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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Throughout history, it has been suggested by various developmental, humanistic, and environmental theorists that self-concept is an important developmental process for young children and adolescents (Beane & Lipka, 1984, p. X). “Cooley (1902) speculated that the self is actually a ‘looking glass self’ and thus the process of knowing about oneself is actually one in which we come to view ourselves as we believe others view us.” (Beane & Lipka, 1984, p. X). Therefore, self-concept can be explained as the description an individual attaches to himself or herself and can be influenced by feedback from others, such as parents, peers, and educators. “Educators are charged with the task of helping young people experience healthy growth and development. In other words, an educational program without an emphasis on enhancing self-perceptions is an incomplete program” (Beane & Lipka, 1984, p. x).

“Developmental competencies, which are types of functional life competencies each person must attain in order to learn, achieve academic success, and prepare for a satisfying and productive career, have been implemented into education programs and include self-concept as one of the competencies at every level (K-12). More specifically, it stresses that students should be able to understand the influence of a positive self-concept. The purpose or importance of gaining this understanding is to provide young adults with the skills to maintain a positive self-concept that will be beneficial throughout adulthood” (Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 1986, p. 12). With this philosophy underlying curriculum development in the State of Wisconsin, the interest and

importance of studying self-concept has drastically increased among educators and professionals.

Although research suggests that physical exercise is important to one's well-being, many experts believe that schools need to modify the physical education programs. Competitive sports is emphasized, but in all actuality, it is very likely that the youngsters who are not physically fit will draw back when activities demands a high level of skill. Therefore, physical education programs need to incorporate activities that meet the skill level and beginning fitness level of each individual student such as walking, jogging, jumping, and climbing. As a result, it is believed that these physical activities will be maintained and continued throughout adulthood (Berk, 1993, p. 411). Therefore, providing for a healthy and positive well being for individuals during adulthood years.

However, in order to enhance self-concept, we must provide students with additional opportunities that allow them to perceive themselves in a positive manner. This may include opportunities for growth in cognitive, social, or physical activities. Participation in athletics, in particular, may serve as an opportunity to enhance student's self-concept. At a very early age, we are encouraged and taught that physical fitness is needed to maintain good health and a positive well being. As a result of this emphasis, students participate in physical education classes starting in kindergarten and continuing throughout high school. Beyond curricular classes in physical education, participation in athletics may also be beneficial to students. In addition to the physical benefit of participating in a given sport, athletics may provide psychological benefits as well. In athletic participation, there is a "high level of interaction that allows students the chance to try out ideas and roles with others and thus to test their self-concept. Athletics also

provides the chance to assume and feel leadership responsibilities, which may result in enhanced self-perception” (Beane & Lipka, 1984, p. 121).

In athletics, players are continually assessing their capabilities and the behavior of others around them and as a result, skills of successful social behavior can be learned through membership on a team. When participating in athletics, the student also learns to work towards a common goal and to cooperate with teammates. Some positive attributes that can be gained from participation in sports are: group loyalty, self-recognition, and peer self-image (Alley, 1974, p. 102), therefore, athletic participation appears to provide not only physical benefits for students, but also psychological benefits as well.

“In a review of sixteen studies on exercise and self-esteem, exercise programs are associated with significant increases in the self-esteem scores of participants versus non-participants” (Sonstroem, 1984). Although this data reflects the notion of participation in exercise programs, it is possible to assume that athletic participation also is significant with regards to self-concept.

Athletic participation is a different and unique experience for every student because each athlete has his or her own reasons or desires for choosing a particular sport. For some, the need may be for excitement and stimulation. For other students, participation may arise from the desire for affiliation, and the need to be a part of a team, so that they have a sense of belonging, not because they want to achieve fame or recognition. Finally, others may want to “demonstrate competence in order to meet the need to feel worthy. When skills are less developed, and when a person does not have a mature, positive self-concept, being judged competent and successful by others is very

important. It helps athletes move toward being able to judge their own self-worth in the absence of others, which is an important ability to be developed” (Martens, 1974, p. 25).

Nothing is more important to each of us than our own self-worth and the process by which we develop self-worth begins at an early age. Unfortunately, athletics can portray negative aspects with regards to self-feeling and self-confidence. “Early sports experiences are vital in shaping a youngster’s self-confidence and self-worth. Those who experience initial success become more self-confident, feel more worthy, and are motivated to pursue excellence. Those who experience initial failure become more insecure and feel less worthy” (Martens, 1974, p. 154). Determining the impact that involvement in athletics has on students self-concept could help identify what is necessary to compete successfully in society. It is important to determine what role athletic participation plays in developing an adolescent’s self-concept. “In our society, those who achieve more are considered to be more worthy individuals. In sports, achievement is usually measured by one simple criterion, winning. Winning is viewed as success and losing is viewed as failure. Winners, therefore, are more worthy and losers are less worthy. And even the youngest athletes quickly learn these standards of achievement” (Martens, 1974, p. 158). Unfortunately, as a result, it is often believed that failure precedes a lower self-concept than winning.

For present and future educators, there should be concern regarding the fact that students have become so convinced that the only criterion for evaluating their worth is whether or not they win or lose. Certainly, they are in danger of becoming unable to separate their evaluation of their performance from the outcome. Thus, it is crucial to

determine if students recognize that self-concept is not achieved by winning, but by living up to one's standards.

However, even though sports and athletic participation is continually publicized through media, and estimated that the “number of American youths participating in various organized sports is 40 million” (Ferguson, 1999, p. 54), there is a limited amount of research which has been conducted to demonstrate how athletic participation contributes to students level of self-concept. Much of the literature that exists fails to cite documented research findings. So, one can only speculate about the benefits of athletics and exercise without supporting empirical data. It is evident that further data is needed regarding the influence athletic participation has on students self-concept.

Therefore, the research hypothesis for this study is that participation in athletics is positively related to a higher self-concept score, as compared to those students who do not participate in athletics.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The purpose of this study is to determine the level of difference in self-concept scores, as measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale:2 for sophomore high school students that participate in athletics as compared to non-athletic students. Athletic participation is defined as participating in, or being a member of one extracurricular school related sporting activity, for at least one-year prior to participating in their current sporting activity. The variable of self-concept is defined as the description an individual attaches to himself or herself, which can be influenced by feedback from others.

