (1965) refers to the process as revision "to assimilate and include such experiences" (p. 517). The desired state of personality development, according to Rogers, is a "basic congruence between the phenomenal field of experience and the conceptual structure of the self" (p. 532). When such congruence is achieved, there is freedom from anxiety, internal strain, and even potential strain. An individualized value system develops which has "considerable identity with the value system of any other equally well-adjusted member of the human race" (Rogers, 1965, p. 532).

Specific determinants of the child's self-concept which have been studied include the parent-child relationship, the family atmosphere,

and the school environment (Thomas, 1973). Social interaction is an inherent component in all three areas. As the child enters the middle-years, his social world expands beyond the familiar home environment. He enters the exciting world of school. He is also invited and often strongly encouraged to join various youth organizations (i.e., Scouting, 4-H, Campfire Girls, etc.) which further contribute to his developing self-concept. Although there are many similarities in objectives and functions between these groups, certain major differences do exist: (1) focus of objectives; (2) membership requirements; (3) philosophy of program development; (4) role of the professional; and, (5) the types of programs made available (Hanson & Carlson, 1972). One major difference in the area of program philosophy and development is the emphasis placed on competition and awards.

The number and type of competitive events and activities available to members of youth groups vary from program to program. Awards are used "to a great extent" as a motivating factor to encourage members "to participate in activities previously unknown to them" (Hanson & Carlson, 1972, p. 62). However, as Hanson and Carlson (1972) conclude: "Sometimes the award rather than the knowledge of or enjoyment of the activity, becomes the goal . . ." (p. 62). Scouting emphasizes the "me against myself" approach. Boys, 8 to 17 years of age, accomplish specific skills in order to attain badges of competence. "Y" programs focus mainly on group or team competitive

events especially in the various areas of athletics. The "English System of Awards" which recognizes only a certain number of winners is utilized. In 4-H, children, 9 to 19 years of age, compete against their peers for either a Blue, Red, or White Award. Each participant receives one of the three awards according to this "Danish System of Awards."

Several youth organizations, including 4-H, have expanded their awards programs to include certain competitive activities for children in the middle-years. In amateur athletics, this has long been an accepted practice (i.e., little league baseball and midget football). Why offer such competitive events? The National 4-H Council in its latest Handbook (1977) cites the following rationale for the "National 4-H Awards Program" (designed more specifically for senior age members, 14-19 years of age):

- (1) interests a large number of 4-H members and/or will attract more boys and girls into 4-H;
- (2) motivates 4-H members to greater activity;
- (3) develops the spirit of cooperation as well as a spirit of competition;
- (4) gives all 4-H members equal opportunity for recognition; and,
- (5) provides for a high ratio of award recipients to individual and/or group participants. (p. 11)

Are these objectives also relevant for the increasing number of younger competitors? What about possible effects on the self-concept? As William James proposed, the ratio of success to pretensions

determines one's level of self-esteem. Any form of competition, regardless of the type of awards system, "involves a direct social comparison" (Davidson, 1976, p. 5342-B). Logically, for every winner or first place recipient, there must be non-winners (losers) and lower place recipients. Some children experience success; others experience failure.

Before more competitive programs are initiated for children, an empirical examination of the effects of participation in competitive activities on the child's developing self-concept is needed. As Vance and Richmond (1975) stated:

. . . lowering of children's self-esteem has been pointed out as one of the possible effects of competition, yet such a relationship has not been empirically validated. (pp. 226-227)

Much is at stake for as Thomas Gordon (1975) proposes: "A poor self-concept formed in childhood has a tendency to persist into adulthood" (p. 114).

Statement of the Problem

The major problem of this study is to ascertain if participation in competitive programs affects the self-concepts of male and female children, 7 to 14 years of age, of different ethnic origins. If it is determined that participation in a competitive program has negative effects on the child's self-concept, many current youth programs will need to be re-examined and revised. Should positive effects be noted, additional competitive activities for children might be

developed. In either case, information on the effects of participation in two competitive programs on the child's self-concept will enhance all youth-oriented program planning. Improved understanding of factors influencing self-concept development will also contribute to the present research base and shed additional light on existing theoretical perspectives.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis I

Participation in a competitive program which employs the "Danish System of Awards" negatively affects the child's self-concept.

Hypothesis II

Participation in a competitive program which employed the "English System of Awards" negatively affects the child's self-concept.

Hypothesis III

There is interaction between race of the child and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept.

Hypothesis IV

There is interaction between age of the child and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

Research related to the effects of competition on the self-concept seems to cluster in three major areas: (1) the effects of success and failure experiences on the self-concept; (2) the effects of competition in physical training programs on the self-concept; and, (3) cooperation and competitive behaviors. Also relevant to the proposed study is research focusing specifically on the effects of camping on the child's self-concept. It should be noted that the self-concept is frequently equated with self-esteem either implicitly or explicitly. As Wells and Marwell (1976) recommend, it is probably more appropriate to focus on "specific self-structures or processes" such as self-esteem, self-perception, or self-evaluation rather than the hypothetical psychological entities of the concept "the self" (p. 57). A universally accepted operational definition of this much used concept does not exist. Each consideration and use must be examined in its own structure and theoretical framework.

Success and Failure and the Self-Concept

Competition implies either success or failure, for it is a comparison activity. Among the most typical and efficiently conducted investigations of the effects of competition on the self-concept are those involving artificially induced success and failure

experiences. Changes in levels of self-concept or self-esteem and/or task performance are measured immediately following positive or negative feedback. However, in the Piers-Harris Manual, the following warning is issued:

It is our opinion that self-attitudes are relatively stable, although probably less so in childhood than in adolescence. This means that studies which attempt to measure change after a single laboratory event, or a week's camping experience, etc. may not find significant differences. Long term studies are, therefore, recommended. (Piers, 1969, p. 18)

Fry (1976) predicted that subjects who experience success would make more positive gains in social interest, power, individuation, egocentricity and self-esteem than subjects who experienced failure. Sixty (60) middle-class high school students were grouped into three categories: (1) those who would experience success; (2) those who would experience failure; and, (3) a control group. Five dimensions selected from the Self-Social Symbols Task, a measure of self-other relationships, were administered. Esteem was defined as "the value or importance attributed to the self in comparison with others" (p. 45). Favorable or unfavorable verbal feedback was presented immediately following the completion of three intellectual tasks. Posttests were then administered. As hypothesized, the adolescents who experienced failure (unfavorable feedback) showed a decline in self-perception of esteem, power, and social interest as compared to those subjects in success or control situations. "Success

experiences heightened self-perceptions of esteem and individuation, and failure experiences lowered self-perceptions of power and social interest" (p. 48).

Similar findings are reported by Callison (1974). Positive and negative feedback had differential affects on self-concept scores of third graders. The twenty-eight (28) students were randomly assigned to two groups. The first forty items (one-half) of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale were administered to all participants. The children were then asked to complete a teacher-constructed mathematics test. Upon finishing, both groups were sent to the library for a short rest period. One group ($N = 14$) was then asked to return to the testing site. These students were told that they did very poorly on the math test. The second half (items 41-80) of the Piers-Harris was then completed by these subjects. The remaining students then returned. They were told that they did very well on the math test. Then they completed the Piers-Harris. A comparison of pre- and post self-concept scores revealed that for three-fourths of the failure group the scores decreased. Although two-thirds of the scores for the success group became more positive, the actual increase was not statistically significant. Callison concluded that negative feedback does have a detrimental affect on the child's self-concept.

Level of self-esteem in conjunction with success and failure feedback has been found to affect performance on contrived tasks.

Shrauger and Rosenberg (1970) elicited the cooperation of 36 college males from introductory psychology classes. All subjects completed the Self Description Inventory and the Adjective Check List. Two tasks were then presented: (1) a digit symbols task and (2) the Feldman-Collier Personality Inference Inventory. Success or failure was determined by the experimenter who marked either a large number of the answers right or a large number wrong. Fictitious norms were then given for comparative purposes. A second type of digit symbols test was then administered followed by a retest using the Adjective Check List. Shrauger and Rosenberg reported that "task performance following failure was poorer than that following success" (p. 416). Subjects with low levels of self-esteem did much poorer following negative feedback. Success feedback did improve performance for the high self-esteem subjects. There were "no significant performance changes for the high self-esteem failure and low self-esteem success subjects" (p. 416). In other words, appreciable changes in performance were noted only when feedback was consistent with the student's general level of self-evaluation.

Gruendel (1971) also investigated the effects of positive and negative feedback on level of self-esteem and performance. Sixty (60) white, male adolescents performed contrived tasks following the completion of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory. Twenty-four received positive feedback; the same number also received negative feedback; and twelve received no feedback. All subjects

were then asked to repeat certain tasks. As hypothesized, low self-esteem subjects who received positive feedback changed more responses than high esteem subjects who received the identical feedback. The consistency factor reported by Shrauger and Rosenberg (1970) was not observed.

The tendency to maintain one's level of self-evaluation was, however, noted by Silverman (1964). College students ($N = 76$) were categorized on the basis of responses to a modified self-esteem measure developed by Janis and Feld. A quiz on contemporary affairs was administered and corrected. Falsified norms were presented to create success or failure experiences. Responsiveness to a second quiz was recorded. Silverman found that students with high levels of self-esteem were "generally more responsive to success experiences than to failure" (p. 115). Low self-esteem subjects were less responsive to success than to failure. Both limited their cognitive input to information which was "congruent with their self-image" (p. 118).

