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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF FACTORS AND PRACTICES IN SELECTED
RESIDENTIAL SCHOOL CAMPING PROGRAMS IN MICHIGAN

Michigan State University

PH.D. 1981

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF FACTORS AND PRACTICES
IN SELECTED RESIDENTIAL SCHOOL CAMPING
PROGRAMS IN MICHIGAN

By

Ronald Z. Bacon

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

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ABSTRACT

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF FACTORS AND PRACTICES IN SELECTED RESIDENTIAL SCHOOL CAMPING PROGRAMS IN MICHIGAN

by

Ronald Z. Bacon

Michigan is credited with being one of the birthplaces of the residential school camping movement. Beginning in the 1940s, this movement accelerated until the mid-1970s, at which time the growth ceased and the number of programs began to decline.

This study was designed to compare the factors and practices of a select group of Michigan residential school camping programs to determine the reasons for that decline. Furthermore, this study wanted to examine the reasons why certain programs continued to operate, seeking the support mechanisms needed to maintain the resident camping program. Considerable personnel and financial resources have been expended on resident camping programs. Data from this study could serve as a reference to school districts considering the continuation, termination or initiation of a camp program.

Identified were 181 resident school camp programs who used the Michigan Department of Natural Resources Outdoor Centers over a five-year period. The investigation focused on 29 school districts who continuously camped at the DNR Centers from 1974 through 1979, one or

more times each year. The comparison group was 25 school districts who camped only in 1974-75 and/or 1975-76 and then ceased to camp at the DNR Centers. Fourteen of those continued to camp, but used other facilities, while 11 terminated their camping programs.

All 54 school districts were surveyed in the summer of 1980 through a questionnaire on these seven general areas of camp development: administrative support, teacher, community, and student involvement, curriculum, finances, and evaluation. These emphasis areas (factors) were selected after a review of the writings on resident school camping indicated they were crucial to the development of the program.

Responses to 33 of the 42 questions in this survey were grouped to assess the relative degree of importance of these general areas. Using multivariate analysis of variance and Chi square tests, there was no evidence of any relationship between the seven factors and the school districts' decision to camp among the three sub-populations. The area of finances did approach the predetermined .05 level of significance, but was not reliable enough to be considered valid.

This study did indicate that:

1. Administrative support, particularly by the building principal, was the key to the continuation of the camp program.
2. A close teacher and administrator relationship was needed to maintain a quality camping operation.
3. Students should be involved in the camp planning process.

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4. Parents, the Board of Education, and the community need to be supportive if the camp operation is to continue.
5. Objective evaluation of the camp program does not seem to be happening but all respondents desired and recommended it.
6. Financial support from the school district was important but the child and parents covered the majority (80 percent) of the camp costs.
7. Previous camping experiences by teaching staff and students was not needed for camp continuation.
8. The camp programs typically had 6th, 5th, or 7th grade students, camping in a group of 80 students, from a school building of 300 to 400 students, and came from middle-income families.

Future studies could be made into:

1. Cost effectiveness relationship to the continuation of the camping program.
2. Financial reasons for dropping a camping program.
3. Reasons why camping programs aren't objectively evaluated.
4. Effectiveness of teacher pre-service or in-service training in relationship to the quality of the camp operation.
5. The role of evaluative data on the continuation, alteration or cessation of the resident camping program.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

In the past forty years public schools throughout the United States have tried a variety of curriculum enrichment ideas attempting to provide alternatives to the traditional four-wall classroom setting. One of these ideas, residential school camping, finds one or more classes of students and their teachers living, working and learning in a camp setting during the school week as part of the established school curriculum.

The school camping movement can be traced to two institutions: the W. K. Kellogg Foundation and Life Camps, Incorporated. Life Camps, a New York State based organization, under the leadership of L. B. Sharp in the 1930's, provided one of the first conceptual arrangements for school districts to use private camps for educational purposes.¹ In 1940, with the help of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, a pilot program involving three Michigan school districts was initiated at the Foundation-owned Clear Lake Camp, located outside Battle Creek, Michigan. This camp, with a well-qualified staff under the direction of Edwin Pumula, worked with the program participants for two-week periods.²

In 1940 and 1941 the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, through the guidance of Hugh B. Masters and in cooperation with the American

Camping Association, conducted four school camping workshops with the express purpose of promoting and improving public school camping. From the proceedings of these leadership sessions came these resident school camping principles:

1. The principle purpose of camping is education.
2. American children have the same right to camping as to education in the schools.
3. Publicly sponsored camping does not mean that "Government must do the whole job or interfere with private enterprise any more than public schools interfere with private or parochial schools. Rather it is a challenge to adapt . . . to the needs of very large numbers of children."³

Over the next decades many of the personnel from the Clear Lake staff and others involved with the Foundation workshops, or those following it, would move to other states to initiate residential camping operations. Pumula went to San Diego, California; Ken Pike to Long Beach, California; Leslie Clarke to Boston, Massachusetts; Don Hammerman to DeKalb, Illinois; and George Donaldson to Tyler, Texas. All were charged with the responsibility to initiate and operate residential school camping programs. It was from these beginnings that camping across the United States experienced a steadily increasing amount of support in the 1950s, 1960s, and early 1970s. This surge of interest appears to have tapered off in the middle and latter part of the 1970s, possibly even decreasing.