NULL HYPOTHESES

H 1: There is no statistically significant difference between Total Self-Concept Summary Scale (TOT) scores for those students who participate in athletics, as compared to non-athletic students.

H 2: There is no statistically significant difference between Social (SOC) Self-Concept Scale scores for those students who participate in athletics, as compared to non-athletic students.

H 3: There is no statistically significant difference between Physical (PHY) Self-Concept Scale scores for those students who participate in athletics, as compared to non-athletic students.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Throughout the existing literature regarding self-concept, it is evident that the dynamics and importance of self-concept remains a central element in one's life. Self-concept is believed to be the "the feelings one has about themselves and is partially a result of societal expectations" (Leighton, 1990, p. 17). Furthermore, self-concept is incorporated in every child's life starting at birth.

One developmental domain that is assumed to contribute positively to children's self-concept level is physical development. The President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports (1973) stressed the importance of physical activity at an early age. It is believed that physical activity promotes not only the physical health of the youth, but also their mental health and self-concept development (Leighton, 1990, p. 17). Self-concept is still highly emphasized in schools nationally, yet limited empirical research exists to document the influence of athletic participation upon self-concept.

Theoretical frameworks that conceptualize how individuals perceive themselves have been in existence for several years. One of the most commonly known developmental theorists who actively contributed to conducting research in this field in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries was sociologist Charles H. Cooley. His "development of the emotional aspect of the self, 'the looking glass self', shaped contemporary beliefs" (Hewitt, 1998, p. 38), and continues to be used by educators and counselors today.

Cooley's theory of the self suggests that the "self and its associated feelings are inherently social. 'There is no sense of 'I', without its correlative sense of you, or he, or they'" (Hewitt, 1998, p. 38). As previously mentioned, he is primarily well-known for the development of the notion of the 'looking glass self'. The 'looking glass self' stresses the comparison of the image we see when we look in the mirror, and furthermore, greatly depends on our beliefs about judgment made by others around us (Hewitt, 1998, p. 38).

He elaborated this belief by proposing that self-idea....seems to have three principal elements: 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. In other words, Cooley says, we arouse feelings in ourselves by imagining the feelings the other holds toward us. We are thus tied to the social world, which supplies us with images of what others are and what we should be, as well as the opportunities for social interaction, in which the looking glass self is formed. (Hewitt, 1998, p. 39)

One form of social interaction that exists for students, starting as early as elementary school, is participation in athletics. Athletics is a source of interaction where judgments about self and others are continuously made. Judgments regarding athletic potential, abilities, sportsmanship, leadership, dedication, and team building skills are just a few elements that are frequently analyzed by coaches, spectators, parents, and teammates. Conclusions are based upon all of the elements previously listed, and contribute to the development of the students sense of self, as perceived by others, very

similar to Cooley's suggestion. This perception by others results in the student's feelings about themselves, or "self-feelings".

The self-feelings made by students who participate in athletics can be greatly influenced by comparing their athletic ability or potential to others.

Marsh and Peart (1988) demonstrated the practical implications of frame of reference effects on physical self-concept in that a competitively oriented aerobics intervention – where students compared their performances with whomever did best – actually led to a decline in physical self-concept despite increases in physical fitness. They further speculated that in highly competitive sport settings, the frame of reference established by other participants and the expectations of significant others may have as much influence on physical self-concept as the actual skill level. For example, young athletes who are "super stars" in their local communities may experience a decline in physical self-concept when they join elite athletic teams where everyone is a star (Marsh, 1998, p. 243).

Evidently, not only is social perception important in the formation of one's self-concept, but factors such as frame of reference and ability are also influential in constructing self-concept.

In addition to Charles Cooley, William James was also a founder of a self-perception theory. He viewed self-concept as primarily being derived through the social world. He believed that the way that we are perceived by society is essentially what shapes how we feel about ourselves. In other words, our social interaction is in a sense the source of our self-esteem (Hewitt, 1998, p. 37). Furthermore, James suggested that it is controlled by each of us individually. Thus, self-esteem is influenced not only by

individual success such as accomplishing tasks or earning the approval of others, but also by the aspirations which result from the individuals motivation (Hewitt, 1998, p. 37).

When applying this theory to athletic participation, James said

An athlete set on establishing a world record by running the fastest mile or clearing the highest hurdle, coming in second nearly amounts to failure. To the average overweight American, even completing a mile run would seem a major accomplishment and would bolster self-esteem. It follows that individuals can raise self-esteem either by meeting the expectations they set for themselves, or by adjusting those expectations so that they are easier to meet. Likewise, because self-esteem depends on the approval of others, individual's can increase it either by doing what is required to secure approval, or by seeking approval from those who are likely to give it (Hewitt, 1998, p. 37).

Based upon these two theorists' underlying assumptions, one can readily conclude that children most often derive their perceptions of self externally through interactions with others. These perceptions impact children's lives, and can be carried over into adulthood. In an attempt to provide concrete evidence reflecting these two social comparison theories, contradictory results have been found in sports performance literature related to self-concept issues and sports participation. Stevenson (1985) provided evidence indicating that participation in sports did not cause any verifiable socialization or developmental effects. On the other hand, a few studies suggest that sport participation provides an opportunity to gain interpersonal skills, friendships, and a sense of unity. One such study suggested that athletes "appear to have the opportunity,

and need, to develop strong social support networks, more so than the general student population” (Curry, Rehm, & Bernuth, 1997, p. 97).

Therefore, it appears that participation in athletics can provide beneficial aspects, such as the development of strong social support networks, to those students who choose to participate. Adolescence is a developmental stage, which places a high emphasis on social connections, the search for one’s identity, which results in self-perception. In addition to the strong emphasis on peer influence, adolescence is a period of rapid physical growth and pubertal development. Many observable characteristics and changes emerge during this stage, leading adolescents to feel anxious and self-conscious about their bodies. According to several developmentalists, “developing a healthy body image is an integral part of becoming an adult” (Stassen Berger, 1994, p. 378). Unfortunately, the search to obtain the ideal body image can become self-absorbing and in some instances, destructive. This may occur when adolescents perceive their ideal body image based upon the responses and reactions of others (Stassen Berger, 1994, p. 378).

Adolescents are faced with the challenge of obtaining an ideal image from media and society, as well as from their peer group.

