

1.0 Introduction

The possible benefits of the arts or more specifically dance participation on factors associated with well-being, such as self-perceptions, life satisfaction and subjective vitality, has had very little attention in research, especially in children. But, a plethora of research has been conducted on sports participation or more specifically sports camp participation and their effects on youth. Previous research has shown that participation in youth sports camps can in some cases increase self-perceptions (Kishton & Dixon, 1995, Miller, 1989, Moons et al, 2006, Pelham et al, 1993, as cited in Donaldson & Ronan, 2006, Wong, 1998). Other research has been conducted on the link between general physical activity and well-being (Fox, 1999, Gurley et al, 1984, Scully et al, 1998). As reported in Cox (2002), one of the benefits that are not necessarily reported by youth participating in sports, but are often seen in their behaviour is a new awareness of their own abilities and worth, bringing about a positive experience (p. 108). With this new found awareness, it is believed that there is a positive growth in the internal desire to do well, which in return can lead to continued involvement in the activity (p. 108).

According to Eccles (1991), between the ages of 6 to 10 and 11 to 14, development is “driven by a basic psychological need to achieve competence, autonomy and relatedness” (p.31). This then may be an essential age to expose and encourage children to explore and learn. If a child can have a positive experience, this can potentially lead to higher levels of competence. One possible way to expose children to a variety of activities is to encourage camp participation. Eccles (1991) believes that participation in programs outside of the traditional school atmosphere allows children to learn in a way the

child may consider to be an atmosphere that is more self-directed (p. 36). Potentially, this could allow more independence. Powell (2003) supports this idea and expands on the idea by saying that by participating in camp-style program, one may get more opportunities than those offered in traditional schooling (p. 8).

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Background

To delve deeper into the realm of competence, White (1959) developed the Theory of Effectance Motivation. White defined effectance as the “possible nature of the motivational aspect of competence” (p.321). White proposed that human beings have innate desires to feel competent and in order to achieve these feelings of competency; one must possess key amounts of desire to achieve as well as being presented with the right amount of difficulty (1959, p.322). White’s theory mostly places focus on the positive effects of success on competence and very little on the effects of failure, which is one area where Harter’s theory differs.

Based on White’s Theory of Effectance Motivation, Harter (1978) developed the Competence Motivation Theory. Harter asserts that human beings are inherently motivated to attain competence in many different areas of achievement and by attempting to master these achievements; one can attain feelings that can either negatively or positively affect their self-perceptions (as cited in Cox, 2002, p.21). Harter’s Competence Motivation Theory states that self-efficacy is enhanced positively when attempts are successful and adversely affected with unsuccessful attempts at mastery (as cited in Cox, 2002, p. 21). Positively enhanced competence, according to Harter, is known as high competence motivation, while the latter is referred to as low competence motivation (as cited in Cox, 2002, p.21). Those individual’s who are high in competence motivation, generally have higher levels of global self-esteem. Harter’s theory also states that in having high competence motivation, an

individual can then be lead to successful task performance (as cited in Cox, 2002, p.22).

In 1990, Weiss and Horn conducted a study on children, which revealed support for the ideas behind Harter's Competence Motivation Theory. Weiss and Horn (1990), studied 81 males and 52 females between the ages of 8 and 13 partaking in a 7-week summer sports camp involving such sporting activities as basketball and gymnastics (p.252). Participants filled out a series of questionnaires related to perceived competence, motivational control and competitive trait anxiety. Instruments of measure included the physical domain subscale from the Perceived Competence Scale for Children (Harter, 1982), the children's version of Marten's (1977) Sport Competition Anxiety Test and the Multidimensional Measure of Children's Perceptions of Control (Connell, 1985). The Motivational Orientation in Sport Scale (Weiss et al, 1985; Weiss & Shewchuk, 1985) was also implemented, but it only incorporated the first 3 subscales of 5. Those subscales being "preference for challenging skills versus preference for easy skills, curiosity/interest versus pleasing teacher/coach and independent mastery versus dependency on the teacher/coach" (Weiss & Horn, 1990, p. 252). Additionally, the professionally trained physical education teachers who participated in the camp completed the Teacher's Rating of Child's Actual Competence (Harter, 1982) for each participant. The results of the study revealed participants who accurately estimated their sense of perceived competence felt more in control of performance outcomes, resulting in an enhancement of feeling more intrinsically motivated to achieve their goals (p. 255). While those who underestimated their sense of perceived competence had a more external control of performance outcomes, which may have lead to

higher trait anxiety, resulting in the probability of discontinued participation (p.256).

2.2 Well-Being

Previous studies have also shown support for general physical activity participation and its contribution to an overall sense of well-being. In a meta-analysis by Fox (1999), it was revealed that sports participation can contribute to reduced levels negative mood like depression and stress, with a result of raised levels of self-perceptions and self-esteem (p.412). Bowker (2006) supported these findings and defined the link to sports participation and self-esteem even further. Bowker's study revealed that by significantly enhancing physical self-esteem, the result would be a significant rise in global self-esteem in early adolescents that participated in sports (p.227).

Along with self-perceptions, life satisfaction is one of many factors that can contribute to one's overall sense of well-being. Life satisfaction has been defined as "the degree to which an individual judges the overall quality of his life as a whole favourably" (Veenhoven as cited in Strack et al, 1991, p. 10). Life satisfaction is 1 of 3 components that make up subjective well-being, along with "the presence of positive mood, and the absence of negative mood" (Diener & Lucas, 1999 as cited in Ryan & Deci, 2001, p. 144). Subjective well-being is how we as individuals assess our lives. When one has an increased life satisfaction, well-being can be positively affected (Ryan & Deci, 2001, p. 147). Diener (1997) believes people experience high subjective well-being when they "experience life satisfaction and frequent joy," thus rarely having negative

emotions (p.25). People who experience the opposite (low levels of life satisfaction and joy), would be said to have low subjective well-being (Diener, 1997, p. 25). Diener also asserts that subjective well-being can be affected by people's ambitions, what they do and their thought processes to get there (p. 39).

Subjective vitality, or how alert and alive one feels and that it comes from within, can also contribute to one's overall sense of well-being (Bostic et al, 2000, Ryan & Deci, 1985). Ryan and Frederick (1997) assert that subjective vitality refers to more than just the physical feeling, but the psychological feeling as well, like feeling passionate or spirited about life (p.530). High levels of subjective vitality have been associated with self-determination, self-motivation and positive influences on well-being and self-esteem (Ryan & Frederick, 1997, p.557). It is said that there are 2 factors associated with subjective vitality: somatic and psychological (Ryan & Frederick, 1997, p. 536). Physical and psychological conditions that may negatively effect motivation and innate energy could leave one feeling less vital (Ryan & Frederick, 1997, p. 536). If one is successful in self-directed actions, Ryan and Frederick infer that one will have a higher level of vitality over someone who has been successful in achieving goals in a controlled environment (p. 534).

Studies have revealed sources of influences on subjective vitality and life satisfaction, supporting Ryan and Frederick (1997). Nix, Ryan, Marly and Deci (1999) conducted 3 different studies on vitality and happiness among undergraduate students. In the first study, 52 males and 41 females filled out questionnaires on demographics, the Subjective Vitality Scale (state only; Ryan

& Frederick, 1997), a 4-item happiness assessment, and a 5-item perceived choice assessment taken from the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (McAuley, Duncan & Tammen, 1989; Ryan, 1982; Ryan, Mims & Koestiner, 1983). The 4-items from the happiness assessment pertained to one's feelings of pleasantness, comfortableness, being satisfied and contentedness. All items were tested pre and post. The Wisconsin Card Sort (WCS; Berg & Grant, 1980) was implemented on 2 sets of participants. The WCS asks participants to sort a series of cards according to different layouts of colours, sizes and numbers. Group 1 was allowed a self-directed condition, which allowed them the liberty to sort the cards as they pleased. Group 2 had to sort the cards in a way that was based on the way Group 1 planned the sorting. A mixed-design ANOVA revealed the self-directed group maintained their sense of vitality, while the second group experienced a decline (p. 276). For both groups, happiness revealed no significant change from pre-to-post. These findings show some support for when one has the ability to choose their plan of direction, vitality can be enhanced.

The second study involved 30 males and 34 females at the undergraduate level involved in task or ego related conditions. Participants were administered The Disguised Measure Affect (Hass, Katz, Rizzo, Bailey & Moore, 1992; Nix, (1997), 5-items from Thayer's (1996) calm energy construct and 4-items on happiness (same items as in the first experiment). The 5-items from Thayer measured factors related to vitality such as active, energetic, lively, vigorous and vital. All measures were administered pre and post. A mixed-design ANOVA revealed the task group experienced a more significant rise in vitality, while happiness rose equally for both groups (p. 278). These results may show

that task-oriented individuals experience higher levels of subjective vitality over ego-oriented individuals.