Perez (1973) proposed that people with high levels of self-esteem strive to improve their performance if they are not satisfied with their initial endeavors while low esteem individuals accept their negative performance. He administered the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory to sixty-four (64) male and thirty-two (32) female undergraduate students followed by the Witkins Embedded Figures Test (Form A). Subjects were assigned either to the control or failure group. They were then asked to solve two series of Raven's Matricies

with the experimental group's being more difficult to solve. Control group members then took Form B of the Witkins test. The experimenter checked the failure group's papers in their presence and made negative comments. These students were then give Form B. As hypothesized, subjects with high levels of self-esteem worked faster during the second administration of the Witkins test. A non-significant increase in speed of performance characterized the low esteem group. No change was noted among the control group subjects.

In his study of "defensive externalization," Dudley (1976) asked subjects to "make causal attributions" regarding their performance on an experimental machine game as rated by bogus success or failure feedback (p. 4684). He observed that subjects low in self-esteem attributed greater responsibility to internal sources than did high esteem subjects; those with high self-esteem levels attributed greater responsibility to internal sources in the success than in the failure condition; and, low self-esteem subjects attributed greater responsibility to internal sources in the failure situations than in the success conditions. In general, cognitive defense styles are operative with high self-esteem subjects believing in themselves and their abilities while individuals low in self-esteem blame themselves for their failures.

Task performance is understandably related to task enjoyment. Leonard and Weitz (1971) found that success on a task is important

in overall task enjoyment with "low self-esteem subjects enjoying success as much or more than high self-esteem subjects" (p. 420).

Educators have also recognized that children do strive to maintain consistency between performance and level of self-concept. Crowley (1973) used a positive reinforcement conditioning procedure to enhance the self-concepts of disadvantaged fifth grade children. He found that higher reinforcement rates resulted in the greatest improvement.

Freichs (1971) examined the association between level of self-esteem of lower socioeconomic black children and academic achievement. He discovered that "youngsters who had a higher degree of school success as measured by grade point averages and reading level scored significantly higher on the Self-Esteem Scale than did the less successful students" (p. 119).

The effects of the "traditional school system" as compared to "schools without failure" and the child's self-image and attitudes were examined by Vochko (1976). Four hundred Pennsylvania elementary school children participated in the study. It was found that the students in the "schools without failure" made greater gains in language arts and mathematics than did children in the traditional programs. There was also "a significant difference in student gain in self-image and attitude in Schools Without Failure as compared with students in Traditional Elementary Schools" (p. 5814-A). Vochko concluded that "the child develops a positive self-identity because of his success and acceptance of peers" (p. 5814-A).

Kaufman (1976) compared the effects of two specific marking and reporting methods (narrative vs. traditional letter grades) on school performance, self-concept, and attitude of fifth grade children. He categorized the traditional letter-grade method as being competitive since it "rates a child's academic performance in relation to a set standard or class norm" (p. 6041). Care was taken to insure that the children had only been exposed to one of the methods during their entire educational careers. Kaufman did not find any differences in total self-concept scores, however, the "self-concept of academic ability" was higher for those students under the narrative method. These students (narrative) also expressed "more positive attitudes toward themselves as learners than students who received letter-grade report cards" (p. 6041).

The effects of success and failure on overall achievement motivation have been extensively investigated by David McClelland and associates (1976). In their research at Wesleyan University, subjects responded with stories to a series of Thematic Apperception Test pictures. Success and failure conditions were induced by manipulating norms for task performance on anagrams tests. It was found that "the affective state of subjects following success is more positive than it is following failure" (p. 153). These results appeared to confirm earlier claims by McClelland "that success and failure relative to some standard of excellence are accompanied by significant changes in affect" (p. 154). Furthermore, the obstacles or blocks to achievement met by the characters in the various stories were "perceived to

a greater degree as being due to environmental differences than due to personal shortcomings" (p. 155). Defense mechanisms appeared operative. Although a positive affective state appeared to be associated with active mastery and definite accomplishment while a negative state was associated with failure to attain a goal, McClelland and associates recognized an important limitation of their research:

The biggest single gap in our knowledge at the present time lies in the fact that we cannot distinguish clearly a positive from a negative affective reaction, although what appear to be secondary reactions to positive and negative affect (i.e., approach and avoidance) are readily distinguished. (pp. 332-333)

Research indicates that success and failure experiences do affect one's self-concept, emotions, and task performance. Most of the studies involve limited samples of adolescent or college students and rely on the measurement of change immediately following positive or negative feedback. The present study was unique in several aspects. First, the sample consisted of 148 male and female children ranging in age from 7 to 14 years from various socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds. The child's initial level of self-concept was ascertained on the first day of the experiment. Success and failure experiences were presented selectively on the following three days. On the fifth day, self-concept levels were again measured. This time schedule should have controlled for what might have been only immediate changes in level of self-concept. In contrast to many other investigations, the present study did not involve verbal

feedback. Instead, children received concrete rewards (i.e., ribbons and certificates). This procedure should have controlled for possible verbal communication errors. According to Carson and Rabin (1971), Negro and White children do differ in verbal communicative abilities. More specifically, "Northern white children, of comparable non-verbal work comprehension abilities, manifest higher levels of verbal communication than Northern negro children, and in turn Northern negro children manifest higher levels of verbal communication than Southern negro children" (p. 505). Carson and Rabin propose that "verbal comprehension and verbal communication seem to be two different functions" (p. 506). To avoid the possible threat of personal bias, the experimenter was not involved in either the treatment procedures or the presentation of awards.

Competition in Physical Training and the Self-Concept

Physical education specialists have long been interested in the effects of competition on the child's self-concept. Their investigations usually involve the comparison of self-concept levels before and following specific physical training programs.

Ludwig and Maehr (1967) examined the affects of success and failure experiences in a physical training program and task enjoyment as related to changes in self-concept. Measures of self-concept were taken prior to the training tasks. An "expert" then

expressed his approval or disapproval irrespective of the subject's actual performance. It was found that "increases in self-concept rating and in preference for directly related physical activities followed the approval treatment" (p. 453). A change in self-concept brought about changes in the direction of behavior for these seventh and eighth grade boys.

Seventh grade males also served as subjects in a study by McGowan, Jarman, and Pedersen (1974). Their goal was to ascertain the effects of a physical training program on self-concept and peer approval. The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale and a sociogram were administered to thirty-seven low self-esteem students. Half of the subjects participated in the Cooper 12 Minute Run, a cardiovascular fitness program. Posttests were then administered. An increase in level of self-concept was noted for those students who participated in the fitness program. Peer approval did not show any change. The authors concluded that if you feel better about your body, you feel better about yourself.

The "influence of competitive and non-competitive programs of physical education on body-image and self-concept" was investigated by Read (1969). A Body-Cathexis Test was used to measure body-image. Self-concept was determined with the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. Approximately half of the subjects ($N = 37$) participated in a competitive physical training program. No significant differences were noted in body-image and self-concepts of those who participated in

this experience when compared to the thirty-two subjects who participated in the non-competitive program. Read did find that "those subjects who were constant winners had significantly higher positive body-image and self-concept scores than did those subjects who were constant losers" (p. 4312). According to Read, the critical point at which losing begins to have a detrimental effect needs to be determined.

Wilkin (1964) attempted to find support for the assumption that "interschool competition in athletics has a desirable effect on personality" (p. 277). He compared self-ideal scores of participants in seventh grade athletic programs ($N = 40$) with non-participants ($N = 41$). He found that "participants tended to raise their self and ideal 'arbitrary' scores more than did non-participants, indicating higher aspiration levels, as well as higher self-concepts" (p. 277).

Participation in physical training programs can affect the child's self-concept. Success seems to be the most important factor whether in the form of observable physical improvement or verbal approval. Losing appears to have a detrimental effect, however, the critical factors have not yet been determined.

The present study involved a type of physical training experience. All children participated in a daily crafts program which involved limited manual dexterity and coordination skills. A

different activity was offered each day in an attempt to provide tasks that met the interests and abilities of all participants. The youngsters were expected and encouraged to complete their crafts projects daily.

Cooperation and Competitive Behavior

Cooperative and competitive behaviors do not appear compatible. However, one of the basic purposes of the 4-H Awards System is to develop "the spirit of cooperation as well as a spirit of competition" (Handbook, 1977, p. 11). Recently, certain investigators have attempted to consider the relationship between the self-concept and cooperative-competitive behaviors.

Vance and Richmond (1975) analyzed the effects of sex, race, and self-concept on the cooperative-competitive behavior of children. Based on Carl Rogers' theory, they proposed that the cooperative-competitive behaviors of children would be "significantly influenced by their self-concepts" (p. 226). Furthermore, the "lowering of children's self-esteem has been pointed out as one of the possible effects of competition, yet such a relationship has not been empirically validated" (pp. 226-227). The subjects were 240 children 8 to 12 years of age who attended rural Southeast elementary schools. Children were paired according to race (black or white) and scores on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale "in order to enable high self-concept children to compete with other high self-concept

children (H-H); high self-concept in competition with low self-concept (H-L); and low self-concept with other low self-concept (L-L)" (p. 226). Each pair participated in a circle matrix board game designed to elicit cooperative or competitive behaviors. Cooperation was defined as the fewer moves in the game and/or the more prizes the children won by working together. Vance and Richmond found that black children were more cooperative than white children. Low self-concept children were more cooperative than high self-concept children. In general, "a cooperative attitude is not compatible with a high concept of self" (p. 228). Boys and girls did not differ in competitive-cooperative game strategies.

In an earlier study, Richmond and Weiner (1973) employed a similar method but included racially mixed pairs of children. The 216 first and second grade youngsters received prizes for their performance on the Madsen Cooperation Board under both a group-reward condition and an individual-reward condition. It was found that cooperative competitive behavior appeared to be a "function of both reward condition and ethnic grouping" (p. 333). Black children working together were less competitive and more cooperative than pairs of white children. Black and white children working together were less competitive than pairs of white children, but more competitive than pairs of blacks. Sex differences were not noted. Furthermore, the older children appeared to be more competitive possibly as a result of maturation, social experiences and school.