With the piloting of residential school camping by the three Michigan school districts in the early 1940s, Michigan gained the reputation of being the birthplace of the movement. Growth within

the State of Michigan was greatly assisted by cooperation of two state agencies, the Michigan Department of Public Instruction (presently the Department of Education) and the Michigan Department of Conservation (presently the Department of Natural Resources). The Department of Public Instruction provided educational leadership for teacher in-service and program planning in 1945 when it "established an experimental project in Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Outdoor Education in the Division of Instruction."⁴ In the same year, the Michigan Legislature passed an Act "which enables school districts to acquire camps and operate them as part of the regular educational and recreational program of the schools."⁵

In the 1949 Michigan State Aid Education Bill, incentive financial aid was provided to school districts for the development of resident camping programs.⁶ In September of 1949, the Michigan Departments of Conservation and Public Instruction joined forces with the W. K. Kellogg Foundation to sponsor a national leadership conference on Community School Camping. Government, education and conservation leaders were assembled to learn about this budding educational movement viewed as a new social invention in education.⁷

In these formative years, the Michigan Department of Conservation promoted the use of a network of camps, which it owned and maintained, for residential school camping. These fifteen (15) Outdoor Centers, built by the Civilian Conservation Corp in the 1930s, became the primary camping facilities used by the school districts of Michigan. Visionary efforts of men like Eugene B. Elliott, Hugh B. Masters, Lee Thurston, Julian W. Smith, George W.

Donaldson and P. J. Hoffmaster encouraged more than one hundred Michigan school districts to develop camping programs in the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s.

Need for Study

The Michigan residential school camping movement accelerated in the 1950s and 1960s until by the early 1970s there were hundreds of camp programs in operation. However, at that time the growth rate stopped and a decline in the number of residential programs began. According to Michigan Department of Natural Resources--Parks Division figures, the decline in use of their Outdoor Centers had been calculated to be 23 percent over the span of six years, 1974-79 (Appendix I). Historically, these Centers had been the primary facilities used by Michigan school camping groups. That pattern of decline was similarly found in the data collected by the Michigan Department of Education--General Education Services. According to their data, Michigan's school systems camp programs declined by 24 percent from 1975 to 1979 (Appendix II).

In spite of this decline, many school districts still camp and have been camping continuously for nearly forty years. Others are now initiating new programs for the first time, but the trend is downward.

This study was needed to collect information on certain Michigan residential school camping programs which operated within the years of 1974 to 1979. Specifically needed was an exploration of the reasons for the apparent decline in the number of school camp programs during that time span.

Purpose and Importance of Study

The purposes of this study are: (1) to determine the reasons for the sharp decline in the use of the Department of Natural Resources (DNR) Outdoor Centers by residential school camping groups; (2) to determine the reasons why certain school districts continue to operate their camping programs at DNR facilities, while others ceased to camp, and (3) to discover support mechanisms needed to maintain Michigan's resident school camp programs.

A school district expends great amounts of resources, both fiscal and personnel, when initiating a residential school camping program. In addition to the local district monies, considerable funds from the State of Michigan are expended for the administration of the DNR Outdoor Centers, maintaining them and conforming with the constantly changing camp health and safety regulations. The Michigan Department of Social Services also has personnel assigned to the duties of licensing school camp operations.

Overall, these combine for a significant investment of time and money toward the end of a successful school camping program. Data collected from this study could serve as a reference to school districts considering the initiation, termination, or continuation of their camping programs. If this educationally proven experience is to be altered or eliminated, school districts should have alternative avenues available to accomplish similar learning. The conclusions of this study could also give some insights into the long range future of Michigan's residential school camping programs which

appear to be in jeopardy in light of the declining numbers previously discussed.

Hypotheses

In order to pursue these purposes, two groups of Michigan school districts were surveyed. One group had been camping continuously at a Michigan Department of Natural Resources Outdoor Center from the 1974-75 school year through 1978-79. The other group studied were districts who had camped at these DNR centers only in 1974-75 and/or 1975-76, but not in the school years 1976-77 through 1978-79.

It was the intent of this study to investigate the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis I: Administrative Support

There will be no difference in the administrative support between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers, and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

Hypothesis II: Teacher Involvement

There will be no difference in the degree of teacher involvement between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

Hypothesis III: Community Involvement

There will be no difference in the degree of parent/community involvement between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

Hypothesis IV: Student Involvement

There will be no difference in the degree of involvement by the students in planning of camp activities between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

Hypothesis V: Curriculum

There will be no difference in the degree of infusion of the camp program into the school district's curriculum between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

Hypothesis VI: Finances

There will be no difference in the availability of financial resources to cover camp program expenses between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

Hypothesis VII: Evaluation

There will be no difference in the camp evaluation procedures followed by the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

Assumptions

There were five pertinent assumptions made in this study.

1. The operational process used in camp program development was assumed to be comparable with all user groups. This study concentrates on residential school camps using the DNR Outdoor Centers which are void of program and without a residential education staff. This necessitated that each user group generate its own curriculum, procure the resource staff and counsellors, designate a camp director, and provide the cook staff.

2. The rental cost per participant for the use of the DNR facilities was the same, regardless of the Center utilized. The State DNR budget subsidized the operational costs of these facilities, making the Centers the lower priced accommodations available when compared with private camp facilities.

3. Travel times to and from camp were comparable for all school user groups. The DNR Outdoor Centers were within sixty miles of major metropolitan areas, with the exception of Ocqueoc Lake and Sleeper, two of the lesser used facilities.

4. The resident school camp curriculums at all Outdoor Centers were comparable within the limitations of the camp facilities. The Outdoor Centers were very comparable in size, accommodations, types of buildings, and natural geographical features. Each had a lake and a stream, woods and fields, and was part of a larger State-owned recreation area.

5. It was assumed that the person responding to the survey used in this study would promptly answer all questions to the best of his/her ability.

Limitations

This study had three major limitations.

1. This study was restricted to the users of Michigan DNR facilities over a specified time period. Using a mailed questionnaire, the 32 school districts who had continuously camped at these Centers from 1974-75 through 1978-79 were surveyed. Likewise, there were 36 school districts polled who camped in 1974-75 and/or 1975-76

only. In both cases this was the entire number of districts meeting these criteria.

2. The data collected by the questionnaire were the educated opinions of the person who was designated as the 'responsible' person on the DNR facility reservation form. There were no other parties contacted from the 68 school districts surveyed, who might have had differing opinions.

3. The information gathered by the questionnaire revolved around the seven hypotheses, which excluded many other facets of the school camp operation, including staff selection, health and safety, legal problems, business management, and transportation.