In the final experiment by Nix et al (1999), they looked at autonomous environments versus controlled environments and their affects on vitality and happiness. 86 females and 55 males who participated were asked to read short scenarios where they imagined they were placed in either an autonomous or controlled environment (p.278). A mixed-design ANOVA revealed that those who perceived themselves engaged in an autonomous environment significantly increased their vitality and happiness over the controlled environment (p.280).

If several different environments can positively influence aspects of well-being, potentially an environment like dance could do the same. The abundance of studies existing that reveal sports' involvement in enhancing well-being exemplifies the lack of studies on dances' affect on well-being, thus revealing the need for further research in this area. With the few studies that do exist, very few are conducted on youth, and virtually none on underserved youth, with most carried out on older teens and university aged students.

2.3 Effects of Dance on Well-being

As one of the few studies which involved the effects of dance on well-being, Gurley, Neuringer and Masee (1984) conducted research on 133 undergraduate students to determine the psychological affects of well-being which compared dance to sports and academics. Each participant filled out a short self-evaluation inventory at the beginning and end of each 1.5 hour long class (Gurley et al, 1984, p 60). Significant differences were revealed between

the 3 areas of dance, sport and academics (p. 64). Results of an ANOVA test revealed that an overall well-being change was highly significant (p. 62). Independent t-tests revealed dance participant's overall well-being changes were significantly higher when compared to both sports and academics (p. 62). Independent t-tests also revealed no significant difference between sports and academics on well-being. Participants in dance showed significant increases on 8 scales of the inventory over the sports (p. 64). Those 8 scales related to creativity, confidence, relaxation, excitement, motivation, health, intelligence and energy (p.64). Gurley et al believe dance consists of art and physicality which may be the reason for the more positive affects on well-being, compared to just sports alone (p. 67). Although the results of the study reveal a positive case for dance and well-being, a one time only 1.5 hour long class only may show more of a state feeling change in well-being. For the possibility of a significant global change, a study may prove more valid if done longitudinally.

In the Gurley et al (1984) study, a positive link was found between dance participation and well-being in the undergraduate age student, but in 1989, Kallipuska studied the effects on junior level ballet dancers. More specifically the study examined how self-esteem, empathy and creativity may be affected. Kallipuska hypothesised that junior level ballet dancers would have higher levels of self-esteem, empathy and creativity than same aged school students not involved in ballet. Forty-four females and 18 males between the ages of 9 and 17 from a national opera junior ballet participated in the study. Instruments of measure included Battle's Self-esteem Inventory (1981), Fitts' Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (1965), 2 factors from Coopersmith's Self-esteem Inventory (1981), 10 items from the Rosenberg scale (1965), the modified Mehrabian and

Epstein Empathy Scale (1972), The Rorschach Test and a questionnaire on hobbies. The Torrance Test of Creativity (1974) was implemented as well, but only the Picture Completion section was incorporated into the study.

Analysis of the data revealed support for the projected hypothesis. All ages of the junior level ballet dancers reported a higher mean score of self-esteem, empathy and creativity as compared to similar aged school children. Kallipuska also found a correlation to years of dancing and self-esteem and years of dancing and empathy (p.1233). Overall, Kallipuska felt that by participating in classical ballet, it could enhance self-esteem and self-respect along with contributing to self-confidence (p. 1233). Ballet dancers in the study also had more outside hobbies in artistic realms, which Kallipuska felt lead to more opportunity for self-expression (p. 1233).

Although the Kallipuska study reveals some positive support for the connection between the promotion of self-esteem in classical ballet dancers, it must also be remembered the link between eating disorders and classical ballet. Eating disorders may show a correlation to low self-esteem and poor body image. Classical ballet dancers may be under a lot of scrutiny to be the right size (height and weight), look the right part or to carry themselves well on stage, possibly causing lower self-esteem. In a review article by Nelson and Chatfield (1998), they found that eating disorders were prevalent in ballet, from student through professional, with a frequency of any where from 3.5% to 7.6% as compared to the general population of less than 1% (p. 11). Possible reasons as reported by the dancers were factors like compulsory weight, peer or teacher pressure (competition for a part) and stage appearance in comparison to others

(pp. 5-6). Further support comes from DePalma et al (2002), that not only female ballet dancers are at risk for eating disorders, but anyone participating in an activity that stresses low body weight such as gymnastics and wrestling (p.45). This then could be surmised that men could also be at risk for eating disorders. DePalma et al also documented that eating disorders can be accentuated by athletes that have such traits as goal orientation and perfectionism (p.45). Furthermore, coaches may instil the same pressures as an artistic director or choreographer, stressing a certain size in order to compete (p. 45).

But, in the aerobic dance realm, where there may be less competition and pressures, eating disorders or low body image may be less prevalent. Based on Harter's Competence Motivation theory (1978), Burgess, Grogan and Burwitz (2006) set out to conduct a study on 13 to 14 year old females and the effect of aerobic dance class on body image and physical self-perceptions. The 50 selected female participants were chosen for their poor body image and low physical fitness levels to participate twice a week, 50 minutes each, for 6 weeks. The same girls also participated in swimming classes, with congruent levels of intensity, but conducted in a different 6 weeks. The study was a cross over design that had the participants act as the controls. Participants filled out The Body Attitudes questionnaire (BAQ, BenTovim & Walker, 1991), The Children and Youth Physical Self-Perception Profile (CY-PSPP, Whitehead, 1995) and The Leisure Time Physical Activity Questionnaire (LTPAQ), which was modified from The Past Year Physical Activity Questionnaire (Aaron, Kriska & Dearwater, 1995). Height and weight were also obtained. All the measures were administered pre, mid and post. Statistical analysis revealed participants

involved in the aerobic dance class had a significant increase in sports competence over the control group (p. 63). Physical self-worth also revealed a significant increase in the aerobic dance group over the controls (p. 63). Burgess et al believe the increase in physical self-worth and sports competence may be attributed to loss of weight and changes in muscle tone, possibly contributing to less concern over how their appearance comes across to others (p.64). Burgess et al believe their findings support Harter's theory (p. 63). These findings may also reveal the realm of aerobic dance to be less competitive, attributing to the increase in physical self-worth and sports competence. This may also show that dance, outside of the professional realm, may contribute to improved self-concept.

While Burgess et al examined aerobic dance and changes in self-perceptions, but Theodoraku and Zervas(2003) studied deeper into the realm of dance and creativity. Theodarku and Zervas studied the effect of creative movement teaching versus traditional physical education teaching on children's self-esteem. The study consisted of 49 males and 58 females ranging in age from 11 to 12, attending a public school. Participants had no previous experience with creative movement. A modified Greek version of Harter's Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC) (1985) was the measure implemented for this study. Participants were dispersed into 2 groups; a creative movement based teaching method, which focused on factors like improvisation and experimentation, while the second group received the traditional style of physical education class. Over the course of 3 months they received 2 classes per week at 45 minutes each. An ANOVA revealed the creative movement method of teaching significantly influenced the development of self-esteem (p.100). Each sub-domain of the

SPPC had significantly increased in scores in comparison to the traditional physical education style. Theodorakou and Zervas surmised that children that partook in the creative movement teaching method perceived themselves as more competent, which in return promoted a positive growth their self-esteem (p.102). The findings in this study show further support for the connection between creative movement and non-competitive style dance with enhanced self-perceptions.

2.4 Effects of Sports Camp Participation

The previous aforementioned studies show support that general sports participation can have positive influences on well-being. These studies also reveal support for the connection between dance and the enhancement of self-perceptions and self-esteem. But, more defined research has been conducted placing focus on a camp-style atmosphere as the learning environment.

Miller (1989) explored this area by studying the effects of sports camp participation on self-concept. The camp consisted of 69 males and 41 females, aged 9-14 years, with low income being a determination of entry into the camp. Miller hypothesised that self-concept would increase as swimming skills increased (p.241). Participants were grouped by their swimming ability, consisting of a beginner, advanced beginner and intermediate level groups. Harter's Self-Perception Profile for Children (1985) was administered on sixth day and the last day of the 5-week swim camp. Only part of the hypothesis was supported. In this case, only the advanced beginner group had a significant increase in their self-concept, while the beginner group remained low from pre

to post and intermediate remained high throughout (Miller, 1989, p. 241). Miller alleged positive changes in self-concept may have occurred in the advanced beginner group because they had some previous experience of swimming, which allowed them to reinforce what they knew and continue to increase their skills (p.241). The advanced beginner group may have felt just enough competence to enhance the skill set they already possessed, possibly causing them to pursue goals of improvement. In the case of the beginner's, Miller asserts the short duration of the camp may have lead to their difficulty in learning and achieving the desired swimming techniques (p.242). The intermediate group reported high levels of self-concept from pre to post, so no changes occurred.

While Miller's (1989) study focused solely on swimming and its effects on self-concept in underserved youth, Kishton and Dixon (1995) explored further on an array of sports camp activities. Kishton and Dixon similarly conducted their study on 74 disadvantaged children (42 males and 32 females), where they sought to explore if self-perceptions changes would occur (p. 136).