Based on this research, it might be anticipated that black children in the present study would be less competitive; therefore, the effects of participation in a competitive program on their self-concept would be less significant. Research by Rosenberg and Simmons (1971) did not, however, reveal any differences in self-esteem between black and white children. It might also be expected that the effects of competition on the older child's self-concept would be greater since he is more likely to be highly competitive. Differences with respect to sex of participant will probably be insignificant.

Effects of Camping on the Child's Self-Concept

Research focusing on a variety of youth-oriented camping situations indicates that the camping experience has a positive effect on the child's self-concept. Four specific investigations will be discussed.

Fifth grade youngsters ($N = 124$) participating in an eight day camping program were studied by Davidson (1965). He noted positive changes in their self-concepts as a result of this experience.

Raymond (1968) examined the effects of an eleven day camping program for underprivileged children ($N = 621$). Favorable changes in the self-concepts of the campers ($N = 577$) as compared to the non-campers ($N = 44$) were observed. Most importantly, Raymond found

the greatest change occurred among children in the low self-concept group. Age and sex were not found to be significant factors.

The emotional and social growth of "school campers," children who attend a special camp during the school year as part of the school curriculum, were investigated by Becker (1960). He reported "significant and marked positive changes in self-concepts" by the campers (p. 356). Retesting after a 10 week lapse revealed "even greater" differences (p. 356). Becker explained that possibly growth processes started at camp were continuing. Only a slight positive influence on the children's social relationships was revealed.

Kreiger (1970) examined the influence of an organized camping experience which operated on the principles expounded by Carl Rogers in Client Centered Therapy. Subjects were 181 middle-class youngsters from Jewish homes. The Lipsitt Self-Concept Scale was employed on the first and last days of the four week program. An upward trend in self-concept scores was noted for the experimental group ($N = 110$ campers). Only a slight positive shift in self-concept scores was found in the control group ($N = 71$) non-campers). "No differential effect as a result of age or sex" was observed (p. 39). Kreiger concluded that "the unique combination of factors inherent in the well run, organized camp contributes to positive self-concept change and hence growth as a person" (p. 47).

Possible effects of the camping experience itself will be taken into consideration in the present study. The research design should

expose overall positive or negative changes in the self-concepts of participants.

Task Performance, Opponent Competency, and Children's Needs

The review of literature has also revealed three additional research endeavors relevant to the proposed study. Each will be discussed followed by implications for the proposed study.

McNelly (1974) explored "the relationships of self-concept, task performance, and status within a small group, competitive situation" (p. 4024-B). The subjects for his study were Boy Scouts attending a summer camping session. The boys were assigned to four teams with one member being appointed as the leader who was given charge for the efficiency and success of his team. The leader also received certain privileges. The experimenter, his teammates, and he himself evaluated his performance as a leader. McNelly found that his feeling of self worth was consistent with his established status and social role within his peer role system.

Subjects for the present study also participated in a camping program. Specifically, they were 4-H members (7 to 14 years of age) attending Jamestown 4-H Educational Center in Jamestown, Virginia. The camping experience provides an intense, controlled experimental situation in a natural setting. According to Dimock and Hendley (1929), camping is a controlled, unified and complete life experience void of conflict and pressure from the home, school and gang.

The relationship between opponent competency, success and failure experiences and performance has been investigated by Davidson (1976). He discovered that college students with high levels of self-esteem "performed best after 'failing' against an incompetent opponent" (p. 5342). Those subjects characterized as being low in self-esteem "performed worst after 'failing' against an incompetent opponent" (p. 5342). In the light of these findings, it was essential that in the present study awards be presented entirely on the basis of merit. It is highly possible that children do recognize each other's competencies. If the effects of participation in a competitive program are to be valid, the experimental situation must be as natural as possible.

Maycock (1974) has examined the "status of children's needs in relation to contest participation" (p. 3147-A). The specific needs investigated were self-esteem, physical coordination, and achievement motivation. Competitive successes were compared with these needs. Maycock found that the contest-oriented girls (a group of Baton Twirlers) were not different from non-contest oriented girls (a group of Campfire Girls) regarding "self-esteem, achievement motivation and physical coordination" (p. 3147-A). Furthermore, "percentage and number of wins, number of contests entered, scores on achievement motivation and physical coordination could not predict scores on self-esteem" (p. 3148-A).

Children who participated in the present study varied in their degree of contest orientation. Many were first year 4-H members who have not had an opportunity to participate in any structured contest. Others may have been veterans of many years of demonstration and illustrated talk contests. It could be reassuring to know that Maycock found no difference in the self-esteem levels of contest and non-contest oriented girls. However, her dichotomy--contest vs. non-contest--might be questioned. How can it be safely assumed that all Campfire Girls are non-contest oriented? Some of the girls may have also belonged to other youth organizations which emphasized contest participation.

Chapter III

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Selected Characteristics of the Sample

A total of 155 children, 7 to 14 years of age, participated in the study; however, due to incomplete information, seven cases could not be considered. These youngsters attended the August 15-19, 1977 camping session (see Appendix A: "Daily Camp Schedule") at the Jamestown 4-H Educational Center, Jamestown, Virginia. The study was conducted during this five day period. All of the subjects had at some time during 1976-1977 been involved in at least one 4-H educational program (i.e., in-school projects, special interest workshops, television clubs, and/or traditional 4-H community clubs) in either the City of Norfolk or the City of Virginia Beach. The children had voluntarily elected to attend this camping program. Furthermore, parental permission had been obtained prior to their participation in the research project.

The majority (77.7%) of the total sample ($N = 148$) cited as their place of residence the City of Norfolk. Thirty-three children (22.3%) reported their homes as being in the City of Virginia Beach. As indicated in Table 1, all of the campers from Virginia Beach were white while the majority (79.1%) of Norfolk participants ($N = 115$) were black. Although these two tidewater cities are neighboring, there are marked socioeconomic differences. According to the 1976 Virginian Pilot-Ledger Star Market Analysis, the median income of Norfolk families was \$10,885.00

Table 1
City of Residence by Race of Participants
(N = 148)

City of Residence	Race		Number of Participants
	White	Black	
Norfolk	24	91	115 (77.7%)
Virginia Beach	33	0	33 (22.3%)
Total	57	91	148 (100.0%)

compared to a median income of \$16,006.00 for Virginia Beach families. Norfolk residents are involved mainly in light industry, services, and the military. Virginia Beach relies on its two multimillion dollar industries--tourism and agriculture. Beach residents also seek the professional business related jobs the City of Norfolk provides. Thanks to the Virginia Beach-Norfolk Expressway, easy access into and out of Norfolk is available. The Population Profile: Virginia issued in 1976 projects that in 1980 35.1% of the total City of Norfolk population (275,000) will be black as compared to only 7.5% of the Virginia Beach population (242,000).

Of the 115 children from Norfolk, 87 or 58.8% of the total sample received special federally funded "CETA" scholarships (see Table 2). In order for these youngsters to have qualified for these monies:

- (a) their family had to be receiving public assistance;
- (b) at least one parent had to be a recently discharged veteran who had not made more than the family income guidelines; or
- (c) their total family income had to be below income guidelines as indicated in Table 3.

Twelve Norfolk females received privately funded "Girls Camp Scholarships." These monies were also distributed on the basis of economic need. A total of 99 children (66.9% of the total sample), all from the City of Norfolk, received financial support in order to attend the 4-H camping session. Special scholarships were not available for Virginia Beach youngsters.

As revealed in Table 4, 63.5% ($N = 94$) of the sample were females and 36.4% ($N = 54$) were males. This proportion differs from 1977

Table 2
 Scholarship Status by City of Residence
 (N = 148)

Type of Scholarship	City of Residence		Total	Percent
	Norfolk	Virginia Beach		
"CETA" Scholarship	87	0	87	58.8%
Girls Camp	12	0	12	8.1%
No Scholarship	16	33	49	33.1%
Total	115	33	148	100.0%

Table 3
CETA Income Guidelines

Size of Family Unit ^a	Nonfarm Family Income
1	\$2970
2	3930
3	4890
4	5850
5	6810
6	7770

Source: (U.S. Department of Labor: 1977)

^aFor family units with more than 6 members, add \$960 for each member in a nonfarm family.

Table 4
Sex of Participants by Race
(N = 148)

Sex	Race		Total Number of Participants	Percent
	White	Black		
Male	26	28	54	36.5%
Female	31	63	94	63.5%
Total	57	91	148	100.0%

Virginia 4-H enrollment trends--52% female and 48% male. Sixty-three females and twenty-eight males, 61.5% of the total sample ($N = 148$), were black. All of these children were from the City of Norfolk.

Only two (1.0%) of the participants were not of sanctioned 4-H membership age, 9 - 19 years--a seven year old from Virginia Beach and an eight year old from Norfolk. The median age of the total sample was 11.13 years with 69.6% ($N = 103$) of the children being 10-12 years of age (see Table 5). Although the camping session was designed specifically for junior age 4-H'ers (9 to 13 years of age), four participants were 14 years old. This is possible due to birthdays after the designated pre-registration dates. The researcher is unable to explain the presence of the seven and eight year olds. Since the research instrument is designed for use with children 7 to 17 years of age, all completed cases were included in the analysis.

The most typical participant was female, 11 years of age, black and from the City of Norfolk. Most likely, this ideal type child received some form of financial aid in order to attend camp.