Definition of Terms

In order to better understand this study, certain operational definitions are clarified.

Residential school camping is that program whereby students spend one or more days and nights at a camp facility as a portion of their regular Monday through Friday school year curriculum. In this room and board living environment, educational experiences concentrating on the out-of-doors are offered to all participants.

Department of Natural Resources (DNR) Outdoor Centers are the camp facilities owned and maintained by the Michigan Department of Natural Resources. These centers have the typical camp sleeping lodges, kitchen and dining lodge, infirmary, and buildings for small group activities.

Urban communities are Ann Arbor, Battle Creek, Benton Harbor/St. Joseph, Bay City, Detroit and immediate suburbs, Flint, Grand Rapids, Jackson, Lansing, Kalamazoo, Muskegon, Pontiac, Port Huron, and Saginaw.

Suburban communities are those immediately surrounding the urban communities.

Rural communities are all those not designated as urban or suburban

Teaching (camp) staff persons include the classroom teacher who goes to camp with the classroom of students and may include other resource personnel.

Elementary, Middle/Jr. High/Intermediate, and High School levels are used as categorized and printed in the 1980 Michigan Education Directory.

Overview of Study

Chapter II contains a review of pertinent literature and research, particularly as it relates to the administrative organization in the development of resident camp programs. This review will begin with the history of camping and school camping, followed by concentration on studies covering program development. Also considered will be the role of administrators, teachers, students, community, facilities, and evaluation in the process of camp program development.

The design of the study will be the subject of Chapter III. The sample population selected and the controls placed on this study

will be addressed, as will the design and validation of the survey instrument. The analysis procedure used on the data will be the final topic discussed in this chapter.

Chapter IV will address the analysis of the data collected, the results of the analysis, and a discussion of the results in relation to the studies previously reviewed in Chapter II. The hypotheses developed for this study will be tested and reviewed with an emphasis on significant differences between the continuously camping sub-population from 1974 to 1979 and those who had not camped after 1976.

Chapter V will discuss the conclusions based on this research. From these conclusions, a series of support mechanisms, meant to serve as a strategy for the successful implementation and/or continuation of school camping, will be proposed. Recommendations for further study and reflections by the writer will conclude this thesis.

CHAPTER I: FOOTNOTES

¹Julian W. Smith, "Where We Have Been - What We Are - What We Will Become," Journal of Outdoor Education 5 (Fall, 1970): 3.

²Julian W. Smith, Reynold E. Carlson, George W. Donaldson, Hugh B. Masters, Outdoor Education (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963), p. 98.

³Charles W. Elliot, "The Role of Camping in Social Life in a Changing World," The Role of Camping in America, special issue of Camping Magazine 14 (February, 1942): 20-21.

⁴Outdoor Education in Michigan Schools (Lansing: Michigan Department of Education, 1970), p. 2.

⁵Smith et al., Outdoor Education, p. 101.

⁶Ibid., p. 102.

⁷John W. Gilliland, School Camping, A Frontier of Curriculum Improvement (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1954), p. 26.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

"Research . . . has not been abundant in the area of outdoor education,"¹ This statement, made by Rillo in 1967, has been echoed by many others in more recent times. Within the general area of outdoor education, research on the topic of residential school camping has been even more restricted.

With the relative newness of the field of resident school camping there has not been an abundance of publications. The majority of those available have been authored by the founding fathers of the movement. In many cases it appears they (the authors) were too busy spreading the word to write the word. The journal literature, beyond the initial thrust in the late 1940s and 1950s has been concentrated in two professional journals, The Communicator (Journal of the New York State Outdoor Education Association) and the Journal of Outdoor Education (published by Northern Illinois University), for eleven and fourteen years, respectively. Camping has been the topic of doctoral dissertations dating from 1930 with the work of Bernard S. Mason. In the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s the increase of residential school camping brought forth a corresponding increase in doctoral dissertations. This review of literature utilizes all sources, but concentrates on

the doctoral dissertations because of their pertinence to the topic studied.

The literature review covers the general history of camping, the specific historical background of residential school camping, and a review of program development. An examination of the administrator, teacher, student, and community role in a camp operation was completed. Camp facilities and sites are additional areas of review. Finally, the literature review examines the role of evaluation in resident school camping programs.

History of Camping

The studies of Ulanoff² indicate that organized camping in the United States was born out of the reaction to the Civil War. The turmoil created by this conflict prompted people to return to the simpler ways of life by returning to nature. This perspective would become a sustained movement that reflected the closing of the late 1800s frontiers and the urbanization beginnings of the early 1900s.

Gunn is credited with establishing one of the first resident camps in 1861, the Gunnery School for Boys in the Washington, D.C. area. In that two-week camp, Gunn and his wife worked with boys on recreational skills like sailing, hiking, fishing and boating.³ Summer camping was launched from these beginnings. With the turn of the century came an awakening to the social philosophy of progressivism.

The societal change resulted in alterations to the summer camp movement. It now became important that activities had

educational value in addition to the previously accepted recreational benefits. This growth in the movement and change in the philosophy is reflected in Reimann's statement from the book, The Successful Camp:

The summer camp movement has grown significantly in the brief period since its inception. Growth has been reflected in the dramatic expansion of the number of children in camps, extended periods that children camp, in the provocative variety of programs developed, in the range of specialized features, and in the provision of opportunity for campers of all ages.⁴

This awareness of the out-of-door educational value was the result of five societal influences, according to Smith, Carlson, Donaldson and Masters, in their book, Outdoor Education. The five most important factors they described were:

1. Urbanization. The advent of the industrial revolution found a change from a rural agricultural society to an urban, industrialized life style.
2. Frenzied tempo of life. Keeping up with the quick growth of urbanization was the fast paced life style of a mechanized society.
3. Automation and mechanization. Lost to the automatic machine age was the need to labor long and hard on the farm, resulting in previously unknown leisure time.
4. Sedentary living. When the need for work related physical exertion began to diminish, so also did the physically fit individual.
5. Abstractions. The mechanical automatic society did not have the same tangible experiences as found in the agricultural society. Abstractions replaced experiences.