Participants, ranging from 10-16 years of age, attended 5-days a week for 5 weeks and partook in 9 different sports activities such as softball, swimming and tennis. Harter's Self-Perception Profile for Children (1985) was the instrument of measurement used and all 6 sub-domains were implemented, which were scholastic competence, social acceptance, athletic competence, physical appearance, behavioural conduct and global self-worth. The profile was administered on the on the first and last days of camp. Not only did this study look at the effects on self-perceptions, but it also looked at gender differences. Pre scores revealed females scored significantly higher than the males, with

scores higher than the males in three domains. Those domains were social acceptance, behavioural conduct and global self-worth. Post scores revealed females only scored higher in behavioural conduct. Scores in all the other domains also dropped consistently from the first day to the last, based on the total score (Kishton & Dixon, 1995, p. 137). Kishton and Dixon believe a possible reason for the decline of self-perceptions in the females was due to the fact that some of the sports they participated in were competitive by nature, causing high levels of stress that could have negatively affected their overall self-perception scores (1995, p. 139).

Duda (1988) confirmed the idea that females tend to be less competitive than males. 67 males and 67 females from a university at the undergraduate level participated in the study. The participants were subjected to a 2-part questionnaire. The first part presented 8-items that inquired whether the participants identified with sports participants who had goals that were task or ego involved. The second part inquired past competitive sports participation and general information about the participant (i.e., gender, age). Results revealed significance differences in gender competitiveness. Duda's study established that males have a tendency to be more ego oriented in their goals, which would make them more competitive, while females revealed a penchant for task involved goals (p.104). When one is ego oriented, they are in to outperforming others, while when one who task oriented, they are more concerned with mastery (Cox, 2002, p.36)

The previous 2 studies (Kishton & Dixon, 1995; Miller, 1989) reported mixed support for positive effects of sports camp participation, but in 2006, Donaldson

and Ronan set out to determine if there was a positive relationship between emotional well-being of adolescents and sports participation. The study consisted of 203 children, 93 males and 109 females between the ages of 10 and 13, from all types of economic backgrounds. Instruments of measure included Harter's Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC, 1985), The Youth Self-Report (YSR: Achenbach, 1991) and a sports questionnaire which was conceived by the researchers. Additionally, the coaches filled out the Teacher's Rating of Child's Actual Competence (Harter, 1995) from the SPPC. Donaldson and Ronan hypothesised that a positive correlation between sports participation and some areas of self-concept would be revealed. This was supported, with those areas being athletic, social and physical self-perceptions (p. 382). It was revealed that the more time and energy one had invested in sports participation, whether it leisure or formal; corresponded with a positive rise of emotional and behavioural well-being (p.381).

2.5 Gender differences

As previously stated, Duda found males to be more ego-oriented in sports, while females tend to be task oriented. But, gender can also play a role in the effectiveness of sports participation in concepts like increases in competence, self-perception and self-efficacy (Archer & McDonald, 1990, Chase, 2001, Daniels et al, 2006, Harter, 2000, Jacobs et al, 2002). Studies using the Self-Perception Profile for Children (Harter, 1985) show males, in many cases have a higher perceived athletic competence and global self-worth (Donaldson & Ronan, 2006, Theodorakou & Zervas, 2003)

Gender differences were one of the few aspects of a study conducted by Trew, Scully, Kremer and Ogle (1999). Trew et al (1999) looked at self-competence in 602 males and females, aged 11 to 18, participating in sport and leisure activities over a course of a year and a half. Participants were subjected to a 3-part interview developed for the study and 2 sub-scales (athletic competence and global self-worth) from Harter's Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents (1985). Additionally, participants were asked to fill out a diary for each day of participation. Results revealed that males had significantly higher scores than the females in athletic self-competence and global self-worth (p.65). Crocker, Eklund and Kowalski (2000) concur with the Trew et al findings, as well as the previous studies, that males have higher athletic competence and global self-worth scores.

2.6 Summary

These studies report mixed support for sports camp participation and their affects on well-being along with gender differences in sports participation. With what little has been conducted on dance participation, these studies reveal more promise for a positive connection on well-being promotion. Along with the possibility of displaying a different set of gender differences in dance participation. The lack of studies in this area and the area of dance camp participation exposes the need for further research on this area and its possible positive affects on well-being.

2.7 Aim and Hypothesis

The aim of this research project was to determine if an arts camp for underserved youth could have a more positive impact on their self-perceptions,

life satisfaction and subjective vitality conducted in a longitudinal study as compared to a control group. It was hypothesized that the participants in the arts camp would attain a more positive effect on their perception of self, life satisfaction and subjective vitality as compared to the control group. A second hypothesis proposes that the female participants of the arts camp would achieve a more positive effect on their self-perceptions, life satisfaction and subjective vitality over the males.

3.0 METHOD

3.1 Participants

Participants were underserved youth who partook in a summer arts camp in Preston, Washington, USA. Seventeen (11 females, 6 males, mean age 10 ¼ years +/- 2.05) participants were asked to complete a booklet of questionnaires on the first and last day of the 3 week arts camps. Selection into the arts camp were based upon recommendations by school counsellors in the surrounding school districts that believed the candidates would benefit from being apart of this arts camp. Counsellors recommended children that came from broken homes, were latch-key kids (kids that come home to an empty house after school) and/or were low income. A non-profit organization specializing in counselling and youth outreach programs also recommended children for the camp. Of the 17 participants, 5 of the males and 4 of the females were returning camp participants. Seven of the participants also reported attending other camps during the summer, but none were involved in other camps during the same three weeks as the arts camp.

A control group coming from broken homes, low income and latch-key kids also participated in the study. 9 (9 females, mean age 9 ½ +/- 1.46) participants filled out the same booklet of questionnaires 3 weeks apart, with the same instructions given as the arts camp. Children for the control group came recommended by the same non-profit organization along with children from Roslyn, Washington.

The week prior to the arts camp, phone calls were made to the camp participants and their families to explain the project and gain consent. Arrangements were made to acquire signed consent forms prior to the start of camp (See Appendix A.1). A participant information sheet, one written more child friendly for the participants and one for the parents or guardians, which explained the project, were also distributed (See Appendix A.2 and A.3 respectively). The information sheet included the title of the project, what type of testing was to be done, general information about the project and contact information for both the researcher and the head of the MSc Dance Science program. Included on 1 of the 3 questionnaires was a cover sheet that included an ID #, age, birth date, gender and questions regarding their previous participation in the art's camp and what other camps they may be involved in during the summer. The researcher gave the participants explicit directions of how to complete the questionnaires along with expressing that they could ask questions at any time, or concede if they were not comfortable with any of the questionnaires. This study was granted approval by the university's ethics committee.

3.2 Procedure

Participants attended for 3 weeks, participating in dance, art and drama every weekday, 10:00 a.m. to 3:00 p.m., from July 9-27, 2007, which culminated in 2 performances on the final day. Participants were administered 3 questionnaires on the first day of camp before their first dance lesson and the last day of camp, before the last dance lesson. Participants of the control group were given the same amount of days in between questionnaires being administered. At all times there were at least 2 other adults present. Participants were split into 3

groups and escorted into another studio and administered the questionnaires. Participants took approximately 20 minutes to fill out all 3 questionnaires. For all of the questionnaires, the participants were asked to read the statements thoroughly and then asked to answer as honestly as possible. Participants were also reminded these were not tests and that everyone's answers would be different. One of the questionnaires had special instructions to think of it like a survey, to pick what they thought as most true for them and then only check the response next to that statement. In each group, the younger participants were separated to one side of the room and the researcher read the questionnaires aloud for easier understanding.

3.3 Measures

Self -Perceptions

The Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC, Harter, 1985) was administered to measure self-perceptions (See Appendix A.4). This 36-item questionnaire consists of survey type questions to determine a child's self-perception in 6 different areas. Those 6 different areas include one's perceived aptitude in academic and athletic situations, acceptance in social situations, physical appearance, and behavioural conduct along with global self-worth. The participants were instructed to choose 1 of 2 statements that were more true for them like, "Some kids find it hard to make friends" BUT "Other kids find it's pretty easy to make friends." Then from there, were asked to mark the box "sort of true for me" or "really true for me." Harter (1985) originally reported the profile had internal reliabilities of between 0.71 and 0.86 for the subscales. In a more current study, Granleese and Joseph (1994) concur with Harter's original findings along with recommending the use of the profile for anyone assessing

self-perceptions in children (p.490). In the current study the Cronbach Alpha coefficient scores were between 0.70 and 0.81 for the subscales. The 5 subscales used for this study:

1. Social Acceptance (SA)
2. Athletic Competence (AC)
3. Physical Appearance (PA)
4. Behavioural Conduct (BC)
5. Global Self-Worth (GSW)

Life Satisfaction

The 5-item Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS, Diener, 1985) determines how satisfied one is with life on a global level (See Appendix A.5). The format is in a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). Statements include "In most ways my life is close to my ideal." In a study by Shevlin et al (1998), 258 participants from 2 different British universities were given the SWLS and found the scale to have a reliability of 0.921 (p. 914). Shevlin et al (1998) also found the scale to have sound psychometric properties and that it functions equally well for both males and females (p. 914). Cronbach Alpha coefficient score for this study was 0.57. According to Pallant (2001), scales under 10 items consistently score low on the Cronbach Alpha scale, so it is not uncommon to see scores of less than the ideal of 0.7 (p.85). SWLS consists of the following 5 statements:

1. In most ways my life is close to ideal.
2. The conditions of my life are excellent.
3. I am satisfied with life.

4. So far I have gotten the important things in life.
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Subjective Vitality

A modified version of the 7-item Subjective Vitality Scale (SVS, Ryan and Frederick, 1997) was used to examine how much feeling of energy and liveliness one has, at the individual difference level (trait) and at the state level (See Appendix A.6). Ryan and Frederick have described vitality as the “energy that is perceived to emanate from the self” (1997, p. 535). The questionnaire has a 7-point Likert scale format ranging from 1 (not at all true) to 7 (very true) for both the trait and state levels. Statements at the individual difference level include, “I feel alive and vital,” while on the state level they would read, “At this moment, I feel alive and vital.” Previous studies have shown that by omitting the one negatively worded item actually made the questionnaire more reliable and valid (Bostic et al, 2000, p. 317). Therefore this item was omitted for in the current study. Bostic et al administered the questionnaires to 526 participants in a mid-western, United States private school which confirmed a validation of 0.80 for individual difference level and 0.89 for state level, showing similar results to Ryan and Frederick’s original findings of 0.84 and 0.86 consecutively (2000, p.313). In the current study, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient score was 0.78 for individual difference level and 0.85 for the state level. Individual difference level statements consisted of the following 6 statements:

1. I feel alive and vital.
2. Sometimes I feel so alive I just want to burst.
3. I have energy and spirit.

4. I look forward to each new day.
5. I nearly always feel alert and awake.
6. I feel energized.

State level statements consisted of the following 6 statements:

1. At this moment, I feel alive and vital.
2. Currently I feel so alive I just want to burst.
3. At this time, I have energy and spirit.
4. I am looking forward to each new day.
5. At this moment, I feel alert and awake.
6. I feel energized right now.

Analysis

Results for all the questionnaires were entered and the mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) calculated in Microsoft Excel. All results were then entered into SPSS 14.0 for Windows and analyzed for significance. Significance was set at $p= 0.05$. Findings that were not significantly different (between .05 and .10) but still relevant will be referred to as trends. A repeated measure analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run congruently on all the measures to reveal any significant differences between the groups (camp and control) between Time 1 (Pre) and Time 2 (Post).

4.0 RESULTS

4.1 Camp-Control Differences

A repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to compare between group differences over time in self-perceptions, life satisfaction and subjective vitality as measured by the Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC), The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) and the Subjective Vitality Scales (SVS). Interaction effect was measured to reveal if there was a same change in scores over time for the 2 groups. Main effect was measured for within-subject changes across the 2 time periods. Test of between-subjects was measured for significant differences in scores between the 2 groups. Table 1 displays descriptive statistics states for the camp and control. Due to the low participation of males in the arts camp and none in the control group, only females were compared statistically in the camp versus control.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics –Camp and Control-Pre and Post

Questionnaires	<u>Camp</u> Mean (SD)	<u>Control</u> Mean (SD)	<u>Difference</u> Camp- Control
SPPC-Social Acceptance			
<i>Time 1(Pre)</i>	2.93 (1.02)	2.93 (1.13)	0.00
<i>Time 2 (Post)</i>	2.58 (1.09)	2.69 (1.07)	0.11
<i>Difference</i>	-0.35	-0.24	0.11
SPPC-Athletic Competence			
<i>Time 1</i>	2.60 (1.01)	2.85 (1.17)	0.25
<i>Time 2</i>	2.69 (1.15)	2.31 (1.07)	0.38
<i>Difference</i>	0.09	-0.54	0.63
SPPC-Physical Appearance			
<i>Time 1</i>	2.78 (1.04)	2.58 (1.22)	0.20
<i>Time 2</i>	3.03 (1.13)	2.50 (1.11)	0.53
<i>Difference</i>	0.25	-0.08	0.33
SPPC-Behavioural Conduct			
<i>Time 1</i>	2.70 (1.09)	3.04 (1.07)	0.34
<i>Time2</i>	2.85 (1.18)	2.63 (1.12)	0.22
<i>Difference</i>	0.15	-0.41	0.56
SPPC-Global Self-Worth			
<i>Time 1</i>	2.93 (0.80)	3.27 (1.07)	0.34
<i>Time 2</i>	3.07 (0.98)	3.08 (1.05)	0.01
<i>Difference</i>	0.38	-0.19	0.57
SWLS			
<i>Time 1</i>	5.04 (1.78)	5.74 (1.10)	0.70
<i>Time 2</i>	5.99 (1.44)	5.33 (1.49)	0.66
<i>Difference</i>	0.95	-0.41	1.36
SVS-Individual			
<i>Time 1</i>	5.62 (1.73)	5.10 (1.69)	0.52
<i>Time 2</i>	6.21 (1.27)	5.47(1.56)	0.74
<i>Difference</i>	0.59	0.37	0.22
SVS-State			
<i>Time 1</i>	5.40 (1.97)	4.76 (2.29)	0.64
<i>Time 2</i>	6.31 (1.25)	5.67 (1.73)	0.64
<i>Difference</i>	0.91	0.91	0.00

SPPC

In the social acceptance sub-domain there was a statistically significant main effect for time [$F(1,106)=5.07, p=.03$]. Interaction effect did not reach statistical significance [$F(1,106)=.14, p=.71$]. Test of between-subjects effects did not reach statistical significance [$F(1,106)=.16, p=.74$].

A trend was revealed in the athlete competence sub-domain in the main effect for time [$F(1,106)=3.15, p=.08$]. Interaction effect was statistically significant [$F(1,106)=6.64, p=.01$] (See Figure 1). Test of between-subjects effects did not reach statistical significance [$F(1,106)=.15, p=.70$].

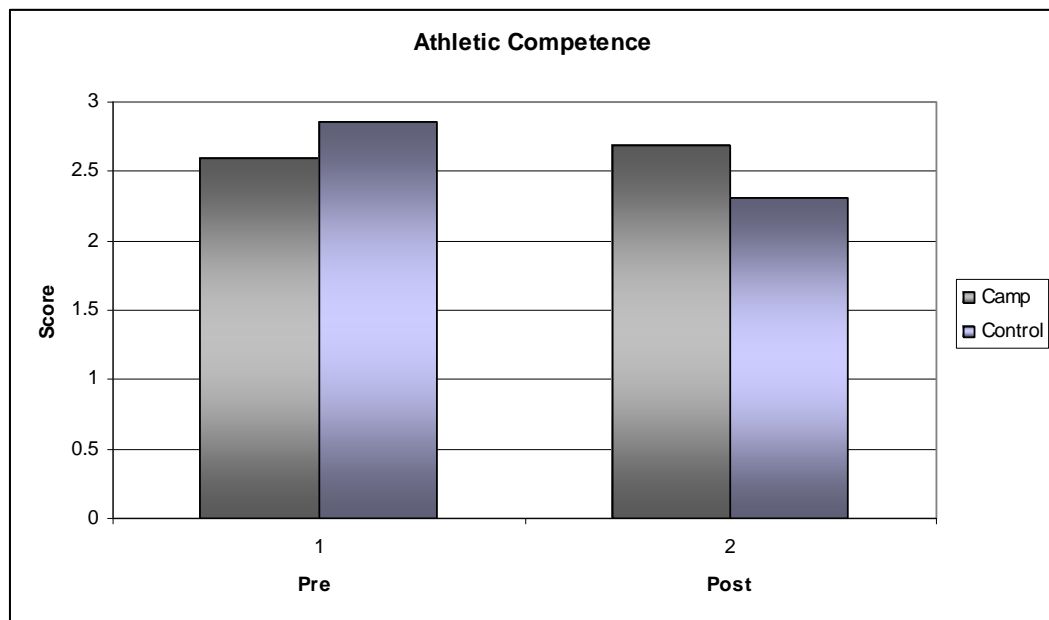


Figure 1. Athletic competence: Mean group changes over time

The physical appearance sub-domain did not reach statistical significance in main effect for time [$F(1,106)=.99, p=.32$]. Trends were revealed in both interaction effect [$F(1,106)=2.77, p=.09$] and between-subjects effects [$F(1,106)=5.63, p=.07$].

The behavioural conduct sub-domain not reach statistical significance for both main effect for time [$F(1,106)=1.69, p=.19$] and between-subjects effects [$F(1,106)=.13, p=.72$]. Interaction effect was statistically significant [$F(1,106)=6.35, p=.01$] (See Figure 2).