Prior to their arrival at camp, the children were randomly assigned to four groups or "tribes" which also served as the four experimental groups: (1) the Pamunky; (2) the Mattaponi; (3) the Passapaheague; and (4) the Chickahominy. This random assignment was made by using a composite alphabetical listing of all participants and the table of random numbers found in Babbie's The Practice of Social Research (1975)(see Appendix B). The first tribe consisted of 35 children or 24% of the total sample. In this tribe there were fifteen males and

Table 5
Age of Participants
(N = 148)

Age in Years	Number of Participants	Percent
7	1	0.7%
8	1	0.7%
9	17	11.5%
10	31	20.9%
11	38	25.7%
12	34	23.0%
13	22	14.9%
14	4	2.7%
Total	148	100.0%

twenty females (see Table 6). Of the males, eleven were white and four were black. Fifteen of the twenty females were black. The one seven year old in the sample was a member of this group. As Table 7 indicates, 68.5% ($N = 24$) of these children were 10 to 12 years of age. Two of the four fourteen year olds in the total sample were in this tribe. In the second tribe, the Mattaponi, 72.2% of the members were females as revealed in Table 8. Of the ten males, five were white and five were black. These children ranged in age from 9 to 13 years with the majority ($N = 25$) being 10 to 12 years of age (see Table 9). Group 3 consisted of 15 males and 18 females. It is interesting that there were also 15 white children and 18 black children as indicated in Table 10. The majority ($N = 26$) of the 33 children in this group were also 10 to 12 years old. The other two fourteen year olds in the samples were members of this tribe (see Table 11). The fourth tribe, the Chickahominy, was somewhat larger than the other three groups. Of the 44 members, 30 (68.2%) were females. As illustrated in Table 12, 11 males and 22 females were black--75% of the group. The one eight year old in the total sample was a member of this tribe. Most of the children ($N = 28$) ranged in age from 10 to 12 years as indicated in Table 13. The children were given color coded name tags prior to their arrival at camp on Monday which indicated their tribe membership. They had also been informed of the "tribal" system.

The children retained membership in their tribe the entire week. A few, however, decided on their own to switch tribes mid-week. These

Table 6
Sex by Race of Group 1 Members
(N = 35)

Sex	Race		Total	Percent
	White	Black		
Male	11	4	15	42.9%
Female	5	15	20	57.1%
Total	16	19	35	100.0%

Table 7
Age of Group 1 Members
(N = 35)

Age in Years	Number	Percent
7 years	1	2.9%
9 years	2	5.7%
10 years	9	25.7%
11 years	8	22.9%
12 years	7	20.0%
13 years	6	17.1%
14 years	2	5.7%
Total	35	100.0%

Table 8
Sex by Race of Group 2 Members
(N = 36)

Sex	Race		Total	Percent
	White	Black		
Male	5	5	10	27.8%
Female	10	16	26	72.2%
Total	15	21	36	100.0%

Table 9
Age of Group 2 Members
(N = 36)

Age in Years	Number	Percent
9 years	5	13.9%
10 years	8	22.2%
11 years	11	30.6%
12 years	6	16.7%
13 years	6	16.7%
Total	36	100.0%

Table 10
Sex by Race of Group 3 Members
(N = 33)

Sex	Race		Total	Percent
	White	Black		
Male	7	8	15	45.5%
Female	8	10	18	54.5%
Total	15	18	33	100.0%

Table 11
Age of Group 3 Members
(N = 33)

Age in Years	Number	Percent
9 years	4	12.1%
10 years	7	21.2%
11 years	7	21.1%
12 years	12	36.4%
13 years	1	3.0%
14 years	2	6.1%
Total	33	100.0%

Table 12
Sex by Race of Group 4 Members
(N = 44)

Sex	Race		Total	Percent
	White	Black		
Male	3	11	14	31.8%
Female	8	22	30	68.2%
Total	11	33	44	100.0%

Table 13
Age of Group 4 Members
(N = 44)

Age in Years	Number	Percent
8 years	1	2.3%
9 years	6	13.6%
10 years	7	15.9%
11 years	12	27.3%
12 years	9	20.5%
13 years	9	20.5%
Total	44	100.0%

actions created the invalid, incomplete cases. Games, classes, athletics, and other activities were oriented around tribe participation. There were also special tribe meetings or "pow-wows" daily.

Design and Methods

At the first group meetings or "pow-wows" on Monday, August 15, 1977, children in Groups 1, 2, and 3 were asked to complete the first forty items (1-40) of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale ("The Way I Feel About Myself"--see Appendix C). This research instrument is designed for use with youngsters 7 to 17 years of age. It consists of basic identification, classificatory items (excluding race of respondent which was obtained from the camp attendance roster) and eighty descriptive items which reflect concerns that children have about themselves in six major areas: (1) behavior; (2) physical appearance; (3) intellectual and school status; (4) anxiety; (5) popularity; and (6) happiness and satisfaction. A key for scoring and norms based upon data from a Pennsylvania school district are available in the test manual (Piers, 1969). This instrument is well designed for a split-half procedure since both halves (items 1-40 and items 41-80) contain 18 negative (i.e., "I behave badly at home") and 22 positive (i.e., "I am a happy person") items. As recommended by the authors, the statements were read aloud by the test administrator, the researcher, to insure maximum understanding. A group of teen volunteer leaders provided individual assistance for youngsters who had difficulty responding.

All participants were encouraged to complete each item with either a "yes" or "no" response.

Reliability and validity studies of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale present favorable results. Piers and Harris (1964) employed the Kuder-Richardson 21 Procedure and a sample of 109 third graders. They reported reliability coefficients of .90 for the 56 girls and .93 for the boys. Based on a test-retest analysis, Wing (1966) obtained a coefficient of .77 ($N = 244$). Callison (1974) had favorable results with a split-half procedure in her investigation of the effects of success and failure feedback on the child's self-concept. Mayer (1965) compared scores on the Piers-Harris with scores on the Lipsitt Children's Self-Concept Scale. He noted a correlation coefficient of .68 ($N = 98$). Cox (1966) asked 97 children in grades 6-9 to complete the Piers-Harris. He then requested that they check their biggest problems as listed on the SRA Junior Inventory. Cox correlated the two to obtain a coefficient of $-.64$. As he expected, children with positive self-concepts cited fewer big problems. Freidman (1976) found that "neither ethnicity nor social class subgroups exerted significant influences on particular components of the self-concept as measured by the Piers-Harris" (p. 5144).

On Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday, the children participated in a 45 minute crafts program conducted by a resident camp staff instructor. Tuesday's class involved the children in Indian folklore. They made head bands out of leather strips and lacing. On Wednesday, the campers scavenged for items to be included in their nature collages which were

completed during Thursday's class. At the end of each session, a member of the camp staff judged the completed crafts. All Group 1 members, the Pamunky tribe, were awarded ribbons according to the "Danish System of Awards." The children were informed that blue ribbons would be considered the best, followed by red, then white. All of the children ($N = 35$) received an award according to this system which is used in the Virginia 4-H program. Only the top six subjects, based on their crafts accomplishments, in Group 2 received ribbons as specified by the "English System of Awards." Blue was considered to be the highest award followed by red, white, yellow, green, and pink. The work of the children in Groups 3 and 4 was not judged. No ribbons were awarded to these campers.

On Friday morning, August 19, special group meetings or "pow-wows" were held. All the children reported to the testing site by tribes where they completed the last forty items (items 41-80) of the Piers-Harris. The same basic administration procedures employed on Monday were repeated. The researcher read the statements aloud. The same teen volunteer leaders assisted those children who had difficulty responding. Each child was then given a special "Certificate of Participation."

The full cooperation of the resident camp staff, the camp director, and volunteer leaders was ever present. Although the researcher was not directly involved in the crafts instruction, judging process, or the awarding of ribbons, he was available to answer any questions.

The experimental design employed in this study was a modification of the "Solomon Four-Group Design" (Campbell and Stanley, 1968):

Group 1 (Pamunky): Randomization-Pretest-Treatment(Danish)-Posttest

Group 2 (Mattaponi): Randomization-Pretest-Treatment (English)-Posttest

Group 3 (Passapaheague); Randomization-Pretest-No Treatment-Posttest

Group 4 (Chickahominy): Randomization-No Pretest-No Treatment-Posttest

Two groups of subjects (Groups 1 and 2) experienced randomization, pre-testing, treatment and posttesting rather than only one. This procedure was necessary since the effects of two different types of competitive programs were being investigated. This design controls for the main effects of testing and the potential interaction of testing and the experimental treatment.

The Analysis of Data

All data were transferred directly from the test booklets published by Counselor Recordings and Tests (Nashville, Tennessee) to computer cards. Each card was carefully examined for possible errors in either coding or punching. After both halves of the Piers-Harris had been scored, the data were analyzed using statistical procedures relative to each hypothesis. Male and female responses were also considered independently.

Hypothesis I

Participation in a competitive program which employs the "Danish System of Awards" negatively affects the child's self-concept.

$$H_0: M_{\text{pretest}} = M_{\text{posttest}}$$

$$H_a: M_{\text{pretest}} > M_{\text{posttest}}$$

A t test of the significance of the difference between two means for two dependent samples was employed. This procedure is also referred to as the correlated t test. An alpha level of .05 served as the basis for rejection.

Hypothesis II

Participation in a competitive program which employs the "English System of Awards" negatively affects the child's self-concept.

$$H_0: M_{\text{pretest}} = M_{\text{posttest}}$$

$$H_a: M_{\text{pretest}} > M_{\text{posttest}}$$

A t test of the significance of the difference between two means for two dependent samples was employed in the consideration of this hypothesis. An alpha level of .05 served as the basis for rejection.