History of Resident School Camping

Societal changes prompted residential camping pioneers like L. B. Sharp to weave the educational values of summer camping into the total educational process. Sharp later professed, "That which can be best learned in the out-of-doors through direct experience, dealing with native materials and life situations, should there be learned."⁶

This deep personal belief in the out-of-doors led Sharp⁷ to formally study and research the administrative aspects of blending education and the summer camp. He concentrated his studies on the administration, evaluation, finances, facilities, equipment maintenance, and duration of the camp experience. These factors have since been the focus of additional studies over the past fifty years.

Summer camping appears to have been the product of a number of societal conditions, as has been resident school camping. Studies by D. Hammerman⁸ indicate that a combination of socio-economic factors gave rise to this movement. Urbanization and the post-depression era economic surge that carried through World War II brought a change in emphasis in the field of public education. During these times curricula were broadened with a wide range of new concepts, among them residential school camping. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) projects greatly aided this movement by providing simple but sound physical facilities where many camp programs were conducted. Dimock and Hendry had predicted this trend earlier in writing,

The next decade will doubtless see schools extending their program through the summer to include the camping experience. Educators will increasingly become more aware of the place of the camp in a complete year-long scheme of education.⁹

Program Development

During the next two decades many schools initiated residential school camp programs. This brought about the desire for more data on the development and maintenance of these programs. J. D. Marcellus'¹⁰ studies in 1952 were concerned with the lack of substantive data on the camping programs in New York State. While not isolating any major causes for the absence of data, he did find that administrations wanted to expand their camping programs, which incidentally they had initially created. Further findings showed that non-camping school districts generally misunderstood the philosophy of camping because they felt it was recreational in scope. These districts also lacked parental interest, necessary financial resources, and available and accessible sites. Marcellus concluded that in order to continue the camping movement in New York State, teacher in-service training, financial aid for new programs, and the creation of new camping facilities would be needed.

Schafer's thesis concentrated on administrative concerns for initiating a camping program. Based on the premise that well planned resident camping experiences built upon solid educational goals and standards would have an impact upon students, Schafer gathered information from 172 resident programs from throughout the United States. His studies concluded:¹¹

1. Most programs were in states which provided substantial support from the legislature, universities and school districts.
2. Administrative and teacher support must be given at the initial planning stages. An in-service component should be a part of this pre-program.

3. Camping programs should be integrated into the total school operation.
4. Camp staff should have teaching skills, content knowledge, and previous camping experience. Paid specialists might be needed.
5. Joint operation with other districts would be mutually beneficial from the standpoint of facility use, program development, and cost.
6. Evaluation of the program is necessary but it should reflect objectivity which allows for a flexible program.

In a study of administrative factors at 40 school systems' camps, Gilliland¹² identified nine major areas of camp organization: (1) developing interest, (2) program planning, (3) staff selection, (4) health and safety, (5) interpreting camp to the community, (6) financing camp, (7) leadership development, (8) business management, and (9) legal problems. Philpott's,¹³ Archard's,¹⁴ and Ambry's¹⁵ studies led to the identification of these same general categories in similar research on wide cross sections of school camping programs.

When Craddock¹⁶ surveyed residential school camps from a multi-state area for guidelines to establish a county-wide program, data revealed that cooperative program planning was one of three 'essentials.' The in-service training of staff and program emphasis upon learning, which could not be obtained elsewhere, were the other two 'essentials.'

In 1967 Turner¹⁷ polled superintendents throughout the United States in an attempt to establish significant administrative procedures in the operation of resident outdoor laboratory school camps.

Among his conclusions was the finding that the school size was not a significant consideration in the operation of a camp program. When schools did camp, it would typically be at the fifth and sixth grade levels, during the spring and fall seasons, utilizing facilities which were rented or leased, as compared to a school district-owned site. As in the studies in Gilliland, Philpott, Archard, Ambry, Craddock, and Rillo,¹⁸ among the most prevalent and consistent problem areas were staffing and the financial support for the camping program.

McKnight¹⁹ undertook a study of the contributions and potentialities of school camping in 1952. Once again the quality of leadership and program came forth as major factors. In the final analysis, she concluded the primary goal of any school camping project was the production of desirable change in the individual. The facilities, activities, and acquisition of knowledge and skills were important only as a means by which these changes could be produced.

Rex Miller echoed these beliefs when he stated:

The resident outdoor experience can provide an extended, intensive, yet relaxed and contemplative experience for both young and old. The development of much sought after but seldom accomplished skills and attitudes, such as self-reliance, initiative, independence, respect, cooperation, problem solving, and conservation can be taught and developed through the all-inclusive, 24 hour-a-day, total living-learning experience in a resident outdoor program.²⁰

In 1955 Walton²¹ studied the administrative practices used in the operation of 30 part-time Michigan school camps. This study concentrated upon four general areas: facilities, personnel, program, and school camp-community relations. The major findings of this

study dealt with certain topics which seemed insignificant compared with the stated purpose. Conclusions on road maintenance, infirmaries, fire fighting equipment, and recreational facilities for staff, camp duties for teachers and visiting parents, or types of camp fund raising ventures did not appear to give much administrative direction to one initiating a resident school camp program. However, in the recommendations for further study, Walton suggested further study in the areas of administrative, staff, student and community involvement plus the need for more objective evaluative procedures.

Role of Administrator

While it was most difficult to rank in degree the importance of roles played by administrators, staff, students, and community, the area of administration seemed to be the nucleus around which programs were built. Denver Fox, one of the pioneer leaders of the San Diego city-county resident school camping program, stated:

If it is decided by the key people that this (camping) is something the community or the district needs and is willing to pay for, the first thing they had better do is get good leadership, right from the beginning, so that the planning is sound. They should bring in someone who has vision, experience in outdoor living, an idea of the educational potential of such activity. Someone who can guide the development and begin to recommend people to form a nucleus of a staff.²²

Intensive studies by Pepper²³ of eleven school camping programs support the position by Fox. In these studies he concluded that the administrator was of basic importance in developing and maintaining an effective and efficient program. He further contended that the administrator was the person expected to provide leadership in

developing camping program interest. In order to accomplish this, the administrator must assist in maintaining a close relationship between the school curriculum and the camp program.