On the other hand, peer groups can serve as self-help groups, due to the fact that they have been found to be positive aides in every major task of adolescence, from adjusting to physical changes of puberty, to developing social skills, and searching for identity (Stassen Berger, 1994, p. 423).

Nevertheless, concern over identity and body image should be viewed as an important developmental task during adolescence. “In adolescence, particularly, feelings of depression among both males and females correlate strongly with a negative body

image” (Rierdan, Koff & Stobbs, 1988). Therefore, the importance for studying the adolescent population is evident, as it clearly is a period of rapid change, uncertainty, and emotional turbulence.

As previously cited, adolescence is a developmental stage that stresses social virtues, peer groups, and identity formation. Athletics, perhaps, is one source for encouraging development of social networks, body image and positive peer relations. In book “Training and Conditioning of Athletes” (Novich, 1983) discussed the importance of physical fitness for students. He proposed that physical fitness gives students the opportunity to enhance physical development, as well as providing a socially acceptable outlet for aggressive and competitive needs. Along with the physical benefits of regular activity, numerous studies have determined that appropriate exercise can be positively linked to one’s physical and mental health (Leighton, 1990, p. 12). Indeed, research indicates that physical fitness and exercise has a positive impact on one’s psychological well-being.

Jorgenson and Jorgenson (1979) identified the effect that participation in an individualized sport, running, has on one’s perception of self. A questionnaire was provided that focused on perceptions of change due to running on a regular basis. A total of 497 individuals from three running clubs in the Southwest completed the questionnaire, and 92% of the respondents recorded that their emotional well-being increased as a result of running. In addition to an increase in their emotional well-being, they identified an increase in their physical well-being and a reduction in the number of times they were ill. As a result of this study, it was suggested that running had a strong

impact on the respondent's perceptions of themselves both psychologically and physically (Leighton, 1990, p. 15).

Leonardson and Gargiulo (1978) conducted a study to explore the relationship between exercise and self-concept. In their study, 15 students were given a pre and post-test on physical fitness and self-concept. The individuals participated in a ten-week training program consisting of jogging for a minimum of thirty minutes, at least twice a week. Even though the differences in pre and post scores for the participant's were not significant, the results showed an increase in self-concept. Although the study only entailed 15 subjects, the study still indicated that increased physical activity may impact positive changes in one's self-concept (Leighton, 1990, p. 20).

In both of the previously mentioned studies, the participants primary form of exercise consisted of running or jogging for a given amount of time, which positively resulted in an increase in the participant's self-concept. Other types of athletic participation, in addition to running were evaluated in a study by Hanson and Nedde (1974). Their study involved 8 previously sedentary women, ages twenty to forty-four years. The subjects underwent a program for eight months. During those eight months, they trained for one hour, five times per week. The training consisted of warm-up calisthenics and jogging, which was followed by additional activities of either swimming, racquetball, volleyball or, cross-country running. Prior to the training, the subjects were assessed using the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS). They were tested again following four months into the program and at the end of the eight-month program. Continually, after each test was administered, the results indicated significant positive changes on the TSCS. Because the subjects were inactive in the beginning of the study

due to the addition of physical activity, their self-concept was enhanced; the hypothesis that exercise has a positive impact on an individual's self-concept was supported (Leighton, 1990, p. 21).

In addition to determining if there is a relationship between those who actively participate in exercise and their self-concept, there is evidence that suggests that non-participants have a lower self-concept than those individuals who participate in athletics. In a study by Smith (1986), 104 boys and girls actively involved in a youth sport program were given the Martinek-Zaichkowsky Self-Concept Scale and compared the scores with 104 non-participating boys and girls. Those students who had participated in youth sports had significantly higher self-esteem. However, Smith stressed the need for longitudinal studies to determine the impact of sports on youth's self-esteem. Nevertheless, this study clearly indicated that sport participation does contribute to self-concept, even at a young age (Leighton, 1990, p. 23).

Finally, Thomas Johnson, M.D. stressed that although sports and competition can be a normal and potentially beneficial part of each child's life, coaches and parents are key to the psychological impact of the sports experiences. He suggests their role is to place emphasis on effort made, rather than results. Their role is to praise participation and attitude, and to serve as models for students. Therefore, the importance sports can play on children's self-esteem depends upon many underlying elements, but if participation and attitude is stressed, sports can be beneficial and a rewarding experience for the participants (Leighton, 1990, p.24).

On the other hand, some research findings indicate that athletic participation is harmful, and potentially damaging to students who chose to partake in such events.

A large number of athletes may have a history of being exposed to a win-at-all cost mentality. As a result, it may be difficult for the athlete to consider the concept of sportsmanship (Rudd & Stoll, 1998, p41), which may indicate that sports have the potential to be harmful and instill inappropriate messages to youth participants.

Furthermore, an increase in competitiveness may result when one participates in athletics. “When adults or parents become involved in children’s games, their focus becomes overly competitive, which focuses less on the process of playing or participating in a sport and more on the product of winning” (Berk, 1993, p. 409).

In addition, participation may actually lead to low self-evaluation, instead of an increase in self-concept for student athletes, due to individual failures, lack of recognition, comparison of oneself with teammates abilities and potential, or setting unrealistic and unachievable goals. As mentioned previously, self-concept is formed by social perceptions and it is possible that those students “who experience initial failure, become more insecure and feel less worthy” (Martens, 1974, p. 154). One study regarding individual abilities and potential of athletes suggested that by assigning children to specific positions on a team, rather than allowing them to experiment and test capabilities, may hinder the learning experiences for children (Berk, 1993, p. 408).

Finally, undue pressure from coaches and parents are another aspect of sport participation that can be damaging to students. In the book “Why Johnny Hates Sport”, author Fred Engh cites that “approximately 73% of kids who quit their childhood sports by age 13 do so mainly because it ceases to be fun and the pressure put on them by coaches and parents do not make it worthwhile” (Ferguson, 1999, p. 58). Indeed, many children feel “additional pressure from coaches and parents, who become overly critical

when players make errors or highly structure the sport that it resembles ‘work’ more than ‘play’”(Berk, 1993, p. 408).

From another perspective, others believe that athletic participation is not a causal element for an increase in one’s self-concept. “If, for example, students who do better in school tend to have higher self-esteem scores, we cannot assume that their higher self-esteem causes their better performance. It might just as likely be the case that they have higher self-esteem because they do better in school (Hewitt, 1998, p. 52).