Hypothesis III

There is interaction between race of the child and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept.

$$H_0: M_{11} = M_{12} = M_{13} = M_{21} = M_{22} = M_{23}$$

$$H_a: M_i \neq M_j \text{ for some } ij$$

A two-way analysis of variance procedure was employed to determine the interaction between variables as specified in this hypothesis. Multiple regression analysis was used to ascertain the amount of variance contributed by the independent variables, race and the type of competitive program.

Hypothesis IV

There is interaction between age of the child and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept.

$$H_0: M_{11} = M_{12} = M_{13} = M_{21} = M_{22} = M_{23} = M_{31} = M_{32} = M_{33}$$

$$H_a: M_i \neq M_j \text{ for some } ij$$

A two-way analysis of variance and multiple regression as discussed under Hypothesis III were employed in the analysis of data relative to this hypothesis. Age was grouped into three categories: (1), 7, 8, and 9 years; (2) 10 and 11 years; and (3) 12, 13, and 14 years.

Chapter IV

RESULTS

As recommended by Campbell and Stanley, posttest scores of the four groups were first compared. A one-way analysis of variance procedure was employed in order to reveal possible treatment effects. Mean posttest scores of the four groups ranged from 29.8055 to 32.0454. As reported in Table 14, a nonsignificant ($p > .05$) F ratio was obtained. No treatment effects were noted.

The data were also analyzed by sex of participant. As indicated in Table 15, group mean posttest scores for the 94 females ranged from 28.3846 to 33.1333. The analysis of variance procedure resulted in a F -ratio of 4.183 ($df = 3, 90; p < .05$). The Newman-Keuls Procedure, a multiple comparisons test, revealed that the mean posttest score of Group 2 females was significantly different from all other groups. More specifically, the mean posttest score was lower than that of the other three groups. When the posttest scores of the male participants ($N = 54$) were examined, a nonsignificant F -ratio (1.118; $df = 3, 50; p > .05$) was obtained.

In summary, differences in posttest scores for the four groups was not discovered. When the data were reanalyzed by sex of participant, a significant difference was noted for the females but not for the males.

Table 14
ANOVA Table--Posttest by Group
(N = 148)

	<u>df</u>	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	<u>F</u>	<u>F</u> Prob.
Between groups	3	120.6583	40.2194	1.339	0.2642
Within groups	144	4325.8062	30.0403		
Total	147	4446.4609			

Table 15
Mean Posttest Scores by Group and Sex
(N = 148)

Group	Males	Females	Total Group
Group 1	31.2667 (N = 15)	32.3500 (N = 20)	31.8857 (N = 35)
Group 2	33.5000 (N = 10)	28.3846 (N = 26)	29.8055 (N = 36)
Group 3	30.0000 (N = 15)	31.6667 (N = 18)	30.9091 (N = 33)
Group 4	29.7143 (N = 14)	33.1333 (N = 30)	32.0454 (N = 44)

Hypothesis I

Participation in a competitive program which employs the "Danish System of Awards" negatively affects the child's self-concept.

A t test of the significance of the difference between two means for two dependent samples was employed. The mean pretest score for Group 1 subjects who had competed under the "Danish System" was 30.571 (maximum = 40.000). The mean posttest score for this group was 31.886, an increase of 1.315 points. Pretest and posttest scores were positively correlated (r = .60834). As reported in Table 16, a t value of -1.71 (df = 34) was obtained. This statistic was significant at the .05 level; therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_0: M_{\text{pretest}} = M_{\text{posttest}}$) was rejected. Participation in a competitive program which employed the Danish System had a positive effect on the child's self-concept.

Multiple regression analysis revealed that 37% of the variance in these posttest scores could be accounted for by the pretest. An additional 2% of the variance was accounted for by the independent variable, sex of participant. All remaining variance was unexplained.

When the data were reanalyzed by sex of participant, a t of -1.39 (df = 19; p > .05) was obtained for female participants (N = 20). The examination of the male responses (N = 15) resulted in a t of -1.000 (df = 14; p > .05). Neither of these t values was significant.

Table 16

T Table--Group 1: Pretest-Posttest Comparison
(N = 35)

	<u>N</u>	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	<u>T</u> Value	<u>df</u>	1 Tail Probability
Pretest	35	30.5714	5.643	0.954	-1.71	34	0.048
Posttest		31.8857	4.192	0.709			

Hypothesis II

Participation in a competitive program which employs the "English System of Awards" negatively affects the child's self-concept.

The same procedures employed in the analysis of Group 1 data relative to Hypothesis I were used in the examination of Group 2 data relative to Hypothesis II. Pretest and posttest means for this group which consisted of 36 members were 29.333 and 29.8055 respectively. Pretest and posttest scores were positively correlated ($r = .75398$). As reported in Table 17, the correlated t test resulted in a non-significant ($p > .05$) t value. The null hypothesis of no difference was not rejected. Participation in a competitive program which employed the "English System of Awards" did not apparently affect the child's self-concept.

Multiple regression analysis revealed that the pretest accounted for 56% of the posttest variance. Sex of participant accounted for an additional 14% of the variance and age accounted for 5% more. Thus, a total of 75% of the variance in posttest scores was explained.

The breakdown of responses by sex resulted in certain interesting findings. For female respondents ($N = 26$), pretest and posttest means were 29.1154 and 28.3846 respectively. A t value of 0.92 ($df = 25$; $p > .05$) was obtained. When only male responses were examined ($N = 10$), a t value of -3.86 ($df = 9$; $p < .05$) was observed. Pretest and posttest means were 29.9000 and 33.5000 respectively, an increase of 3.6000 points. Thus, males were positively affected by participation in this competitive program.

Table 17

T Table--Group 2: Pretest-Posttest Comparison
(N = 36)

	<u>N</u>	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	<u>T</u> value	<u>df</u>	1 Tail Probability
Pretest	36	29.333	5.772	0.962	-0.67	35	0.235
Posttest		29.8055	6.187	1.031			

Control Group Comparisons

Children in the control group, Group 3, were pretested and post-tested but did not participate in a competitive program. The mean pretest for this group of 33 members was 30.303. A posttest mean of 30.909 was recorded. Pretest and posttest scores were positively correlated ($r = .82855$). When subjected to the correlated t test, a t value of -0.86 was obtained ($df = 32$; $p > .05$).

Multiple regression analysis revealed that 68% of the posttest variance was accounted for by the pretest, 2% by sex of participant, and 6% by age of participant. A total of 76% of the variance in posttest scores was therefore explained.

When control group female responses ($N = 18$) were examined, a t value of -0.39 ($df = 17$; $p > .05$) was observed. The mean pretest score was 31.2778 compared to 31.6667 for the posttest. For male responses ($N = 15$) a t value of -0.84 ($df = 14$; $p > .05$) was obtained. The mean pretest score was 29.1333 compared to 30.000 for the posttest.

Hypothesis III

There is interaction between race of the child and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept.

A two-way analysis of variance procedure was used to determine if there was interaction between the two independent variables, race and type of competitive program, with level of self-concept. As reported

in Table 18, a nonsignificant ($p > .05$) F -ratio was obtained. The null hypothesis was not rejected. No interaction between race of the child and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept was noted.

When the sample was broken down into sex of participant, a F -ratio of 2.118 ($df = 2, 14$; $p > .05$) was obtained for the females ($N = 64$). The analysis of male responses ($N = 40$) resulted in a F -ratio of 4.429 ($df = 2, 14$; $p < .05$). The significance of this F -ratio necessitated the plotting of interactions as illustrated in Table 19.

Multiple regression analysis revealed that in Group 1, race accounted for less than 1% of the variance in posttest scores. In Groups 2 and 3 it accounted for only one percent of the variance.

Hypothesis IV

There is interaction between age of the child and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept.

A two-way analysis of variance procedure was conducted after responses had been grouped into three age categories: (1) 7, 8, and 9 year olds; (2) 10 and 11 year olds; and, (3) 12, 13, and 14 year olds. As reported in Table 20, a nonsignificant ($p > .05$) F -ratio was obtained. The null hypothesis was not rejected. No interaction was noted between age of the child and type of competitive program with level of self-concept.

When only female responses were considered ($N = 64$), analysis of variance yielded a F -ratio of 0.9743 ($df = 4, 8$; $p > .05$). For males

Table 18

Schematic Representation of Hypothesis III
($N = 104$)

		<u>Race of Respondent</u>		
		Black	White	
<u>Type of Competitive</u> <u>Program</u>	Danish	M = 31.8421 (N = 19)	M = 32.0625 (N = 16)	31.9428 (N = 35)
	English	M = 29.6190 (N = 21)	M = 30.0666 (N = 15)	29.8055 (N = 36)
	Control	M = 31.5000 (N = 18)	M = 30.2000 (N = 15)	30.9091 (N = 33)
		30.9310 (N = 58)	30.2000 (N = 46)	