When Frey²⁴ undertook a job analysis of school camp directors, he had similar findings. This research centered around the prioritization of 317 identified duties of camp directors. Ranked in the highest order were the responsibility that a camp administrator had to:

1. interpret the program to teachers,
2. orient new staff (teachers), and
3. assist teachers in the development of skills and in the use of instructional materials.

The major importance of the administrator's role in staff development was similarly identified in the studies of Rillo.²⁵ As Willson concluded after studies on leader behavior and change strategies, "The expectations of the leader can significantly affect the growth of the participants."²⁶ In 1950 Mouser²⁷ studied the opportunities for leadership training in outdoor education. After researching the programs of 100 youth camps and 21 educational training centers, he concluded that more workshops were needed in order to improve the leadership which was so critical to outdoor education. These workshops would be for administrators, teachers, and university staffs alike. When Rupff²⁸ made a comparison of the aspirations with the achievements in a group of Michigan school camp programs, he similarly illustrated the need for joint leadership training. Among his conclusions were that superintendents and teachers differed sharply with

each other on their aspirations and perceptions of achievements in the resident camping program.

Role of Teacher

Huck and Decker state:

The best place for training youth is within the existing educational system, with professional teachers in an academic atmosphere. A good teacher who is a dedicated outdoor person can convey his or her feelings about outdoor behavior most effectively. Such teachers' concerns and enthusiasm for responsible outdoor citizenship can result in adoption of lifelong behavior patterns by the students.²⁹

The importance of the teacher in a residential camping operation has been the subject of many inquiries over the past 40 years. While the specifics of these studies have varied, there has been a consensus on the need for teachers to be involved in the planning of the camp program and educationally prepared to work in an out-of-doors environment. As Willson concluded, "Individuals are more likely to enter wholeheartedly into any project if they have meaningful participation in the selection and planning of the project."³⁰

In one of the earlier studies which concentrated on teacher training, MacMillan³¹ surveyed the duties and responsibilities of resident school camp staffs. This study concluded that specialized training was needed in camp counselling, science, arts and crafts, and music. She recommended that training be received primarily through teacher training institutions for certified teachers. Emphasis was placed on the necessity to have certified teachers on the camp staff.

When Wenrich³² questioned 141 administrators and leaders of existing school camp programs, they came up with similar recommendations. It was from these studies that she concluded:

1. Successful classroom teachers are not necessarily successful camp teachers.
2. Teachers agree they need camping experiences prior to going to camp, for the primary reasons of building confidence and security.
3. There is a need for sympathetic guidance to prepare the un-convinced and un-informed teacher for participation in a camping program.

In 1961 Cyphers³³ queried elementary teachers to determine which of 102 outdoor experiences they felt were significant. The major conclusion drawn from this study was that the majority of teachers did not receive adequate professional training on the use of outdoor resources although over half had previous outdoor experiences.

Holt³⁴ questioned 102 administrators and 840 teachers to determine the competencies needed by the classroom teacher for resident outdoor education programs. The respondents felt that teachers did not have the necessary skills to successfully participate in residential programs. They indicated the need for pre-service and in-service programs before any attempts were made to camp.

This need for pre-service training was a major conclusion in the findings of Hug³⁵ in 1964. When interviewing elementary teachers he also learned that those involved in outdoor activities were younger, less experience in education, had more children and had more recently attended a university outdoor related course than teachers who did not use the out-of-doors in their teaching.

As these studies suggest, a trained, concerned, and enthusiastic teacher appears to be a most important component in an educationally effective residential school camping program. McEvoy stated:

As teachers in the widest sense of the word, we can only be satisfied with our efforts when we have reached a state of mind which makes us content that our future is in the hands of our pupils. We have a lot to do but I believe that not only is there hope, but that outdoor education (resident camping) has a major contribution to make towards effecting that state of mind.³⁶

Role of Student

Where possible, students should feel a part of the planning and implementation of the total unit. They will buy in more genuinely if they feel a part of the organizing effort. This will have a positive carry-over effect in the classroom and during the experience segment. Involving students is time consuming initially but pays large dividends later.³⁷

So stated Kielsmeier when looking at the factor of involvement in determining success in a program. Mason,³⁸ in one of the earliest works on camping (1930), found that the needs and wishes of campers are critical factors in successful programs. After interviewing participants in 91 private camps, he concluded the children needed to be involved in the planning of the program and would do so willingly if the activities were geared toward their interests.

Clarke³⁹ expressed the idea in his book, Public School Camping, that the greater the child's role in selecting his activities, the more he would use his plentiful environment, resulting in more meaningful and lasting experiences. Clarke also professed that the most important experience a camper gained was that of living together, the socialization experiences found in a group camping situation.

Kelley referred to this socialization of the camper when he said:

Children then will have an opportunity to live together twenty-four hours a day. They can learn, some for the first time, what cooperative living can mean. They have a chance to learn to divide the work, food serving, dish washing, table clearing, keeping the inside and outside of the camp clean and attractive. They can have councils to discuss the rules, establish ways of living together. They can even help plan the programs of work, and have some choice in what they will do. It may be the first time in their lives that they have a chance to participate in the making of a decision.⁴⁰

Swift summarized the combination of social and educational needs of the student in the 1964 National Audubon Society publication Outdoor Conservation Education, stating:

Our young people are more in need of sunburn and callouses and a healthy appetite than they are of psychiatrics and more play. With 51% of our young manhood as military rejects we had better take dead aim at some of the serious defects of our affluent times. They can't all be scientists nor do they want to be; and some earthy experience for budding scientists is certainly not a waste of time.⁴¹

Role of Community

Swift's comments suggest that our society has a vested interest in making certain that today's youth have a series of out-of-doors experiences. Pumula brought this into a more definitive focus when he addressed the role of the local community.