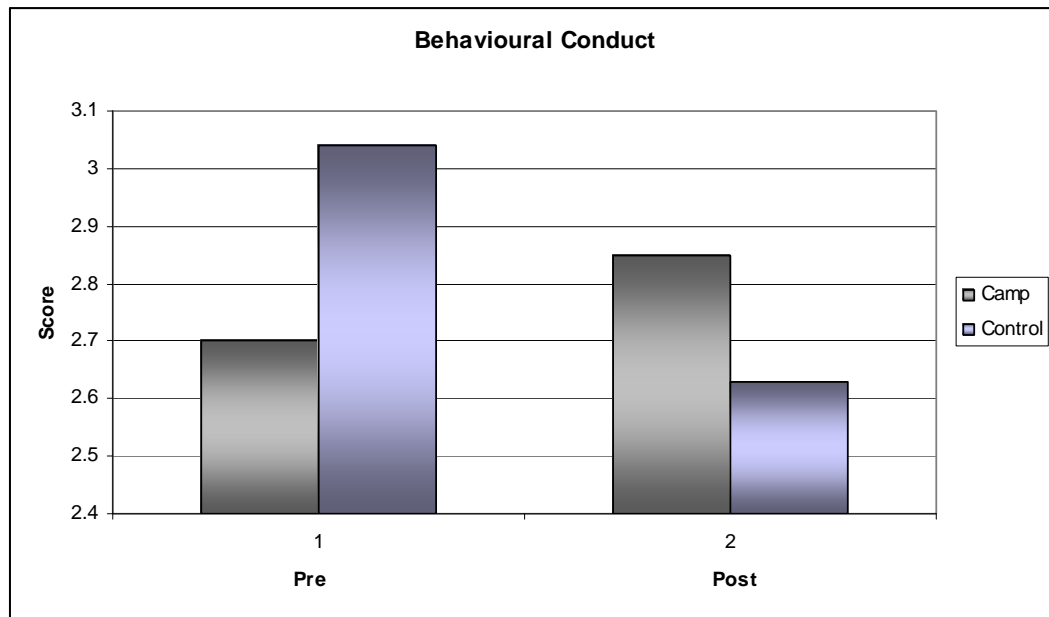


Figure 2. Behavioural conduct: Mean group changes over time.

Global self-esteem did not reach statistical significance in main effect for time [$F(1,106)=.003, p=.96$], interaction effect [$F(1,106)=2.33, p=.13$] and between-subjects effects [$F(1,106)=1.35, p=.25$].

SWLS

Life satisfaction did not reach statistical significance in main effect for time [$F(1,106)=1.69, p=.19$] and between-subjects effects [$F(1,106)=1.75, p=.19$].

Interaction effect was statistically significant [$F(1,106)=10.87, p=.001$] (See Figure 3).

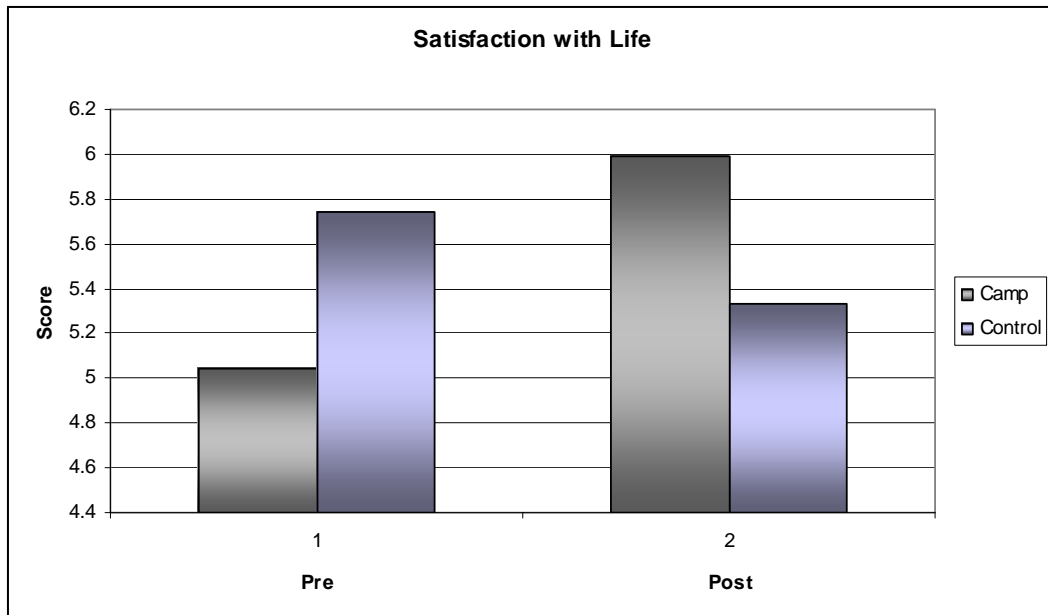


Figure 3. Satisfaction with Life: Mean group changes over time.

SVS

Individual difference levels of subjective vitality were statistically significant in main effect for time [$F(1,106)=7.194, p=.008$] and between-subjects effects [$F(1,106)=6.63, p=.01$] (See Figure 4). Interaction effect did not reach statistical significant [$F(1,106)=.22, p=.64$].

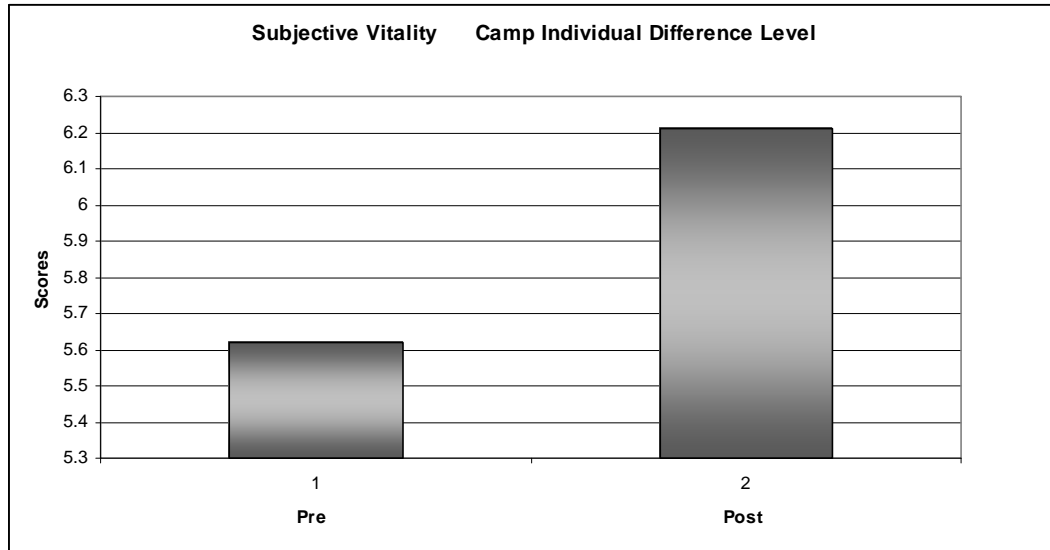


Figure 4. Subjective Vitality Individual Difference: Mean camp changes over time.

State levels of subjective vitality were statistically significant in main effect for time [$F(1,106)=15.89$, $p=.000$] and between-subject effects [$F(1,106)=5.01$, $p=.03$] (See Figure 5). Interaction effect did not reach statistical significance [$F(1,106)=.05$, $p=.82$].

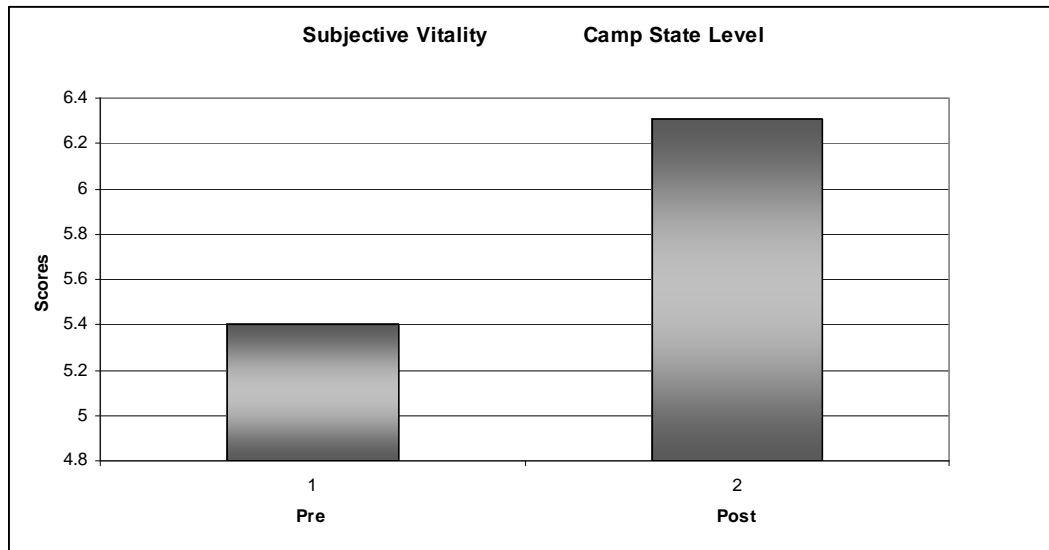


Figure 5: Subjective Vitality State Level: Mean camp changes over time.