Clearly, the relationship between athletics and self-concept is a complex topic and the results can be insightful for present and future educators alike. The literature which exists suggests contradictory findings, with some studies displaying no relationship between athletic or exercise participation and one’s self-concept and other literature providing significant findings that indeed show a positive relationship between participation in exercise or athletics, as it relates to an increase in self-concept. In fact, some studies cite statistically significant increases in the subject’s self-concept. What is clear is the need for more evidence that supports the influence of athletic participation upon self-concept. Therefore, this study will primarily focus on the relationship between those students who actively participate in athletics, as compared to those students who do not participate in athletics, and their perceptions of self.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to determine the level of difference in self-concept scores among sophomore high school athletes, as compared to non-athletes. The objectives of this study were to compare the T scores of the following scales from the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale: 2: Total Self-Concept Summary Scale (TOT), Physical (PHY) Self-Concept Scale, and Social (SOC) Self-Concept Scale.

Subjects:

The total population for this study consisted of fifty-two tenth grade students (twenty-eight athletes and twenty-four non-athletes) who were currently enrolled at Menomonie High School for the 1999-2000 school year.

The twenty-eight athletic participants were students currently participating in an athletic sport for the 1999-2000 school year, and who had previously participated in a sporting activity for one year prior to this study. The twenty-four non-athletic students were selected using a random sample from seven classes at Menomonie High School.

Those subjects who received parental permission and who were willing to participate in this study regarding self-concept and athletic participation were asked to complete a demographic questionnaire and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale:2, Adult Form.

Instrumentation:

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale:2 was used to assess self-concept (Appendix A). The scale “summarizes an individual’s feelings of self-worth, the degree to which the

self-image is realistic, and whether or not that self-image is a deviant one” (Walsh, 1984, p. 663). There are two forms that can be used when administering the TSCS:2, the Adult Form (for ages 13-90), which has 82 items and the Child Form (for ages 7-14), which consists of 76 items. Both of the forms can be administered individually or in a group, and can be completed in 10-20 minutes, and scored in ten minutes. For this study, the Adult Form was administered, due to the expectation that students were between the ages of 14-16 years old.

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale:2 (TSCS) was originally developed in 1955 and restandardized and published in the 1996 to “provide researchers and clinicians with materials that are easy to use, yet which retain the characteristics that have given the test such a wide appeal over the past several decades. Although inefficient and outdated items have been eliminated and scoring procedures have been simplified, most of the original items have been retained and the obtained scores are psychometrically equivalent to their counterparts. The scale was renormed on a nationwide sample of over 3,000 individuals ranging in age from 7 to 90 years old” (Fitts and Warren, 1996, p. 3). In addition to the restandardization, an Academic/Work Self-Concept Scale was added.

The most important aspects, however, for choosing to administer the TSCS:2 was the high degree of reliability and validity that it portrays. The internal consistency ranged from .73 to .95 (median .80) for the two Adult Form normative groups. The test-retest reliabilities for the TSCS:2 ranged from .47 for Inconsistent Responding score to .82 for the Total Self-Concept score on the Adult Form (median .76) (Fitts and Warren, 1996, p. 59-60). Therefore, it was evident that the TSCS:2 displays characteristics of validity.

Procedure for Data Collection:

At orientation night for the fall sports season, a parental/student consent form/letter was provided to the parents of tenth grade student athletes participating in a fall sporting activity (Appendix B). Parents who agreed to provide consent for their child to participate in the study were asked to sign the consent form that evening and return to the researcher prior to leaving orientation night. Following receipt of the signed consent forms, twenty-eight athletes agreed to participate in the study. They were apprised of their voluntary participation and their responses were kept entirely confidential (Appendix C). When they agreed to participate, they were given a short demographic survey (Appendix D) and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale:2 Adult form.

In addition to those participants obtained from orientation night, several other student athletes from seven classes at Menomonie High School were recruited to participate in the study.

The parental/student consent forms were distributed to tenth grade students who were non-athletes in seven classes, specifically, 1 Band class, 1 Early U.S. History class, 1 3-Dimensional Art class, two English classes, and two Choir classes. Following return of the parental consent letter (Appendix B) to the researcher, twenty-four non-athletic students agreed to participate in the study. They were apprised of their voluntary participation and their responses were kept entirely confidential (Appendix C). When they agreed to participate, they were given a short demographic survey (Appendix E) and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale: 2 Adult Form.

When the participants completed the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale: 2 form, the researcher provided them with a follow-up thank-you letter (Appendix F) for their participation in the study.

Analysis of the Data:

As stated previously, the purpose of this study was to determine the level of difference in self-concept among high school athletes as compared to non-athletes. Therefore, this study compared T-scores on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale for athletic students and non-athletic students, specifically for the Total Self-Concept Summary, Physical (PHY) Self-Concept Scale, and Social (SOC) Self-Concept Scale.

T-tests were used to calculate each of the fifteen subscale scores from the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale:2 test for both groups of respondents. From this measurement, the mean, median, standard deviation, frequencies, and percentages were tabulated for both groups of participants. In addition, T-tests were used to calculate the fifteen subscale scores from the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale:2 for each of the groups, independent from one another. T-tests for equality of means was the statistic used to determine if there was a significant difference at the .05 level for the fifteen subscales scores for the student athletes and non-athletes. The Pearson-Chi-Square test was used to calculate the amount of difference at the .05 level regarding gender and ethnicity representation for the total respondents and for each group of respondents.

The null hypotheses (H:1, H:2, H:3) of this study stated that there would be no statistically significant difference between Total Self-Concept Summary Scale (TOT) scores, Social (SOC) Self-Concept Scale scores, and Physical (PHY) Self-Concept Scale scores for those students who participated in athletics, as compared to non-

athletic students. The hypothesis stated that participation in athletics is positively related to a higher self-concept score, as compared to those students who do not participate in athletics.

Limitations:

Clearly, there were limitations to this study. One of the factors of limitation was that all of the subjects were volunteers. In addition to the subjects being volunteers, parental involvement may have impacted the scores of some of the students that participated. For example, one non-athletic student, whom scored the highest Total Self-Concept Summary score overall in the study, 73T, reported that her mother wanted to be informed of her scores. Additionally, several of the parents who were present at orientation night and allowed their daughter and/or son to participate in the study, sat near or next to their child while they completed the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale:2 test. Therefore, it is possible that parental interest or pressure may have impacted student responses.