How important it is to have a community concept, that outdoor education is more than school, more than recreation; it is the life of the community. This is why San Diego wanted a community camp.⁴²

In his studies on the development of outdoor laboratories, Hibbs,⁴³ primary conclusion was that in the developmental stage, community input was essential. He suggested a committee structure

which called for non-school members who could offer unique expertise to the committee's purpose. Through this format, a community-oriented outdoor laboratory could be developed.

Sato's⁴⁴ findings were similar in nature. He concluded that in the planning of the specific program for a metropolitan school system, cooperative effort of several segments of the school community was necessary. The program should be piloted under the watchful eye of an advisory board who would assist with developing specific camp policies. This study further noted that it was the responsibility of the Board of Education to provide the camp site and staff.

Jones and Swan⁴⁵ looked at the community role from a different perspective. They conducted a comparison of two types of resident camp programs, using the responses from 566 opinionaires completed by parents of student campers. They concluded:

1. parents had positive attitudes about the value and outcome of the camp experience,
2. programs should be continued, and
3. parents should cover costs of the room and board of the students with the school district covering similar costs for teachers plus the expenses for instructional materials.

Facilities

The facilities utilized in conducting residential camping programs have greatly varied according to the availability of selection, geographical location and size of the participating group.

Hammerman and Hammerman suggest:

The natural area around the site should be large enough to handle the number of students utilizing the facility and should contain sufficient variety to offer a range of study activities broad enough to accomplish the desired educational goals and objectives.⁴⁶

In a survey of persons who had demonstrated leadership in outdoor education, Nelson⁴⁷ found six criteria ranked as 'quite desirable' for outdoor sites:

1. clean, unpolluted water
2. population of medium and small native animals
3. swampy area, log, marsh, swamp, slough
4. stream
5. meadow area
6. sufficiently close to primary school area to permit easy single day trips.⁴⁷

Whereas Nelson concentrated upon the outdoor features of the site, Sim⁴⁸ conducted a study of practitioners throughout the United States to find the factors deemed necessary for resident outdoor centers. This study concluded that a camp should have:

1. diversity of outdoor environments
2. buildings should be rustic in nature but accessible for the handicapped
3. dining facilities should have multi-use capabilities
4. adequate lodging accommodations
5. indoor and outdoor learning stations
6. safety of all participants as a priority, with emergency procedures known and facilities available.

The study by Hulett⁴⁹ of school camping facilities concurred with the findings of both Nelson and Sim although it was restricted in scope to the camping programs of one state, Illinois.

Evaluation

Camps "are now recognized as great laboratories where life situations are studied, field work and research carried on, and serious projects undertaken,"⁵⁰ according to Hammerman and Hammerman.

There seemed to be a discrepancy between this potential and the actual research projects carried out on school camp programs. Rillo was critical of the general field of outdoor education and school camping specifically as stated in the opening comments of this chapter. Rillo,⁵¹ in support of new efforts for research, went on to say that the role of research in outdoor education was to bring substantiation and meaning to theory and to improve the pragmatic application of this theory through experimentation.

Studies by Parkman⁵² on the conversion of a camp into an outdoor education center and by Sato⁵³ on the organization of an outdoor education program both emphasize the importance of a continuous program of evaluation. Both studies, conducted 13 years apart (1975 and 1962, respectively), maintained that such program evaluation must take place in order to insure an effective camp operation. Overall, evaluation seemed to be widely espoused but little implemented.

This apparent absence of concern for the need of evaluation so as to improve the end product--students--was exemplified by Shoman who said:

Man, for the first time, has the knowledge and power to move mountains, alter oceans, change the weather, and greatly disturb life on earth. The question must be raised: has man also the wisdom and morality to shape his world in keeping with nature and her laws? If not, how long, and how happily, can he hope to live or even survive?⁵⁴

More quality research on the effectiveness of school camping can begin to help answer these questions.

Summary and Critique

In 1956 Smith wrote, "School camping is one of the most promising and extensive programs of outdoor education because it combines camp living with a great variety of invaluable outside activities."⁵⁵ Smith's statement foretold of a bright future for school camping, which did indeed happen in the 1940s, 1950s, 1960s, and early 1970s. But, it is the apparent decline in interest in the later 1970s that prompted this study. The intent of this literature review was to take an historical review on the progress of residential camping over the past 40 years. We are living in a vastly different society than the one found in 1930, with different human resources, needs, and educational expectations. It is the premise of this dissertation that these changing conditions have had an effect upon residential camping.

Based upon this premise a review of related literature was conducted. The review was not restricted to one or two major studies. Instead, the concentration was upon component portions from numerous research projects and papers which appear to have a direct relationship to the problem being addressed by the researcher. There appeared to be certain voids in the research reviewed. The 1952 study by Marcellus⁵⁶ on New York State programs failed to provide any substantive data after expressing the need for the same in the purpose of the study. Marcellus did not pursue the area of administrative support nor reasons why school districts were no longer camping. His recommendations for staff in-service training were not fully substantiated.

His conclusion that state aid was needed for program development has been refuted by other studies.

The Schafer⁵⁷ study conducted in 1965 gave a good nationwide overview of camping programs. In addition to being very broad in scope, it omitted any major reference to the involvement of the student or community in program development. In one of his conclusions Schafer made the suggestions that additional monies for the staffing of specialists and additional pay for teachers and administrators would make for a better program. This researcher would initially take exception and agree with Thabet when he wrote:

With the economic pinch found in our schools today, educators must be educated in the value and utility of outdoor education . . . it must be learned and experienced. In doing so, teachers will find a valuable teaching tool that will provide in-depth learning experiences that are inexpensive, exciting, and acceptable to students, administrators, and the public at large.⁵⁸

Walton's⁵⁹ 1955 study of 30 part-time Michigan school camps covered four general areas which will also be researched in the present study: personnel, program, school-community involvement, and facilities. Some of the areas he studied have been altered by time. For example, the DNR Outdoor Centers he researched are now structurally upgraded so as to make many of his facility questions unnecessary. Similarly, due to changes in school camp programs over the past 25 years, certain health and safety inquiries of that study are of little functional use today. Walton's research lacked data on the administrative functions in a camp operation. Other factors studied, such as road maintenance at camp, available fire fighting equipment, infirmaries, and the duties of non-school staff were

determined of less importance by the present study. In his conclusions, Walton suggested further study regarding staff, student, and community involvement, and evaluation procedures. Those suggestions were of assistance in the design of this study.