4.2 Gender Differences

Gender differences in the camp participants were not statistically analyzed due to small sample size. See Table 2 for means, standard deviations and differences in gender.

Table 2
Gender Differences: Pre and Post-CAMP

Questionnaires	<u>Males</u> Mean (SD)	<u>Females</u> Mean (SD)	<u>Difference</u> Male- Female
SPPC-Social Acceptance			
<i>Time 1 (Pre)</i>	2.60 (0.98)	2.93 (1.02)	0.33
<i>Time 2 (Post)</i>	2.80 (0.96)	2.58 (1.09)	0.22
<i>Difference</i>	0.20	-0.35	0.55
SPPC-Athletic Competence			
<i>Time 1</i>	2.53 (1.04)	2.60 (1.01)	0.07
<i>Time 2</i>	2.80 (0.89)	2.69 (1.15)	0.11
<i>Difference</i>	0.27	0.09	0.18
SPPC-Physical Appearance			
<i>Time 1</i>	2.56 (1.10)	2.78 (1.04)	0.22
<i>Time 2</i>	2.63 (0.93)	3.03 (1.13)	0.40
<i>Difference</i>	0.07	0.25	0.18
SPPC-Behavioural Conduct			
<i>Time 1</i>	2.66 (0.96)	2.70 (1.09)	0.04
<i>Time 2</i>	2.77 (0.86)	2.85 (1.18)	0.08
<i>Difference</i>	0.11	0.15	0.04
SPPC-Global Self-Worth			
<i>Time 1</i>	2.69 (0.69)	2.93 (0.80)	0.24
<i>Time 2</i>	3.13 (0.50)	3.07 (0.98)	0.06
<i>Difference</i>	0.44	0.38	0.06
SWLS			
<i>Time 1</i>	3.60 (1.93)	5.04 (1.78)	1.44
<i>Time 2</i>	5.00 (1.76)	5.99 (1.44)	0.99
<i>Difference</i>	1.40	0.95	0.45
SVS-Individual			
<i>Time 1</i>	4.98 (1.76)	5.62 (1.73)	0.64
<i>Time 2</i>	5.44 (1.76)	6.21 (1.27)	0.77
<i>Difference</i>	0.46	0.59	0.13
SVS-State			
<i>Time 1</i>	4.05 (1.82)	5.40 (1.97)	1.35
<i>Time 2</i>	5.39 (1.78)	6.31 (1.25)	0.92
<i>Difference</i>	1.34	0.91	0.43

5.0 DISCUSSION

One of the aims of this study was to discover if an arts camp for underserved youth could produce a more positive effect on children's self-perceptions, life satisfaction and subjective vitality as compared to a control group of underserved youth whom were not participating in an arts camp. It was hypothesised that the arts camp would have a more positive impact on the participants in self-perceptions, subjective vitality and life satisfaction over the control group. Statistical analysis revealed some support for this hypothesis. These results also may reveal that as a result of increased competence, camp participants may be seen as being high in competence, as defined by Harter's Competence Motivation Theory. The second aim of this study was to reveal any gender differences that may have occurred in the arts camp participants. It was hypothesised the females would be more positively affected by the arts camp compared to the males. This was not supported by the Mean results.

5.1 Self-Perceptions

Of the 5 domains of the Harter's Self-Perception Profile for Children used in this study, a mean increase was seen in 4 sub-domains in the camp participants. Social acceptance was the only domain to reveal a decline in scores. Significant differences were revealed in athletic competence, behavioural conduct and social acceptance. Overall, these results differ from those found by previous studies that revealed a decline in most or all domains from pre to post (Kiston & Dixon, 1995, Miller, 1989). Overall scores for the SPPC may have increased due to the participants in the arts camp feeling competent at their tasks proposed to them, supporting the results of the Theodorakou and Zervas (2003) study. In the 2003 study by Theodorakou and Zervas, they found that

children involved in creative movement had increased feelings of competency, in return promoting self-esteem (p.102). According to Harter (1978), these high levels of perceived competence can lead to successful task performance, which could be indicated by the significant increases in some of the sub-domains of the arts camp, resulting in feeling successful at their tasks. These findings seem to reveal support for Harter's Competence Motivation Theory. All of the SPPC scores in the control group reported losses from pre to post. One may surmise from this data that no camp involvement over the summer months may lead to a decrease in feelings of competence. While arts camp involvement may lead to heightened levels of self-perceptions, although further research is needed.

The sub-domain of social acceptance revealed significance for the main effect for time. Pre scores revealed that the arts camp and control had equal scores in social acceptance. Post scores revealed the control group reported higher scores over the camp group, although both decreased. Social acceptance showed a mean (M) decrease of 0.35 for the camp participants and a mean decrease of 0.24 for the control. One reason for the decline may be that even though the camp stresses group cooperation and equality, the camp design is set up to be autonomous driven. Camp participants are encouraged to create their own lines and character, choreograph sections of a dance and produce a costume. This idea relates back to Eccle's (1991) idea that programs outside of traditional schooling tend to be more self-directed, which is intended to allow children to explore. In return, the outcome may have been that the children were intrinsically motivated to succeed in their tasks of creating, choreographing

and producing on their own, potentially causing a decline in social acceptance, although further research is needed.

The sub-domain of athletic competence revealed significance for the interaction effect with a trend in main effect for time. Pre scores in athletic competence revealed the control group to have higher scores, while the camp revealed higher post scores. Athletic competence post scores in the camp participants increased over the controls by a mean (M) score of 0.09, the smallest gain of all the sub-domains. Control participants revealed a loss (M=-0.54). In the arts camp, participants learned the basics of dance like hopping, skipping, jumping, leaping and grapevines, along with other basic dance skills, which were encouraged and praised by the instructor. Contingent feedback from instructors has been hypothesised to encourage the enhancement of competence (Horn as cited in Tjeerdsma, 1995, p.37). Another reason for the rise in athletic competence could be attributed to the teaching style of the camp. The dance portion of the camp is creatively based, encouraging improvisation and exploration of movement. Although proper technique is encouraged, having the freedom to move physically in a way that is more conducive and intrinsic for one may leave the students with a heightened sense of athletic competence. Theodorakou and Zervas (2003) support this claim by inferring that creative movement may lead a child to feeling more competent (p. 102).

Although no significant differences were revealed for the sub-domain of physical appearance, trends were reported in both interaction effect and main effect for time. Pre and post scores revealed camp participants to be higher throughout

in the physical appearance domain. Camp participants reported a positive gain ($M=0.25$), with the control group reporting a loss ($M=-0.08$). Physical appearance increased the second most of the 5 sub-domains over the course of the 3 weeks in the camp participants. The outward goal of the camp is to give these children the tools to complete a musical performance in 3 weeks. Inwardly, the hope is that these children leave with a new sense of self (i.e. positive perceptions, heightened self-esteem, new found hobbies or life-long involvement in the arts, etc.). With the outward goal in mind, some of the participants may have felt with the newfound positive attention being placed upon them, they had a new sense of pride in how they looked and how others may perceive them. Inwardly, with their increases in competence, naturally this may produce the rise in physical appearance.

The sub-domain of behavioural conduct revealed significance in interaction effect. Pre scores revealed the control group to have higher scores in behavioural conduct. Post scores revealed camp participants experienced a gain ($M=0.15$), while the control group experienced a loss ($M=-0.41$). Increases in behavioural conduct perceptions may be accredited to the discipline that was placed upon the arts group. Most of these children came from broken homes or are latch-key kids (kids that come home to an empty house after school), thus there may be a lack of discipline found in their household. Webster-Stratton (1998) found that when parents were less involved with their children, behavioural conduct was compromised. On the first day of camp, participants along with staff and counsellors set guidelines for behaviour, possibly encouraging them to be more aware of their behaviour.

No significance or trends were revealed in global self-worth. Pre and post scores in global self-worth revealed the control group to be higher throughout, although only by 0.01 in post score reporting. The camp participants revealed the larger gain ($M=0.38$), while the control group experienced a loss ($M=-0.19$). Although no significant results were revealed for global self-worth, it is worth noting that in the camp, participants experienced the largest increase of all the sub-domains of the SPPC. Overall, the camp encourages, nurtures, and embraces creativity and allows these children to be something they may normally not be, which may in return leave the children with an increased sense of self-worth. Another reason may be, according to Harter (2000) physical appearance is highly correlated as a factor linked to self-esteem, with those scoring higher in physical appearance scoring higher in global self-worth ($p. 133$). The arts camp had the second largest increase in the sub-domain of physical appearance, supporting the report from Harter.

5.2 Subjective Vitality

Pre scores revealed the controls reported higher individual difference levels of subjective vitality. Post scores revealed the camp participants reporting higher scores with a greater gain ($M=0.59$), with the controls reporting less of a gain ($M=0.37$). These scores revealed significance for both main effect for time within the groups and between-subject's effects. Reports from parents of past participants have written letters in support of the camp; along with self-report letters by the participants. Although not quantitative evidence, these letters relay the child's excitement of participating in the camp and the parent's perception of

their child's individual difference levels of vitality being sustained throughout most of the school year in anticipation for the camp next year.