Another limitation of this study was the fact that socioeconomic status was not considered. It appeared that most of the participants were from lower to middle class socioeconomic status families. It is possible that students from a high socioeconomic status might have scored differently on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale.

Geographic location was another concern regarding the diversity of this study. All of the participants were rural residents, except for three non-athletic students who recently moved to the area from California, Oklahoma, and Minnesota. Therefore, urban students were not represented in this study and may have scored differently on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale.

The number of the participants, fifty-two, was a very small sample size and definitely a concern to the researcher. A larger sample size was initially desired at the beginning of this study and highly recommended to future researchers.

Gender and ethnic representations were also a concern to the researcher. In the total sample size, males and females were equally represented (See Table 2). However, gender was not equally represented within the athletic group and non-athletic group, which was possibly influential to the findings, as males and females may have discrepancies among their scores. (See Table 3). Ethnic diversity was not represented in the sample. Most of the participants were Caucasian; other participants were Asian or Native American (See Table 4). Unfortunately, several of the races were not represented in the study, such as African Americans and Hispanics. Therefore, a more diverse population may have scored differently on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale.

Finally, extracurricular activities of the non-athletic students were not identified. Participation in extracurricular activities influences self-competency, which influences self-esteem. Non-athletes may have been involved in other extracurricular activities, which influenced their scores on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to determine the level of difference in self-concept scores, as measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale:2 for sophomore high school students that participate in athletics, as compared to non-athletes. The objectives of the study were to compare T-scores from the following scales from the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale:2: Total Self-Concept Summary Scale (TOT), Physical (PHY) Self-Concept Scale, and Social (SOC) Self-Concept Scale.

Demographic Data:

The participants in this study were sophomore students at Menomonie High School. Their ages ranged from 14 years of age to 16 years of age, with the majority of students, 40 students or 76.9%, indicating that they were 15 years old. Ten students or 19.2% indicated that they were 16 years old, and 1 student or 1.9% responded that they were 14 years old. (See Table 1) One student identified herself as a sophomore athlete, but did not indicate her age. It was evident that all of the students who participated in the study shared the similarity of being in the developmental stage of adolescence.

Table 1 - Current age of respondents for both groups

AGE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
14 Years Old	1	1.9 %
15 Years Old	40	76.9 %
16 Years Old	10	19.2 %
TOTAL	51	98.1 %

In addition to age, both genders were equally represented for the overall total population of participants (See Table 2). There were 26 or 50.0% males and 26 or 50.0% females that participated in the study.

Table 2 - Gender of respondents for both groups

GENDER	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Males	26	50.0 %
Females	26	50.0 %
Total	52	100.0 %

However, when the gender of the non-athletes were compared to the gender of the athletes, there appeared to be a significant discrepancy between the two groups of respondents, with regards to the representation for each gender. Therefore, when each group was considered individually, there were an unequal number of males and females per group. The non-athlete group was composed of 8 or 33.3% males and 16 or 66.7% females. On the other hand, the athletic group was composed of 18 or 64.3% males and 10 or 35.7% females (See Table 3). There were more females represented in the non-athletic group and more males represented in the athletic group. As a result of the unequal gender representation for the two groups, the Pearson Chi-Square analysis determined at the .05 level there was a statistically significant difference among the two groups with regards to gender representation, which will be discussed later.

Table 3 - Gender of respondents for each group

GROUPS	GENDER	COUNT	PERCENTAGE
1. NON-ATHLETE	1. Males	8	33.3 %
	1. Females	16	66.7 %
TOTAL		24	100.0 %
2. ATHLETES	2. Males	18	64.3 %
	2. Females	10	35.7 %
TOTAL		28	100.0 %

Ethnicity is also an influential factor that must be considered when one is researching the topic of self-concept. In this particular study, ethnicity was not equally represented overall for the total participants. As a whole, this study consisted of 6 or 11.5% Asian students, 1 or 1.9% Native American students, and 45 or 86.5% Caucasian students (See Table 4). The majority of individuals that participated in this study were Caucasian students. Other ethnic groups, such as African American and Hispanic, were not represented in this study.

Table 4 - Ethnicity of respondents for both groups

ETHNICITY	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Asian	6	11.5 %
Native American	1	1.9 %
White	45	86.5 %
TOTAL	52	100.0 %

When considered individually, the non-athletic group consisted of 2 or 8.3 % of the participants were Asian, 1 or 4.2% of the participants were Native American, and 21 or 87.5% of the participants were Caucasian. Likewise, in the athletic group, 4 or 14.3% of the participants were Asian, and 24 or 85.7% of the participants were Caucasian (See Table 5). Therefore, in each individual group, the majority of the respondents that participated in this study were Caucasian students. Nevertheless, the Pearson Chi-Square analysis displayed no statistical significance at the .05 level with regards to the ethnic diversity of the two groups of respondents.

Table 5 - Ethnicity of respondents for each group

GROUP	ETHNICITY	COUNT	PERCENTAGE
1. NON-ATHLETE	1. Asian	2	8.3 %
	1. Native American	1	4.2 %
	1. White	21	87.5 %
TOTAL		24	100.0 %
2. ATHLETES	2. Asian	4	14.3 %
	2. White	24	85.7 %
TOTAL		28	100.0 %

When the athletic participants were asked to identify the sport and/or sports that they had previously participated in for at least one year prior to this study, several sports were represented among the athletic students and many of the athletes identified being a member of the same sports. From the sports identified, 16 or 57.1% participated in soccer, 16 or 57.1% participated in basketball, 12 or 42.9% participated in track, and 9 or 32.1% participated in football (See Table 6).

Table 6 - Types of athletic participation

SPORT	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	SPORT	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Soccer	16	57.1 %	Baseball	4	14.3 %
Basketball	16	57.1 %	Wrestling	4	14.3 %
Track	12	42.9 %	Gymnastics	2	7.1 %
Football	9	32.1 %	Cheer-Leading	2	7.1 %
Cross-Country	5	17.9 %	Hockey	1	3.6 %
Softball	5	17.9 %	Dance Line/Pom Pon	1	3.6 %
Volleyball	5	17.9 %	Diving	1	3.6 %
Swimming	5	17.9 %	Other	1	3.6 %
Tennis	4	14.3 %	TOTAL	28	100.0 %

In addition to soccer, track, basketball, and football being the sports that portrayed the largest number of athletic participants in the study, these four sports also displayed

longevity and commitment from the athletes who participated in each of these sports (See Table 7). More specifically, of the 16 soccer participants, 4 had participated in the sport for 5 or more years. Likewise, of the 16 basketball players, 8 had participated in the sport for 5 or more years. With regards to the 12 track participants, 2 had participated for 4 years. Finally, of the 9 football players, 3 had participated in this sport for 5 or more years (See Table 7).