In the 1955 study on staffing of elementary school camps Wenrich⁶⁰ questioned the relationship between successful camp teachers and successful classroom teachers, particularly as related to experiences at camp. She concluded that pre-service and in-service were vital to a successful camp operation. The date of this study and the changes over the past 25 years in teacher education institutions makes this an interesting component for an updated study. Would Wenrich's conclusions on experience hold true today?

The 1930 study by Mason⁶¹ placed major emphasis on the role of the student in the success of the camping program. This component was not found in most of the reviewed research. Have students changed over the past 51 years or have they just been over-looked when camping programs have been developed?

The 1957 study by Hibbs⁶² and the 1962 research by Sato⁶³ both addressed the need for strong community involvement in program development. Is this a vital factor overlooked by those programs who have failed to provide a continuing resident camping operation?

A review of the literature and studies on facilities were of interest primarily in terms of background. The Michigan Department of Natural Resources Outdoor Centers, on which the present study will concentrate, are very similar in nature, thus eliminating the need for further in-depth investigation.

Many of the readings and research studies extolled the virtues of an operational evaluative process. Some even found this to be of major importance. However, very few studies covered evaluation as a program component. There was very little evidence that the programs or topics studied had viable evaluative processes in operation.

It is from this review of literature and research that the general areas of concentration for the present study have been formulated. It seems apparent that there is still additional information needed on the roles played by administrators, teachers, students, and community in the development and their relationship to the continuation of the resident school camping program. Likewise, the experience base of the camping participants, the financial implications of the resident camp and the evaluation procedures utilized are further factors which can be researched. In Chapter III, the importance of these factors will be discussed in greater detail. The design of the study will also be covered in that chapter. The sample population selected and the controls placed on this study will be addressed, as will the design and validation of the survey instrument. The procedure for analysis of the data will be the final topic discussed in Chapter III.

CHAPTER II: FOOTNOTES

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CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Introduction

This thesis was designed to make a comparative study of factors and practices in selected Michigan residential school camping programs. Three criteria were used in selecting this area of study:

1. A review of literature and research indicated that there have been previous studies in this general area. Sharp,¹ Gilliland,² and Walton³ had conducted studies on the administrative practices used in establishing resident camp programs;
2. Fifteen (15) years of experience by the researcher, in the establishment and operation of resident school camp programs in Michigan; and
3. Exploratory research into data collected by two State of Michigan agencies: the Department of Natural Resources (DNR), and Department of Education (MDE).

The literature review indicated a growing interest in camping, starting in the 1940s, continued to build until the early 1970s. However, data collected by these two State agencies indicated a decline in the resident camp movement starting with 1974-75. Contact with Michigan Department of Natural Resource Parks Division staff indicated that use of the Outdoor Centers under their supervision had declined. According to the monthly reports collected by Kerr Stewart, Office Manager of the DNR Parks Division, there had been a 23 percent decline in the residential camp use of the DNR Outdoor Centers over

the years 1974 to 1979 (Appendix I). Further investigation of data collected by Joann Broom-McCrum, Michigan Department of Education Office of Pre-Primary and Family Education, indicated a 24 percent reduction in schools reporting residential camping programs from 1975 to 1979 (Appendix II).

Controls on the Study and Sample Population

The following characteristics were held constant in order to assess the impact of the variables in this study.

1. Type of facility used by the camp programs surveyed
2. Capacity of the facility relating to the size of participating group
3. Staffing patterns at the resident school camp
4. Distance of the facility (camp) from the user (school) group
5. Consistency of a specific school's use of a specific facility over a five year period.

The apparent decline in residential camping in Michigan over a span of five years led to the focus on the DNR Outdoor Centers, the largest provider of school camping facilities found in the State. With an original network of 15 Centers as a source of investigation (Appendix III), each facility was reviewed for site differences. Geographical features such as lakes, streams, woods, and fields plus rental costs and types of buildings were comparable.

The primary differences were in the maximum capacity of each facility. The review of literature and research indicated that typical camping groups were two or more classrooms of students. In

terms of 30 students per classroom, plus teaching staff and resource personnel, Centers with a minimum capacity of 85 or more were selected for the specifics of this study. This eliminated six of the DNR Outdoor Centers (Appendix IV).

The Michigan DNR Outdoor Centers did not provide any resident staff assistance for program development, leaving the staffing to the participant school districts, adding another control to this study.

Using the DNR Outdoor Center Use Reports filed with the DNR Parks Division, 710 different resident camp programs who used the remaining nine Outdoor Centers were identified (Appendix V). Information was collected on these programs using a data card system (Appendix VI) designed by the researcher to provide:

1. School name
2. Name and address of permittee
3. Grade level of group, elementary, middle/jr. high, or high school
4. Distance from school to Outdoor Center, in terms of 50 mile distance (research review suggested that one hour travel time from the school to the camp was optimum)
5. Urban, rural or suburban school, as defined in Chapter I
6. Month camped
7. Year camped
8. Outdoor Center used.

When not available on the DNR Use Reports, information on grade level was obtained from the Michigan Education Directory and Buyers Guide⁴

Distances from the particular Outdoor Center to the school was determined by drawing mileage radius circles of 50 miles on a State of Michigan Official Transportation Map. Review of these mileage circles indicated that the user (school groups) fell within the 50 mile radius, adding another control to this study.

Designation of the type of community under which each school district was categorized are listed in the Definitions section of Chapter I.