State level subjective vitality scores were reported higher throughout in the camp participants, with equal gains for both groups ($M=0.91$). These results reveal significance in both main effect for time within subjects and between subject's effects. Ryan and Frederick surmise state levels of subjective vitality may be increased when an environment is conducive to being intrinsically motivated (p. 535), which may support the current findings. As reported earlier, camp participants may have felt intrinsically motivated to succeed at the tasks placed before them (choreographing, designing costumes, and producing characters). On the first day, most children come to the camp not knowing what to expect, which were revealed in the reported lower levels of state level vitality, but by the last day, performance day, state level vitality was heightened greatly.

5.3 Life Satisfaction

Pre scores for life satisfaction revealed the control group reporting a higher score. Post scores revealed the camp reporting a higher mean score, with a positive gain ($M=0.95$). Control groups reported a decline in life satisfaction ($M=-0.41$). These results revealed a significant difference in the interaction effect. Of all the questionnaires, life satisfaction had the greatest increase in the camp participants. With an overall increase in most of the questionnaires, it would seem logical that life satisfaction would increase. Life satisfaction seems to encompass all the other factors. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), one's

subjective well-being is increased when one feels competent, autonomous and a sense of relatedness (p. 68). These same 3 factors, according to Eccles (1991), are the impetus for development in children between the ages of 6 to 10 and 11 to 14 (p. 31). This then may be an essential age to expose and encourage children to explore and learn. If a child can have a positive experience, this can potentially lead to higher levels of competence. Since 4 of the 5 sub-domains in the SPPC increased along with both levels of subjective vitality, this may contribute to the feelings of competency reported by the children, in return increasing their life satisfaction. Life satisfaction may have also seen such a large increase due to the background most of these children are from. According to Gohm, Oishi, Darlington, and Diener (1998), children will display lower levels of life satisfaction when they are from backgrounds that have parents whom are either divorced or fight in front of the children. Exposure to the arts camps may have influenced the rise in life satisfaction.

5.4 Gender Differences

Gender differences could not statistically be analyzed due to a small sample size, but the data reports some interesting differences. Since there were no males in the control group, gender differences were only compared within the camp. Results revealed that the pre-scores in females were higher on all 5 of the sub-domains from Harter's Self-Perception Profile. This data is interesting, since previous data has shown males to score higher on athletic competence than females (Crocker et al, 2000, Donaldson & Ronan, 2006, Theodorakou & Zervas, 2003, Trew et al, 1990). One reason for this finding may be the small sample size, which resulted in the females outnumbering the about males 2:1.

The final set of questionnaires revealed the male's post-scores had risen, revealing the males had higher scores in 3 of the sub-domains over the females. Those sub-domains were social acceptance, athletic competence and global self-worth, in the end supporting the previous findings (Crocker et al, 2000, Donaldson & Ronan, 2006, Theodorakou & Zervas, 2003, Trew et al, 1990). Social acceptance increased the third most in males by a mean (M) increase of 0.20, behind athletic competence (M=0.27) and global self-worth (M=0.44). In the previous aforementioned studies, males score higher in athletic competence, which also have been highly correlated with global self-worth in males. This may account for the increase in global self-worth in the male participants. Overall, all scores rose over the course of the camp in both males in females except for social acceptance in the females. This score incurred a M loss of 0.35. A possible reason for the drop in the female score could be accounted for as previously mentioned, being the camp design is set up to be autonomously driven. The autonomous nature of the camp encourages children to work with the creativity from within to develop their own characters, choreography and costumes. Again, although not statistically significant, it may be surmised that the arts camp had a greater effect on male's self-perceptions than the females.

Life satisfaction scores revealed females remained higher throughout and increased by mean (M) score of 0.95. Males had the largest increase with M=1.40. One possible reason for this increase may be the exposure that most males get to the arts. Parents of male children may expose them to more male oriented activities, which in return, these males may not experience the affects an arts based camp can potentially have. Jacobs et al (2002) concur, as well as finding that not only parents may have an influence on gender differences in

activity choice but media, peers and schools all may have an influence (p. 523). Overall, it may be surmised that participation in the arts camps may increase male's life satisfaction over female, though further study and statistical analysis needs to be done.

Subjective vitality, at both individual and state scores, revealed males and females increased. From pre-to-post females had the higher scores. Females had the largest increase in the individual level ($M=0.59$) while the males had the largest increase at the state level (1.34). The positive gain in the state level of the subjective vitality scores may be accredited to the performance on the final day. Anyone who has invested time and energy into a final product may have feelings of nervousness and excitement that could lead to a rise in the state level of vitality. Ryan and Frederick (1997) support these finding and assert that when one is successful in self-directed actions, one will have a higher level of vitality over someone who has been successful in achieving goals in a controlled environment (p. 534). In general, females are more likely to be exposed to these particular types of activities, possibly making a base for more long term or global vitality. With males more likely to be exposed to more male oriented activities (Jacobs et al, 2002), their state level increase may be due to not having been exposed to something like this before. From this, one may surmise that both male and female participants in the camp had a heightened sense of being autonomously motivated, increasing both levels of vitality.

6.0 LIMITATIONS

During the course of the study, some limitations became apparent. The first limitation of this study included a small research sample in both the arts camp and the control group. A larger sample size, as with all studies, reduces the uncertainty around conclusions. In the years past, the camp participants have numbered between 30 and 40, so the researcher believed the same would be true for this year. Through investigation, it was determined the late dismissal of school this year caused families to vacation later into the summer, conflicting with the ability to attend the camp, showing in the decline in the number of participants.

Another limitation was the control group consisted of all girls, giving no comparison to gender differences for the arts camp.

Another possible limitation of the study included the percentage of returning participants. It is the belief of the researcher that knowledge of the camp by the returning participants could influence their questionnaire results.

Further limitations included the age of some of the camp participants. Even though the camp is designed for 8-12 year olds, the camp director does not turn anyone away, allowing younger participants to join (usually siblings of current camp participants). Not only could this be a potential limitation to their understanding and ability to learn choreography or to memorize lines, it may

make it difficult for them to understand the questionnaires. The Harter's Self-Perception Profile for Children is not designed for children under the age of 8. The under eights also had a difficult time understanding the Subjective Vitality Scales and the Satisfaction with Life Scale.

Although most participants seemed to enjoy filling out the questionnaires, another limitation could be the perception of the questionnaires by some of the participants. Some viewed it as homework, possibly making it feel like a chore, so some of their answers may have been compromised. Despite the reassurance from the researcher that they were not being tested and just wanted honest opinions, some participants continued to express negative feelings towards the process.

A final limitation included the lack of previous research on the effects of art/dance camps in general on self-perceptions, subjective vitality and life satisfaction in children. A majority of the previous research was based on sports participation. In fact, no studies were found specifically on arts camps and their effects. Sports and dance have been compared in older participants, with differences, but age may make a difference in how the perceptions can change and to what activity is being done to influence those changes (Gurley et al, 1984). In having data on arts camps, this would make a more viable distinction between sports and the arts and their possible differences in one's well-being.

7.0 FUTURE RESEARCH AND CONCLUSION

7.1 Future Research

Future research should include a repeat of the questionnaires on future camps with a larger research sample. This future study should also include more in-depth questionnaires like the Participation Motivation Questionnaire (Gill, Gross & Huddleston, 1983) to assess motives for participation in sport and physical activity along with the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire, but adapted to dance (Duda and Nicholls, 1989) to assess achievement goal orientations. A comparison study with not only a control group, but a sports camp should also add to the validity of the project. Possibly include a more longitudinal study of repeating the measures for a third time to see if levels of self-perceptions, vitality and life satisfaction are sustained later in the year.

Further future research should include encouraging school administrators to add dance to the curriculum. Then conduct a similar study to the above, using the same set of questionnaires, but including the Scholastic Competence sub-domain from the Harter's Self-Perception Profile (1985). A pilot study could be conducted longitudinally over the school year, using other groups in physical education (i.e. track and field, weightlifting, cross-country, etc.) classes as comparison. From the experience of the researcher, years of teaching and parental feed back, dance in the schools could possibly have positive impacts on feelings of competency and well-being along with many other possibilities (i.e. enhance self-esteem, increase in grades, heightened levels of focus in school, etc.).

7.2 Conclusion

The study of children's self-perceptions and well-being seems to be in the forefront of topics relating to children, with most of the emphasis being placed on sports as the factor. This leads one to believe there is a need for other areas of study, like the arts, i.e. dance, theatre and fine arts. If research supports the idea that sports participation can increase self-perceptions and well-being, the same may be said about creative based programs, with the possibility of even greater enhancements. The few studies conducted on dance and its relation to self-esteem revealed greater influences by dance as compared to sports (Gurley et al, 1984.) (p. 67). Gurley et al assert dance combines art and physicality, which may be the reason for the more positive affects on well-being (p. 67). Results of this current study support this idea, though further research is needed.