Table 7 - Top 4 sports participated in by respondents

SPORTS	FREQUENCY	YEARS PARTICIPATED
Soccer	16	1 yr. = 4 4 yrs. = 2 2 yrs. = 6 5 + yrs. = 4
Basketball	16	1 yr. = 2 4 yrs. = 1 2 yrs. = 2 5 + yrs. = 8 3 yrs. = 3
Track	12	1 yr. = 3 3 yrs. = 3 2 yrs. = 4 4 yrs. = 2
Football	9	1 yr. = 2 4 yrs. = 1 2 yrs. = 3 5 + yrs. = 3

When the athletic participants were asked to identify reasons for participating in sports, several answers were provided. From the answers that were suggested for being reasons for participating in athletics, the following reasons appeared to be strong indicators for participation: fun (92.9%), enjoy competition (75.0%), physical development (71.4%), friendships (71.4%), achievement of individual goals (67.9%), social (64.3%), skill development (64.3%), and personal goals and/or challenges (64.3%) (See Table 8). Much like the data reflects, it is anticipated that sports will provide an opportunity to gain interpersonal skills, friendships, and a sense of unity with peers. As mentioned earlier, one study suggested that athletes “appear to have the opportunity, and

need, to develop strong social support networks, more so than the general student population” (Curry, Rehm, & Bernuth, 1997, p. 97). Clearly, adolescence is a developmental stage that places high emphasis on social connections and the search for one’s identity which results in positive self-perceptions.

Table 8 - Reasons for participation in athletics

REASON	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	REASON	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Fun	26	92.9 %	Leadership Skills	12	42.9 %
Enjoy Competition	21	75.0 %	Scholarship	11	39.3 %
Physical Development	20	71.4 %	Confidence Builder	8	28.6 %
Friendships	20	71.4 %	Parental Influence	7	25.0 %
Achieve Individual Goals	19	67.9 %	College Preparation	6	21.4 %
Social	18	64.3 %	Sense of Belonging	5	17.9 %
Skill Development	18	64.3 %	Other Reasons	4	14.3 %
Personal Goals/ Challenges	18	64.3 %	Approval From others	3	10.7 %
Leadership Skills	12	42.9 %			

Once the athletes had identified their reasons for participating in sports, they were asked to evaluate how they felt about themselves at the beginning, middle, and end of the season. At the beginning of the season, 12 students or 42.9% stated they were satisfied with themselves, 7 students or 25.0% stated that they were neutral, and 5 students or 17.9% suggested that they were very satisfied with themselves. The majority of the

respondents were either satisfied or very satisfied with themselves at the beginning of the season (See Table 9).

Table 9 - Feelings about oneself at the beginning of the season

FEELINGS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Very Dissatisfied	1	3.6 %
Dissatisfied	3	10.7 %
Neutral	7	25.0 %
Satisfied	12	42.9 %
Very Satisfied	5	17.9 %
TOTAL	28	100.0 %

During the middle of the season, 50% or 14 students claimed that they felt satisfied with themselves, 21.4% or 6 students were very satisfied with themselves, and 17.9% or 5 students were neutral regarding their feeling about themselves at the middle of the season (See Table 10). Much like the reflections at the beginning of the season, the majority of the athletes perceived that they were either satisfied or very satisfied with themselves at the middle of the season.

Table 10 - Feelings about oneself during the middle of the season

FEELINGS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Very Dissatisfied	1	3.6 %
Dissatisfied	2	7.1 %
Neutral	5	17.9 %
Satisfied	14	50.0 %
Very Satisfied	6	21.4 %
TOTAL	28	100.0 %

For the most part, at the end of the season, the athletes expressed feeling of satisfaction. Of the participants in this study, 13 students or 46.4% said that they were satisfied with themselves, and 11 students or 39.3%, stated being very satisfied with themselves at the end of the season (See Table 11).

Table 11 - Feelings about oneself at the end of the season

FEELINGS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Very Dissatisfied	3	10.7 %
Dissatisfied	0	0 %
Neutral	1	3.6 %
Satisfied	13	46.4 %
Very Satisfied	11	39.3 %
TOTAL	28	100.0 %

In summary, it appears that student athletes have feelings that were very consistent at the beginning, middle and end of the season. Several reasons could attribute for the consistency in their feelings. Clearly, their ability to perceive and accurately reflect their feelings about themselves is instrumental to the consistency found in their feelings.

Following the reflections about oneself at the beginning, middle and end of the season, athletes were encouraged to identify how they felt about themselves after winning a game/meet. Once again, the majority of the students said that they felt either satisfied (18.5%) or very satisfied (74.1%) with themselves after winning (See Table 12).

Table 12 - Feelings about oneself after winning a game/meet

FEELINGS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Very Dissatisfied	2	7.4 %
Dissatisfied	0	0 %
Neutral	0	0 %
Satisfied	5	18.5 %
Very Satisfied	20	74.1 %
TOTAL	27	100.0 %

In addition to self-perceptions after winning a game/meet, the athletic participants were asked to identify how they felt about themselves after losing a game/meet. In sports, achievement is usually measured by one simple criterion, winning. Winning is viewed as success and losing is viewed as failure. Martens (1974) stated that “winners are

therefore, more worthy and losers are less worthy of themselves” (p. 158). However, based upon the findings in this study, it appeared that the athletic participants obtained feelings of being neutral about themselves after losing a game, which could suggest that they are not evaluating their self-worth solely on winning or losing (See Table 13). The data indicated that several of the students (11 students or 40.7%) stated that they felt neutral after losing a game/meet. Additionally, 5 students or 18.5% claimed that they felt satisfied with themselves, while 5 students or 18.5% said they felt very dissatisfied with themselves, and 4 students or 14.8% felt dissatisfied with themselves after losing a game/meet (See Table 13).