Note: F-ratio = 2.009

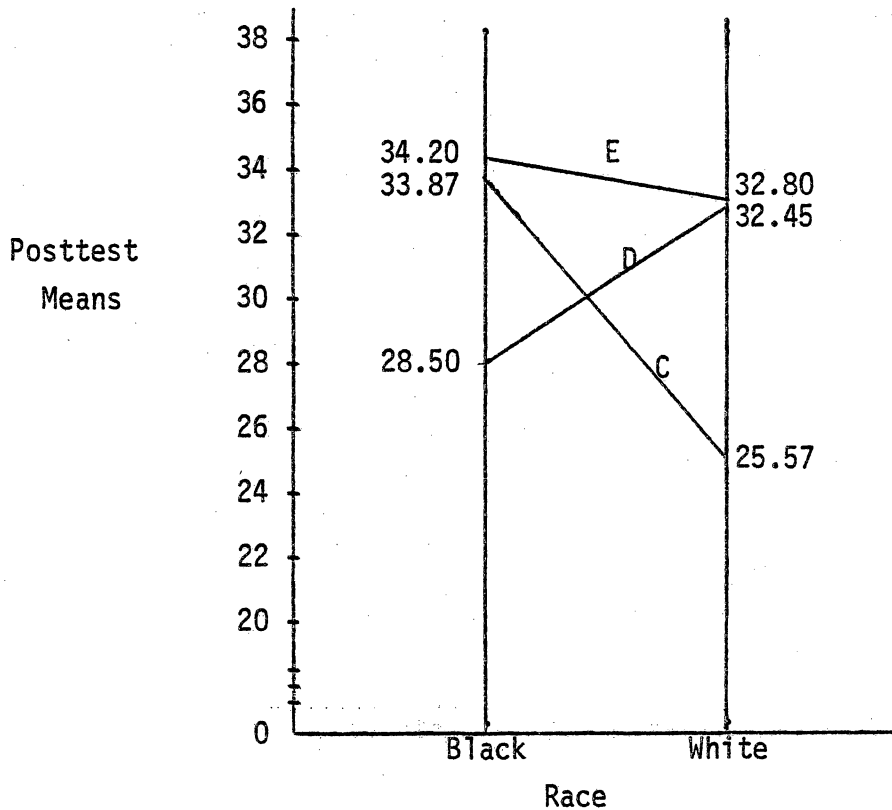
df = 2, 24

p > .05

Table 19

Plot of Interactions: Males (Groups, 1, 2, 3)
($N = 40$)

	Type of Competitive Program			
	Danish	English	Control	
<u>Race of Respondent</u>				
Black	28.5000 (N = 4)	34.2000 (N = 5)	33.875 (N = 8)	32.7058 (N = 17)
White	32.4545 (N = 11)	32.8000 (N = 5)	25.5714 (N = 7)	30.4348 (N = 23)
	31.4000 (N = 15)	33.5000 (N = 10)	30.0000 (N = 15)	



Key: D = Danish
E = English
C = Control

Table 20
 Posttest Mean Distribution by Age
 (N = 104)

	Type of Competitive Program			
	Danish	English	Control	
<u>Age</u>				
7-9 years	33.333 (N = 3)	31.4000 (N = 5)	27.5000 (N = 4)	30.5833 (N = 12)
10 and 11 years	31.2352 (N = 17)	29.8421 (N = 19)	30.0714 (N = 14)	30.3800 (N = 50)
12-14 years	32.333 (N = 15)	29.0833 (N = 12)	32.6000 (N = 15)	31.5000 (N = 42)
	31.8857 (N = 35)	29.8055 (N = 36)	30.9090 (N = 33)	

F-ratio = 0.877

df = 4, 8

p = 0.481

($N = 40$), a F -ratio of 0.086 ($df = 4, 8$) was obtained. The probability of this statistic is greater than .05. No interaction was noted.

In Group 1, age accounted for none of the variance in posttest scores. However, in Groups 2 and 3 age accounted for five and six percent of the variance, respectively.

Chapter V

DISCUSSION

In order to ascertain overall treatment effects, posttest means of the four groups were examined by utilizing a one-way analysis of variance procedure. (Campbell and Standley (1968) recommend such a comparison when the "Solomon Four-Group Design" or modifications thereof are employed in an experimental study.) No significant differences in mean posttest scores of the four groups were indicated ($F(3, 144) = 1.339, p > .05$). Thus, it appeared that participation in the two competitive systems had no effect on the child's self-concept.

When the data were analyzed by sex of participant, certain differences in posttest means were, however, noted. More specifically, the comparison of female posttest scores of the four groups using the analysis of variance procedure resulted in a F -ratio of 4.183 ($3, 90; p < .05$). At least two of the mean posttest scores differed significantly. The multiple comparisons test revealed that the mean posttest score of Group 2 females was significantly different from the mean posttest scores of the other three groups of females. This group had the lowest mean posttest score (28.3846). Group 2 females who participated in the competitive program which employed the "English System of Awards" had a significantly lower mean posttest score than females in Groups 1, 3, and 4. The mean pretest score

for this group was also lower than the mean pretest scores of the other groups. No treatment effects were noted for males.

These findings provide some support for those of Fry (1976) and Callison (1974). In Group 2, only six of the thirty-six children received awards daily. The others experienced failure. This failure feedback may have resulted in the significantly lower mean posttest scores for the female participants. In the other competitive group (Group 1), all children received an award daily. Absolute failure was not possible. However due to the nature of this system, it is impossible to predict the level of success or failure perceived by the children in this somewhat graded system. Kaufman (1976) found that students who were involved in the narrative rather than the traditional letter graded system expressed "more positive attitudes toward themselves as learners than students who received letter-grade report cards" (p. 6041). Specific differences in level of self-concept were not noted. In a somewhat similar study, Vochks did discover that elementary school children in "schools without failure" made significant gains in self-image and attitudes about themselves.

Since mean posttest scores of the four groups were not significantly different, it might be argued that the maintaining of self-concept levels or the consistency factor described by Shrauger and Rosenberg (1970) and Silverman (1964) was indeed evident. In other words, the children strived to maintain their prior self-concept

levels. Mean pretest and posttest scores for Groups 1, 2, and 3 do not support this proposition. In all three groups an increase in mean self-concept scores is noted. Actually, 53 scores increased, 37 decreased, and only 14 remained the same.

Research in the area of physical training and self-concept reveals that such experiences can enhance self-concept scores. Ludwig and Maehr (1967), McGowan, Harman, and Pedersen (1974), and Wilkin (1964) report that participation in various physical training programs increased the self-concept scores of early adolescent males. The crafts program which served as the basis for the experimental treatments did involve a limited amount of physical training. This experience may have also had an effect. Females might have felt less competent than males in certain physical skills.

Whether or not the awards and concomittant success and failure experiences affected the children's desires to achieve the assigned crafts tasks is not known. McClelland (1976) proposed "that success and failure relative to some standard of excellence are accompanied by significant changes in affect" (p. 154). Based on observations during the crafts classes and the actual completion of crafts interest in the program did not appear to decline during the week. Providing a different task daily may have helped keep motivation high.

The comparison of posttest means revealed certain differences relative to sex of participants. Further consideration of intra-group changes in self-concept levels as specified in Hypotheses I and

II is warranted. It should also be noted that although the subjects were randomly assigned to the four experimental groups, the "tribes" were not equivalent with respect to sex and/or racial composition. More specifically, Group 1 ($N = 36$) consisted of 15 males, 11 of whom were white, and 20 females, 15 of whom were black. Group 2 ($N = 35$) was seventy-two percent female. In Group 3 ($N = 33$) there were 15 males (7 white and 8 black) and 18 females (8 white and 10 black).

Hypothesis I

Participation in a competitive program which employs the "Danish System of Awards" negatively affects the child's self-concept. Pretest and posttest scores of the 35 youngsters who participated in the competitive crafts program under the Danish System were compared using a t test of the significance of the difference between two means for two dependent samples. The mean pretest score was 30.571 and the posttest mean was 31.886, an increase of 1.315 points. Contrary to the hypothesis, an increase rather than a decrease in self-concept scores was noted. The t test resulted in a significant $t(34) = -1.71$, $p < .05$. The null hypothesis ($M_{\text{pretest}} = M_{\text{posttest}}$) was rejected. Participation in the competitive program employing the Danish System of Awards resulted in a significant increase in self-concept scores in this situation. Under this system which is employed by the Virginia 4-H program, all the children ($N = 36$)

received an award daily. Complete failure was not possible, although the degree of success experienced by the blue ribbon winners as compared to the red and white winners is not known.

When the data were analyzed taking into consideration the sex of the participants, a correlated t value of -1.39 ($df = 19$, $p > .05$) was obtained for the 20 females, 15 of whom were black. The examination of male pre- and posttest scores ($N = 15$) resulted in a t of -1.000 ($df = 14$; $p > .05$). Neither of these t values was significant; however, both values were negative indicating an increase in scores.

Multiple regression analysis revealed that 37% of the variance in posttest scores of Group 1 could be accounted for by the pretest. An additional two percent of the variance was accounted for by sex of participant. Only 39% of the total variance was explained.

Research by Fry (1976), Callison (1974), and Vochko (1976) focusing on the effects of success and failure on the child's self-concept is supported by these findings. The success experiences provided in the Danish System did result in a significant increase in the level of self-concept. The physical training involved in the crafts program also may have made an additional positive contribution.

The consistency factor cannot be supported in this particular situation. Of the 35 participants in this group, 18 increased in self-concept scores, 13 decreased, and only 4 remained the same. Furthermore, the statistical significance of the increase in self-concept level dispels this proposition.

Hypothesis II

Participation in a competitive program which employed the "English System of Awards" negatively affects the child's self-concept. The initial comparison of posttest means of all four groups revealed that the posttest mean of Group 2 which consisted of 36 youngsters who participated in the competitive crafts program under the English System was not significantly different from the posttest means of the other three groups. However, as Table 15 indicates, the mean posttest score for this tribe was lower than those of all other groups.

An examination of mean pretest and posttest scores (29.333 and 29.805) for this group revealed an increase of 0.4722. The correlated t test resulted in a nonsignificant t (35) = -0.67; $p > .05$.