This study may also show the importance of dance and its positive relation to enhancements in self-perceptions, subjective vitality and life satisfaction, especially if learned in a more autonomous environment, like a camp setting. It also may prove to be a constructive creative, energy or stress outlet for children, contributing to the aforementioned factors. Positive experiences in an arts camp of this type may also encourage and promote a life long involvement. Furthermore, the decline in scores for the control group may show support for the importance of involvement in such activities, outlets and stimulation over the summer months for children. More research needs to be conducted along the same design, but these results show promise for the positive effects arts camp participation may have on self-perceptions, subjective vitality and life satisfaction in underserved youth.

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APPENDIX

Further Methodology

A.1 Consent Form

A.2 Participant Information Sheet

A.3 Parent/Guardian Information Sheet

A.4 Self-Perception Profile for Children

A.5 Satisfaction with Life Scale

A.6 Subjective Vitality Scales

A.1 Consent Form

MSc Dance Science, Laban
PARENTAL/GUARDIAN CONSENT FORM

Title of Project:

The effect of a 3-week arts camp on self-perceptions, life satisfaction and subjective vitality in youth

Please read the following statements carefully. Please sign only when you have agreed with the statements and when you have had any relevant questions answered.

By signing this form I confirm that

- I am willing for my child to take part in this study.
- The study and its procedures have been fully explained to me. I am clear about what will be involved and the purpose and potential benefits of the study.
- I am free to withdraw my child or my child may withdraw from the study at any time without necessarily giving a reason.

Your child's participation in this investigation and all data collected from the above testing procedures will remain strictly confidential. Only the researchers involved in this study will have access to their information and the information will not be accessible to any other member of staff. In compliance with the Data Protection Act (1998) and the Freedom of Information (2000), you will be able to access all information collected upon the completion of the study.

I have read the Information Sheet and Consent Form and I fully understand the study procedures. I consent for my child to participate in this study.

Participant Name (please print): _____

Parent/Guardian: (please print) _____ Date: _____

Signature: _____

Researcher Name (please print): _____ Date: _____

Signature: _____

Participant Information Sheet
The effect of a 3 week arts camp on feelings in youth

Hello, you have been invited to participate in a research study. This study will look at the well-being of children who participate in art and sports camps. Your time would very helpful and truly appreciated.

Participants in this study will be asked to fill out 3 questionnaires that will ask how one is feeling (like are you happy, sad, worried). There are no risks involved by being a participant in this study and if you don't feel comfortable, you can stop at anytime. The information gained from the completed questionnaires will be used in an MSc Dance Science student's thesis from the Laban School in London.

If you participate in this study, your name and information you give will be kept in the strictest of confidence, with them only being known to the researcher. Participation in this project is completely voluntary. Questionnaires will be completed twice, three weeks apart. To complete all three questionnaires, this should take around 35 minutes. Don't worry, this is not a test, so there are no wrong answers!

The researcher can be contacted at any time and will be happy to answer any questions or concerns that you may have. This study has been approved by the Laban Ethics committee.

Thank-you for your time!

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A.3 Parent/Guardian Information Sheet

Parent/Guardian Information Sheet **The effect of a 3 weeks arts camp on self-perceptions, life satisfaction and subjective vitality in youth**

Your child has been invited to participate in a research study. This study will look at the well-being of children who participate in art and sports camps. Your time would truly be appreciated.

Participants in this study will be required to fill out 3 questionnaires pertaining to how one is feeling. There are no risks involved by being a participant in this study and participants are allowed to drop out at any time. The information gained from the completed questionnaires will be used in an MSc Dance Science student's thesis from the Laban School in London.

Participants will be kept in the strictest of confidence, with the names only known to the researcher. Participation in this project is completely voluntary. Questionnaires will be completed twice, three weeks apart. To complete all three questionnaires, this should take around 35 minutes.

The researcher can be contacted at any time and will be happy to answer any questions or concerns. This study has been approved by the Laban Ethics committee.

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A.4 Self-Perception Profile for Children-Harter 1985

What Am I Like?

ID# _____ Age _____ Birthday _____ Group _____ Boy/Girl _____

First time at Reach for the Sky July? _____

Participating in other camps this summer? If so, which ones? _____

SAMPLE SENTENCE

Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids would rather play outdoors in their spare time.	BUT	Other kids would rather watch T.V.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- | | | | | | | | |
|----|--------------------------|--------------------------|--|------------|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids feel that they very good at their school work. | BUT | Other kids worry about whether they can do the school work assigned to them. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids find it hard to make friends. | BUT | Other kids find it's pretty easy to make friends. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids do very well at all kinds of sports. | BUT | Other kids don't feel that they are very good when it comes to sports. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids are happy with the way they look. | BUT | Other kids are not happy with the way they look. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids often do not like the way they behave. | BUT | Other kids usually like the way they behave. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids are often unhappy with themselves. | BUT | Other kids are pretty pleased with themselves. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids feel like they are just as smart other kids their age. | BUT | Other kids aren't so sure and wonder if they are as smart. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids have a lot of friends. | BUT | Other kids don't have very many friends. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids wish they could be a lot better at sports. | BUT | Other kids feel they are good enough at sports. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me			Sort of True for me	Really True for me
10.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Some kids are happy with their height and weight.	BUT	Other kids wish their height or weight were different.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Some kids usually do the right thing.	BUT	Other kids often don't do the right thing.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Some kids don't like the way they are leading their life.	BUT	Other kids do like the way they are leading their life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Some kids are pretty slow in finishing their school work.	BUT	Other kids can do their school work quickly.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Some kids would like to have a lot more friends.	BUT	Other kids have as many friends as they want.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Some kids think they could do well at just about any new sports activity they haven't tried before.	BUT	Other kids are afraid they might not do well at sports they haven't ever tried.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Some kids wish their body was different.	BUT	Other kids like their body the way it is.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Some kids usually act the way they know they are supposed to.	BUT	Other kids often don't act the way they are suppose to.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Some kids are happy with themselves as a person.	BUT	Other kids are often not happy with themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Some kids often forget what they learn.	BUT	Other kids can remember things easily.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Some kids are always doing thing with a lot of kids.	BUT	Other kids usually do things by themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Some kids feel that they are better than others their age at sports.	BUT	Other kids don't feel they can play as well.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

22. Some kids wish their physical appearance (how they look) was different. **BUT** Other kids like their physical appearance the way it is.
23. Some kids usually get in trouble because of things they do. **BUT** Other kids usually don't do things that get them in trouble.
24. Some kids like the kind of person they are. **BUT** Other kids often wish they were someone else.
25. Some kids do very well at their classwork. **BUT** Other kids don't do very well at their classwork.
26. Some kids wish that more people their age liked them. **BUT** Other kids feel that most people their age do like them.
27. In games and sports some kids usually watch instead of play. **BUT** Other kids usually play rather than watch.
28. Some kids wish something about their face or hair looked different. **BUT** Other kids like their face and hair the way they are.
29. Some kids do things they know they shouldn't do. **BUT** Other kids hardly ever do things they know they shouldn't do.
30. Some kids are very happy being the way they are. **BUT** Other kids wish they were different.
31. Some kids have trouble figuring out the answers in school. **BUT** Other kids almost always can figure out the answers.
32. Some kids are popular with others their age. **BUT** Other kids are not very popular.
33. Some kids don't do well at new outdoor games. **BUT** Other kids are good at new games right away.

34. Some kids think that they are good looking. **BUT** Other kids think that they are not very good looking.
35. Some kids behave themselves very well. **BUT** Other kids often find it hard to behave themselves.
36. Some kids are not very happy with the way they do a lot of things. **BUT** Other kids think the way they do things is fine.

A.5 Satisfaction with Life Scale

The Satisfaction with Life Scale

By Ed Diener, Ph.D

Directions: Below are five statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the 1-7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number in the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.

- 1= Strongly Disagree
- 2= Disagree
- 3= Slightly Disagree
- 4= Neither Disagree or Agree
- 5= Slightly Agree
- 6= Agree
- 7= Strongly Agree

- _____ 1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.
- _____ 2. The conditions of my life are excellent.
- _____ 3. I am satisfied with life.
- _____ 4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.
- _____ 5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

A.6 Subjective Vitality Scales

Subjective Vitality Scales *Ryan and Frederick (1997)*

Please respond to each of the following statements by indicating the degree to which the statement is true for you in general in your life. Use the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all			somewhat			very true
true			true			

Individual Difference Level Version

1. I feel alive and vital.
2. Sometimes I feel so alive I just want to burst.
3. I have energy and spirit.
4. I look forward to each new day.
5. I nearly always feel alert and awake.
6. I feel energized.

State Level

1. At this moment, I feel alive and vital.
2. Currently I feel so alive I just want to burst.
3. At this time, I have energy and spirit.
4. I am looking forward to each new day.
5. At this moment, I feel alert and awake.
6. I feel energized right now.