Table 13 - Feelings about oneself after losing a game/meet

FEELINGS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Very Dissatisfied	5	18.5 %
Dissatisfied	4	14.8 %
Neutral	11	40.7 %
Satisfied	5	18.5 %
Very Satisfied	2	7.4 %
TOTAL	27	100.0 %

On the other hand, the athletes were asked to state how they felt concerning their teammates after winning a game/meet. The majority of the respondents, 68.0 % or 17 students, felt very satisfied and 16.0 % or 4 students felt satisfied with their teammates after winning a game/meet (See Table 14).

Table 14 - Feelings about teammates after winning a game/meet

FEELINGS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Very Dissatisfied	1	4.0 %

Dissatisfied	0	0 %
Neutral	3	12.0 %
Satisfied	4	16.0 %
Very Satisfied	17	68.0 %
TOTAL	25	100.0 %

Finally, athletes were invited to share their feelings about their teammates after losing a game/meet. Most of the feelings towards teammates after losing a game/meet reflected neutral feelings (60.0% or 15 students) (See Table 15). When compared to feelings about oneself after losing a game/meet, 5 athletes or 18.5% displayed feelings of being very dissatisfied with themselves. Whereas, 0% of the athletes felt very dissatisfied with their teammates after losing a game/meet (See Table 15 & Table 13). Therefore, it appears that the athletes were more critical of themselves after losing a game/meet rather than of their teammates. Egocentrism that adolescents experience may factor into the difference in feelings towards self and others.

Table 15 – Feelings about teammates after losing a game/meet

FEELINGS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Very Dissatisfied	0	0 %
Dissatisfied	5	20.0 %
Neutral	15	60.0 %
Satisfied	3	12.0 %
Very Satisfied	2	8.0 %
TOTAL	25	100.0 %

T-tests were used to calculate the fifteen subscale scores from the Tennessee Self-Concept:2. T-test for equality of means was the statistic used to determine if there was a significant difference at the .05 level for the fifteen subscale scores for the student athletes and non-athletes.

The TSCS:2 scores for most individuals tend to fall between 40T and 60T. These relatively “flat” profiles indicate no disturbance or only mild disturbances in self-concept. High T-scores (between 60T and 70T) indicate areas of particular individual strength. Well-rounded individuals who are consistently self-confident and flexible obtain scores in this range on all TSCS:2 scales. Low scores, below 40T, indicate specific disturbances in self-concept. These individuals are doubtful about their own worth, but they are cautious and conservative in their self-descriptions. Individuals with primarily low or very low T-scores, below 30T, may be experiencing long-standing personal difficulties, such as chronic depression, eating disorders, persistent self-defeating behavior, and other kinds of persistent conflict or disturbances (Fitts & Warren, 1996, p. 21).

As mentioned previously, the three null hypotheses for this study stated that there would be no statistically significant difference between the Total Self-Concept Summary Scale scores, Social (SOC) Self-Concept Scale scores, and Physical (PHY) Self-Concept Scale scores from the Tennessee Self-Concept:2 for those students who participated in athletics, as compared to non-athletic students.

The Total Self-Concept Summary Scale (TOT) score is the “most important score, as it reflects the individual’s overall self-concept and associated level of self-esteem” (Fitts & Warren, 1996, p. 21). As shown in Table 16, there were no differences

found at the .05 level between athletes and non-athletes on the Total Self-Concept Summary Scale.

The Social (SOC) Self-Concept Scale score is a “measurement of how the self is perceived in relation to others. It reflects the individual’s sense of adequacy and worth in social interaction with other people. The Social Self-Concept Scale score tends to be associated with the Physical Self-Concept Scale score for people of all ages” (Fitts & Warren, 1996, p. 24). As noted on Table 16 there were no differences found at the .05 level between athletes and non-athletes on the Social (SOC) Self-Concept Scale.

The Physical (PHY) Self-Concept Scale score is the score that is “related to how an individual perceives his or her body, state of health, and physical appearance and because it is always on display for evaluation, physical appearance is highly associate with global self-esteem across the life-span” (Fitts & Warren, 1996, p. 23). For the Physical (PHY) Self-Concept Scale score, there was a statistically significance difference at the .05 level ($t = -2.005$) in the scores for the athletes, as compared to the non-athletes.

Table 16 indicates the findings from the three subscales that were to be compared in this study. With regards to the Total Self-Concept Scale (TOT) scores, the null hypothesis 1 was accepted, as the T-test for equality of means indicated that there was no statistical significance in TOT scores ($t = -1.104$) at the .05 level for athletes, as compared to non-athletes (See Table 16).

The Social Self-Concept Scale score for the two groups indicated that there was no statistical significance difference at the .05 level ($t = .071$) and as a result, the null hypothesis 2 was accepted (See Table 16).

As previously mentioned, the Physical (PHY) Self-Concept Scale score, displayed that there was a statistically significant difference at the .05 level ($t = -2.005$) in the scores

for the athletes, as compared to the non-athletes, and therefore rejecting the null hypothesis 3 of this study (See Table 16)

Table 16 – Tennessee Self-Concept Scale:2 data

SUBSCALES	N	MEAN	SD	T	Df	SIG. (2-TAILED)
Total Self-Concept (TOT)	N=24 A=28	49.88 52.79	10.78 8.21	-1.104	50	.275
Physical (PHY) Self-Concept	N=24 A=28	47.21 52.46	10.38 8.53	-2.005	50	.050
Social (SOC) Self-Concept	N=24 A=28	53.00 52.86	7.84 6.76	.071	50	.944

DISCUSSION

Based upon the findings in this study, it is the researchers opinion that there was no statistical significance on the Total Self-Concept Summary Scale (TOT) scores at the .05 level and the Social (SOC) Self-Concept Scale scores at the .05 level because the non-athletic participants were involved in another form of extracurricular activity, such as band, choir, orchestra, art, theatre, forensics, clubs. Assuming that the non-athletes were involved in another form of extracurricular activities, opportunities for identity formation, social interaction, and emotional development, resulted in the extracurricular affiliation outside of athletic participation. It can be assumed that the non-athletes were able to meet their self-esteem needs in areas other than participating in athletics.