When the data were broken down by sex of participant and analyzed, further insight was obtained. For the 26 female respondents, pretest and posttest means were 29.1154 and 28.3846 respectively. As discussed earlier, the mean posttest score for this group of females was significantly lower than those of the other three groups. The decline in self-concept scores experienced by these girls was not, however, significant (t (25) = 0.92; $p > .05$). Of these females, the self-concept scores of 12 decreased, 7 increased, and 7 remained the same. When only male responses ($N = 10$) were considered, a significant t (9) = -3.86, $p < .05$ was obtained. Pretest and posttest means for this group were 29.000 and 33.5000, an increase of

3.6000 points. Thus, females were not significantly affected by participation in this type of competitive program while males were positively affected. These findings must be cautiously interpreted due to the sample composition (Females = 26; Males = 10).

Multiple regression analysis revealed that the pretest accounted for 56% of the posttest variance. Sex of participant accounted for an additional 14% of the variance and age accounted for 5% more. Therefore, a total of 75% of the variance in posttest scores was explained. Sex of participant was an influential factor as might be anticipated due to sample composition.

The English System was considered to be more competitive than the Danish System which was employed with Group 1 members because only six awards were presented daily. Thirty children experienced failure. Based on previous success and failure research, it was hypothesized that a negative effect on the child's level of self-concept would be observed. The initial posttest comparison did not reveal that the mean posttest score of the total group was different from those of the other groups. However, for females in this group the posttest scores were significantly lower.

The comparison of pretest and posttest scores did not support the earlier finding. A slight but nonsignificant decline was noted when the female scores were compared. Unexpectedly, this competitive experience resulted in a significant increase in male scores. The predominance of females (72% of the group) probably offset the increase in male scores.

These findings may indicate that males enjoy or are more immune to negative effects of competition than females. Males might also be more competitive in a situation where females are in the majority. Research by Vance and Richmond (1975) and Richmond and Weiner (1973) revealed that males and females did not differ in cooperative-competitive behaviors and level of self-concept. In the area of physical training and self-concept, Ludwig and Maehr (1967) and McGowan, Jarman, and Pedersen (1974) employed only male subjects. Both of these studies revealed that participation in the training program resulted in increases in self-concept scores. Certainly these physical training experiences were not of equal quality for all participants. Possibly it was the participation itself that was the contributing factor for males rather than the approval of others or the personal gratification.

The consistency factor did not receive support. Of the 36 subjects, 28 experienced some change in their self-concept scores. In general, female scores declined while male scores increased.

The 33 youngsters in the Control Group (Group 3) did not participate in any type of competitive program. Pretest and posttest means were 30.303 and 30.909. The correlated t test revealed a nonsignificant t (32) = -0.86, $p > .05$. Furthermore, no significant differences were noted when responses were examined by sex of participant. The researcher did observe that the children in this group were extremely upset when they first found out that they would not be receiving

ribbons for their crafts. Several males initially refused to complete their projects. Others passively complied with the instructor's requests. This anxiety was not observed on the second and third days. However, a few children continued to ask why they were not getting ribbons. The crafts instructor handled this situation tactfully by explaining that the campers in the Pamunky and Mattaponi tribes were participating in a different type of crafts program.

The second major aspect of the study focused on two possible interactions: (1) race and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept; and, (2) age and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept. These potential relationships were examined as specified in Hypotheses III and IV.

Hypothesis III

There is interaction between race of the child and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept. A two-way analysis of variance procedure was used to determine possible interaction. Mean posttest scores for the 58 black and 46 white children are reported in Table 18. Although whites in groups 1 and 2 attained a higher mean self-concept score than blacks, the F -ratio (2, 24) = 2.0009; $p > .05$ was not significant. No interaction was indicated between race and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept.

The sample was then broken down into sex of participant and analyzed. When the 64 female responses were considered, a non-significant $F(2, 14) = 2.118$, $p > .05$ was obtained. The analysis of male responses ($N = 40$) resulted in a $F(2, 14)$ of 4.429 which was significant ($p < .05$). An interaction was indicated. As demonstrated in Table 19, all possible interaction were plotted. White males in Group 1 ($N = 11$) had a higher mean posttest score than the black males ($N = 4$) in that group. Under the English System, Group 2 black males ($N = 5$) had a much higher mean posttest score than their white peers ($N = 5$). In the control group, the white males ($N = 7$) had a lower mean posttest score than the black males ($N = 8$). It appears that the self-concepts of black males were positively affected by participation in the more competitive English System.

These findings are especially interesting in the light of research conducted by Vance and Richmond (1975) and Richmond and Weiner (1973). Based on their work it was anticipated that black children would be less competitive; therefore, the effects of participation in a competitive program on their self-concepts would be less significant. The present findings do not support this expectation. Based on the research by Rosenberg and Simmons (1971), it was assumed that no appreciable racial differences in self-esteem existed. Thus, the black males in this sample appeared to have profited more from

the highly competitive "English" experience than the white males. It must, however, be noted that this group consisted of only 10 males (5 white and 5 black).

White males in Group 1 had a higher mean posttest score than their black peers. Due to the disproportionate number of whites ($N = 11$) any conclusion must be speculative.

In summary, overall interaction between race of the child and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept was not discovered. As expected, multiple regression analysis revealed that in Group 1, race accounted for none of the variance in posttest scores. In Groups 2 and 3, it accounted for only 1% of the variance. The observed differences with respect to sex of participant must be carefully scrutinized due to the sample composition.

Hypothesis IV

There is interaction between age of the child and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept. Richmond and Weiner (1973) reported that older children in their study of first and second graders appeared to be more competitive than younger children. In the present study, children were grouped into three age categories: (1) 7, 8, and 9 year olds; (2) 10 and 11 year olds; and, (3) 12, 13, and 14 year olds. Posttest scores of these three groups were compared with respect to their particular competitive group membership. As reported in Table 20, a nonsignificant F ($p > .05$) was obtained. No

interaction between age of the child and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept was indicated.

When only female responses were considered ($N = 64$), the two-way analysis of variance procedure resulted in a F -ratio of 0.9743 (4, 8); $p > .05$. A F -ratio of 0.086 (4, 8); $p > .05$ was obtained when only male responses were examined. A significant interaction was not noted for either males or females.

Age accounted for none of the variance in posttest scores in Group 1. In Groups 2 and 3, it accounted for five and six percent of the variance respectively.

Based on these findings, age does not appear to be a significant factor in determining the effects of participation in a competitive program on the level of self-concept. It is essential to consider the homogeneity of this sample. Approximately 70% of the children were between the ages of 10 and 12 years. If a group of adolescents or younger children had been included, the findings may have been quite different.

Chapter VI

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions are based on findings in specific, unique situations. As self-concept theories continue to develop and mature, findings serve as the basic nutrients. The present study has resulted in several conclusions which must be considered in the light of the research design and sample composition. Since this was an experimental investigation, all effort was made to control as many extraneous variables as possible, reduce random or error variance, and emphasize the contributions of the independent variables.

Yet, certain limitations must be considered. First and probably foremost, the sample was predominately black, female, and homogeneous with respect to age of participants. Furthermore, at least 77% of the subjects were inner city children. This is not representative of the 4-H population in Virginia. Nor is it possible to speculate that it is a representative sample of the 4-H membership in Norfolk or Virginia Beach. During the study, it was impossible to control for informal peer group reinforcement. Even though the children were involved in "tribe" or group activities most of the day, a substantial amount of free time was available for socializing. The reinforcement or lack of it from peers may have affected the child's self-concept. It was obvious that during the week certain youngsters served as self appointed "peer leaders." These children could have

provided evaluative reinforcement as well. It is also possible that some of the campers in Groups 1 and 2 did not even view the crafts program as being at all competitive compared to other familiar events (i.e., 4-H contests, athletic programs, and grades in school). In addition, the actual reinforcement value of the ribbons probably varied from child to child. Certain youngsters could not have cared less about winning a ribbon while others wanted nothing more. And most importantly, one child's perception of success may have been another's perception of failure. With these limitations exposed, five major conclusions will be presented.

Conclusions

1. Participation in a competitive program which employs the "Danish System of Awards" has a positive effect on the self-concepts of children 7 to 14 years of age. However, the relationship between the specific award received (i.e., blue vs. red vs. white) and the degree of the effect on self-concept level is not known. Youth serving agencies which employ this type of awards system (i.e., 4-H) should continue to monitor the involvement of children in competitive events and activities with special sensitivity to the drop out rate.

2. Participation in a competitive program which employs the "English System of Awards" appears to have a negative effect on the

self-concepts of female youngsters 9 to 13 years of age. Males, especially black males, are positively affected by such competitive experiences.

3. For males, there is a relationship between race of the child and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept. More specifically, white males have higher levels of self-concept under the "Danish System" than black males. Black males have higher self-concept scores under the "English System."

4. The self-concept of the 7 to 14 year old child is malleable. Whether or not the observed changes in self-concept level will be long lasting is not known. Longitudinal research is needed in order to substantiate any permanent effects.

5. The twelfth theoretical proposition presented by Carl Rogers in Client Centered Therapy (1965) is supported.

Recommendations

1. This study should be replicated preferably with a larger sample that is more representative with respect to race, sex, and place of residence of participants.

2. Differences relative to the specific award received must be ascertained. More specifically, the differential effects of blue vs. red vs. white awards must be determined.

3. Research is also needed to determine if the practice of combining the "Danish and English Systems of Awards" has an effect on the child's self-concept.