The Total Self-Concept Summary Scale (TOT) scores “reflects the individuals overall self-concept and associated level of self-esteem” (Fitts & Warren, 1996, p. 21). In this study, the mean T-score for the athletic group was 52.79T and 49.88T for the non-athletic group (See Table 16). As mentioned earlier, “individuals with a normal Total

Self-Concept Summary Scale (TOT) score will portray a T-score between 40T and 60T” (Fitts & Warren, 1996, p. 21). Therefore, the results of this study regarding the average Total Self-Concept Summary Scale (TOT) T-score complements the existing literature.

As previously stated, the Social (SOC) Self-Concept Scale score “measures how the self is perceived in relation to others. It reflects the individual’s sense of adequacy and worth in social interactions with other people” (Fitts & Warren, 1996, p. 24). With regards to this study, the mean Social (SOC) Self-Concept T-score for the athletic group was 52.86T and 53.00T for the non-athletic group (See Table 16). Much like the Total Self-Concept Summary Scale (TOT) score, the majority of individual’s portray a Social (SOC) Self-Concept Scale T-score between 40T and 60T. These individuals are able to reflect positive and satisfying relationships with others (Fitts & Warren, 1996, p. 24). Similar to Fitts and Warran’s (1996) research regarding the Social (SOC) Self-Concept Scale T-scores, this study suggested the average Social Self-Concept (SOC) T-score was between 40T and 60T for both groups of participants.

However, it was determined that there was statistical significance in the Physical Self-Concept Scale T-scores at the .05 level for the athletes, as compared to the non-athletes. In his book, “Training and Conditioning of Athletes”, Novich (1983) discussed that physical fitness gives students the opportunities to enhance physical development, as well as providing a socially acceptable outlet for aggressive and competitive needs (Leighton, 1990, p. 12). Much like Novich’s book, this study supports and complements the fact that athletics provides the participants with positive feelings about their physical appearance and development which was the focus of the Physical (PHY) Self-Concept Scale.

The data gathered in this study revealed that there was little or no difference in self-concept scores for athletes, as compared to non-athletes. The one exception to the findings was the results on the Physical (PHY) Self-Concept Scale, which indicated that the athletes had a greater self-perception regarding physical aspects than non-athletes.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary:

In summary, the purpose of this study was to determine the level of difference in self-concept among high school athletes, as compared to non-athletes. The subjects in this investigation consisted of fifty-two total respondents. Of those respondents, twenty-six were females and twenty-six were males (See Table 2). When the respondents were grouped according to athletic participation versus non-athletic participation, twenty-eight were athletes and twenty-four were non-athletes (See Table 3). All of the participants were sophomores at Menomonie High School for the 1999-2000 academic school year (See Table 1). The non-athlete students were obtained from 7 classes during the first term including: 1 Early U.S. History class, 1 Band class, 1 3-Dimensional Art class, two Choir classes, and two English classes. The athletic participants were obtained by attending orientation night for the fall athletic season in September of 1999.

Once parental consent was obtained, the participants in this study were asked to complete a demographic survey and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale:2 Adult form. The findings indicated that there was no statistical significance in T-scores at the .05 level for athletes when compared to non-athletes with regards to the Total Self-Concept Summary Scale (TOT) and the Social (SOC) Self-Concept Scale. It is the researcher's assumption that the non-athletic participants were involved in other forms of extracurricular activities, such as band, show choir, theatre, art, forensics, which would allow for the similarities in T-scores for the two groups of participants. However, the data analysis regarding the Physical (PHY) Self-Concept Scale was statistically significant at the .05

level, with the athletes providing higher T-scores than the non-athletic group. Thus, there appears to be a higher self-evaluation of one's body, state of health, physical development and appearance for the athletes when compared to the group of non-athletic participants.

Conclusions:

The overall results of this study suggest that the self-esteem of athletes is not significantly different than non-athletes. However, there was a significant difference in the Physical (PHY) Self-Concept Scale T-scores, with athletes having a higher self-concept T-score than the non-athletes. This supports the fact that with regards to physical self-evaluation, athletes portray a greater self-concept. Nevertheless, when the fourteen other subscales were reviewed, there was no statistical significance in self-concept T-scores for the athletes, as compared to the non-athletes. Therefore, the results of this study would propose that participating in athletes does not lead to an overall higher self-concept.

Recommendations:

There are many influential factors that must be considered when researching the topic of self-concept. In this particular study, all of the respondents were in the developmental stage of adolescence, which is an enormous factor that should be considered regarding level of self-concept. As mentioned earlier, adolescence is a developmental stage of uncertainty, rapid changes, and emotional turbulence. On any particular day, an adolescent's level of self-concept may fluctuate drastically.

Recommendations for future study would include re-testing the same group of respondents later in their developmental years, such as their senior year of high school

rather than their sophomore year of high school, when adolescence was not so much of an influential factor.

One consideration would be to study a group of athletes that were involved in the same sport and compare their T-scores to a group of non-athletes not involved in an extracurricular activity. This would help control for differences in sports and extracurricular activities.

Furthermore, obtaining a larger sample size with more cultural diversity could provide more variation in results. Additionally, a study which compares high socioeconomic status athletes with low socioeconomic status athletes might offer a different set of results. Geographic location is another consideration. A comparison of urban and rural students would be suggested for future researchers.

Finally, controlling for participation in extracurricular activities among non-athletes may result in a different set of findings.

Regardless of the results of this study, in the future, it is important that if we wish to continue to enhance student's level of self-concept, we must provide them with additional opportunities that allow them to perceive themselves in a positive manner. This should include opportunities for growth in cognitive, social or physical activities.

The relationship between athletics and self-concept is a complex topic. The literature that exists suggests contradictory findings, with some studies displaying no relationship between athletic participation and self-concept, and other studies providing significance that indeed display a positive relationship between athletic participation and self-concept. This study indicated that athletes scored higher on physical appearance and

development than did non-athletes. Therefore, continuing research on the topic of athletic participation, as it relates to level of self-concept is encouraged.

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APPENDIX A

TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE: 2 ADULT FORM

APPENDIX B

HUMAN RESEARCH CONSENT FORM
(PARENTAL/STUDENT CONSENT FORM)

APPENDIX C

STUDENT LETTER/COVER LETTER

APPENDIX D

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY FOR ATHLETIC PARTICIPANTS

APPENDIX E

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY FOR NON-ATHLETIC PARTICIPANTS

APPENDIX F

LETTER OF THANKS