4. Further research focusing on the effects of camping on the child's self-concept is needed in the light of the present growth and future expansion plans of these educational programs. This research would also be highly beneficial in shaping and directing federal and state legislation regarding youth camping programs.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

DAILY CAMP SCHEDULE

Monday, August 15, 1978

10:00-12:00 Arrival
 12:00- 1:00 Lunch
 1:00- 1:30 Assembly
 1:30- 2:15 Test for Swimming
 (Gp. 3)
 Pow-Wow & Store
 (Gp. 1)
 Recreation (Gp. 2)
 Camp Tour (Gp. 4)
 2:15- 3:00 Test for Swimming
 (Gp. 1)
 Pow-Wow & Store
 (Gp. 2)
 Recreation (Gp. 4)
 Camp Tour (Gp. 3)
 3:00- 3:45 Test for Swimming
 (Gp. 2)
 Pow-Wow & Store
 (Gp. 4)
 Recreation (Gp. 3)
 Camp Tour (Gp. 1)
 3:45- 4:30 Test for Swimming
 (Gp. 4)
 Pow-Wow & Store
 (Gp. 3)
 Recreation (Gp. 1)
 Camp Tour (Gp. 2)
 4:30- 5:30 Free Swim (all)
 5:30- 6:30 Dress for Dinner
 6:00- 7:00 Dinner
 7:00-10:00 Evening Program*
 10:30 Lights Out

Friday, August 19, 1978

7:15- 7:30 Wake-Up
 7:30- 7:45 Flag Raising
 7:45- 8:30 Breakfast
 8:30-11:30 Clean Up, Pow-Wows,
 Free Swim
 11:30-12:00 Assembly
 12:00- 1:00 Lunch
 1:00 Depart for Home

Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday

7:15- 7:30 Wake-Up & Clean Cabins
 7:30- 8:30 Breakfast
 8:30- 9:00 Clean-Up
 9:00- 9:45 Classes #1
 Crafts (Gp. 3)
 Nature Study (Gp. 1)
 Special Guests (Gp. 2)
 4-H Spirit (Gp. 4)
 9:45-10:30 Classes #2
 Crafts (Gp. 1)
 Nature Study (Gp. 2)
 Special Guests (Gp. 4)
 4-H Spirit (Gp. 3)
 10:30-11:15 Classes #3
 Crafts (Gp. 2)
 Nature Study (Gp. 4)
 Special Guests (Gp. 3)
 4-H Spirit (Gp. 1)
 11:15-12:00 Classes #4
 Crafts (Gp. 4)
 Nature Study (Gp. 3)
 Special Guests (Gp. 1)
 4-H Spirit (Gp. 2)
 12:00- 1:00 Lunch
 1:00- 1:30 Pow-Wow and Store
 1:30- 4:30 Recreation
 4:30- 5:30 Swim or Share-the-Fun
 5:30- 6:00 Dress for Dinner
 6:00- 7:00 Dinner
 7:00-10:00 Evening Programs*
 10:30 Lights Out

*Note: Each evening's program was different. Programs included singing, a talent show, games, and campfire ceremonies.

APPENDIX B

RANDOMIZATION PROCEDURE

Instructions: Please assign children to tribes based on the following procedure: (1) All children should be alphabetically arranged by last names into one composite listing (Virginia Beach and Norfolk combined); (2) The sequence will be as follows based on a table of random numbers:

1	Pamunky (first child on list assigned to the Pamunky tribe)	
3	Mattaponi (next three children assigned to Mattaponi tribe)	
5	Passaphague (next five children assigned to Passaphague tribe)	
6	Chickahominy (next six children assigned to Chickahominy tribe)	
1	Pamunky	
4	Mattaponi	
2	Passaphague	
1	Chickahominy	
8	Pamunky	
6	Mattaponi	
7	Passaphague	
7	Chickahominy	
9	Pamunky	
8	Mattaponi	
9	Passaphague	
8	Chickahominy	
9	Pamunky	
8	Mattaponi	
4	Passaphague	
6	Chickahominy	
8	Pamunky	
6	Mattaponi	
3	Passaphague	
8	Chickahominy	
1	Pamunky	
3	Mattaponi	
2	Passaphague	
2	Chickahominy	
		<u>Cont'd</u>
		2 Pamunky
		5 Mattaponi
		1 Passaphague
		3 Chickahominy
		4 Pamunky
		8 Mattaponi
		4 Passaphague
		7 Chickahominy
		8 Pamunky
		1 Passaphague
		3 Chickahominy
		5 Passaphague

Note: Late registrations should be assigned randomly to the tribes.

APPENDIX C

THE PIERS-HARRIS CHILDREN'S SELF CONCEPT SCALE

(The Way I Feel About Myself)

THE PIERS-HARRIS
CHILDREN'S SELF CONCEPT SCALE
(The Way I Feel About Myself)

by

Ellen V. Piers, Ph.D.

and

Dale B. Harris, Ph.D.

Published by

Counselor Recordings and Tests

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Nashville, Tennessee 37212

THE WAY I FEEL ABOUT MYSELF

NAME _____

AGE _____ GIRL OR BOY _____

GRADE _____ SCHOOL _____

DATE _____

NUMBER OF BROTHERS _____

NUMBER OF SISTERS _____

Here are a set of statements. Some of them are true of you and so you will circle the yes. Some are not true of you and so you will circle the no. Answer every question even if some are hard to decide, but do not circle both yes and no. Remember, circle the yes if the statement is generally like you, or circle the no if the statement is generally not like you. There are no right or wrong answers. Only you can tell us how you feel about yourself, so we hope you will mark the way you really feel inside.

1. My classmates make fun of me yes no
2. I am a happy person. yes no
3. It is hard for me to make friends. yes no
4. I am often sad yes no
5. I am smart yes no
6. I am shy yes no
7. I get nervous when the teacher calls on me yes no
8. My looks bother me yes no
9. When I grow up, I will be an important person. yes no
10. I get worried when we have tests in school yes no
11. I am unpopular yes no
12. I am well behaved in school. yes no
13. It is usually my fault when something goes wrong yes no
14. I cause trouble to my family yes no
15. I am strong. yes no
16. I have good ideas. yes no

17. I am an important member of my family. yes no
18. I usually want my own way. yes no
19. I am good at making things with my hands yes no
20. I give up easily yes no
21. I am good in my school work. yes no
22. I do many bad things yes no
23. I can draw well. yes no
24. I am good in music yes no
25. I behave badly at home yes no
26. I am slow in finishing my school work. yes no
27. I am an important member of my class yes no
28. I am nervous yes no
29. I have pretty eyes yes no
30. I can give a good report in front of the class yes no
31. In school I am a dreamer yes no
32. I pick on my brother(s) and sister(s). yes no
33. My friends like my ideas yes no
34. I often get into trouble yes no
35. I am obedient at home. yes no
36. I am lucky yes no
37. I worry a lot. yes no
38. My parents expect too much of me yes no
39. I like being the way I am. yes no
40. I feel left out of things. yes no

41. I have nice hair yes no
42. I often volunteer in school. yes no
43. I wish I were different. yes no
44. I sleep well at night. yes no
45. I hate school. yes no
46. I am among the last to be chosen for games yes no
47. I am sick a lot. yes no
48. I am often mean to other people. yes no
49. My classmates in school think I have good ideas. yes no
50. I am unhappy yes no
51. I have many friends. yes no
52. I am cheerful. yes no
53. I am dumb about most things. yes no
54. I am good looking. yes no
55. I have lots of pep yes no
56. I get into a lot of fights yes no
57. I am popular with boys yes no
58. People pick on me. yes no
59. My family is disappointed in me. yes no
60. I have a pleasant face yes no
61. When I try to make something, everyting seems to go wrong yes no
62. I am picked on at home yes no
63. I am a leader in games and sports. yes no
64. I am clumsy. yes no

65. In games and sports, I watch instead of play yes no
66. I forget what I learn. yes no
67. I am easy to get along with. yes no
68. I lose my temper easily. yes no
69. I am popular with girls. yes no
70. I am a good reader yes no
71. I would rather work alone than with a group. yes no
72. I like my brother (sister) yes no
73. I have a good figure yes no
74. I am often afraid. yes no
75. I am always dropping or breaking things. yes no
76. I can be trusted yes no
77. I am different from other people yes no
78. I think bad thoughts yes no
79. I cry easily yes no
80. I am a good person yes no

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THE EFFECTS OF PARTICIPATION IN A COMPETITIVE PROGRAM
ON THE CHILD'S SELF-CONCEPT

by

John Julius Beasley

(ABSTRACT)

Competition and awards are playing increasingly important roles in the programs of today's youth serving agencies (i.e., Scouting, 4-H). Many of these organizations are now instituting competitive events and activities for younger members. The generally accepted rationale for this action is that these experiences positively contribute to the child's overall development. However, a sound research base to support this assumption does not exist.

The purpose of the present study was to determine if participation in a competitive program affects the self-concepts of male and female children of different ethnic origins. Two possible interactions were also investigated.

The sample consisted of 148 children, 7 to 14 years of age, who were participating in a five day 4-H camping program. These youngsters were from two Virginia cities. The sample was predominately black and female. A majority of the children had received special federally funded camp scholarships. The median age of the sample was 11.13 years.

A modified form of Campbell and Stanley's "Solomon Four-Group Design" was employed. Subjects were randomly assigned to four experimental groups. On the first day, subjects in Groups 1, 2, and 3 completed the first half of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. On Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday, all children participated in a fifty minute crafts class. The completed crafts of those in Group 1 were judged daily under the "Danish System." Each child received either a blue, red, or white ribbon. Those of Group 2 members were judged daily under the "English System." Only six awards were presented. The work of the children in Groups 3 and 4 was not judged. Neither were ribbons awarded. On Friday, all children completed the last half of the Piers-Harris.

The findings are as follows:

1. Participation in a competitive program employed the "Danish System" resulted in a significant increase in self-concept scores.
2. A significant increase in self-concept scores for males who participated in a competitive program employing the "English System" was revealed.
3. For males, an interaction between race of the child and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept was discovered. More specifically, white males had a higher level of self-concept under the "Danish System" while black males had higher scores under the "English System."
4. No interaction between age of the child and the type of competitive program with level of self-concept was revealed.