When these data components were processed on a computer program written by a consultant with the Michigan State University Office of Research Consultation (ORC), analysis showed 191 different camping groups used the nine identified Outdoor Centers. These groups came from 142 different school systems, using one or more Outdoor Centers, one or more times yearly between the 1974-75 and 1978-79 school years. The restriction to a five year time period was the final major control of this study.

Since this was a comparative study two groups had to be selected. One group was determined to be those school districts who had continuously camped on a yearly basis for five years, 1974-75 to 1978-79. The comparison group was composed of districts who camped only in 1974-75 and/or 1975-76. Following this criterion, 32 districts who had continuously camped were identified, along with 36 who had camped only in 1974-75 and/or 1975-76. In both cases, this was the entire number of school districts who met this criterion. It was assumed that if a district had not camped in DNR Centers from 1976-77 through 1978-79, there was the probability that they no longer camped or they had changed to another facility.

Instrument Design

When the combined sample population of 68 school districts had been identified, a method of obtaining pertinent information from

each group had to be selected. Since the method to be utilized would be dependent upon the information desired, the categories to be researched had to be determined. Research and writings by Hammerman and Hammerman,⁵ Smith et al.,⁶ and Gilliland⁷ among others indicated general consensus on ten major categories of resident camp organization:

1. staff selection
2. public relations
3. program planning
4. program implementation
5. health and safety
6. finance
7. evaluation
8. facilities
9. transportation
10. food services

For the purposes of this study some of these categories were combined and others were eliminated. Staff selection, public relations, program planning and program implementation were combined and later re-stated in terms of the roles played by administration, teachers, students and parents/community in the organization of a resident camp program. Health and safety were eliminated as a category of study, not because of the lack of importance but due to the fact that the DSS and the Michigan Department of Health monitor camp programs at the DNR Centers.

The uniformity of facilities has been discussed at length earlier in this chapter. Transportation and food services were eliminated, primarily because they are not basic to the program aspects of this study.

The seven re-defined areas of this study were evaluation, program, finance, and the roles played by administration, teachers, students, and parents/community in the development of a resident school camping program. In order to secure the data on these categories, a survey type of questionnaire was used. The questionnaire was drafted around the seven areas of concentration and appraised for content validity and instrument language by a panel of experts. These individuals, selected for their nation-wide expertise in outdoor education and camping were:

1. Dr. Marcia Carlson, Professor of Recreation,
SUNY College at Cortland, New York
2. David Cross, Director, Lansing Environmental Education
Center, Lansing Public Schools, Lansing, Michigan
3. Dr. Vincent Cyphers, Professor of Outdoor Education,
University of Northern Colorado, Greeley, Colorado
4. Norman Skliar, Administrator, Office of Outdoor and
Environmental Education, BOCES-Nassau, Westbury,
New York
5. Dr. Morris Wiener, Professor, Department of Outdoor
Teacher Education, Lorado Taft Field Campus,
Northern Illinois University, Oregon, Illinois
6. Jack Wycoff, Director of Clear Lake Outdoor Education
Center, Battle Creek Public Schools, Dowling, Michigan

Communication was made with this panel (Appendix VII) to solicit their input, resulting in the final survey instrument (Appendix VIII).

The same questionnaire was sent to all of the 68 contact persons (camp directors) identified on the DNR facility use reservation forms as the "permittee." The questionnaires were coded to differentiate between the study populations.

Due to perceived difficulties in contacting the camp directors who camped only in 1974-75 and/or 1975-76, the questionnaire was sent to all 36 persons, the total number of this study group. Likewise, all 32 who camped continuously from 1974-75 through 1978-79 received the same questionnaire. It was the intent of the study to have 20 sets of data from each group. If more than 20 responses were received a random sampling technique would be used to reduce the number to 20.

Hypotheses

The questions in the survey instrument were developed so as to test the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis I: Administrative Support (AS)

There will be no difference in the administrative support between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers, and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

Hypothesis II: Teacher Involvement (TI)

There will be no difference in the degree of teacher involvement between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

Hypothesis III: Community Involvement (CI)

There will be no difference in the degree of parent/community involvement between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

Hypothesis IV: Student Involvement (SI)

There will be no difference in the degree of involvement by the students in planning of camp activities between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

Hypothesis V; Curriculum (C)

There will be no difference in the degree of infusion of the camp program into the school district's curriculum between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

Hypothesis VI: Finances (F)

There will be no difference in the availability of financial resources to cover camp program expenses between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

Hypothesis VII: Evaluation (E)

There will be no difference in the camp evaluation procedures followed by the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

Procedure for Analysis

The intent of this study was to make response comparisons among and between the two sub-populations. Data, using the Likert Scale rating on appropriate questions, were recorded, processed and results produced using programs from the Statistical Package for Social Sciences for use on the Michigan State University CDC 750 Computer.

One program was used to place the first 33 questions into six scales which corresponded with six of the hypotheses of the study. The scales were then tested for reliability. The scales were tested by a multivariate analysis of variance to determine the significance between the two comparison sub-populations on their responses.

The responses to the remaining seven questions were cross-tabulated and tested with Chi square analysis. In addition to these

tests for significance, mean responses to the 40 questions of this survey were tabulated and analyzed to provide other data, including demographics, pertinent to this study.

It was assumed that the return rate of the questionnaires would be sufficient to provide enough data for a valid comparative study. It was also assumed that this data would be representative of each of the respective camping programs.

Summary of Study Design

This study was conceived after research into the field of resident school camping and personal experience with residential camping programs. The researcher was seeking specific factors of homogeneity between two sub-populations of resident campers, those who continuously used DNR Outdoor Centers from 1974 through 1979 and those who camped only in 1974-75 and/or 1975-76. These factors were deemed important because of the approximately 23 percent decline in the Outdoor Center use over this five year period. Sixty-eight school districts were surveyed with a 42-item questionnaire to assess the importance of seven organizational areas in the resident school camp operation. The areas examined were administrative support, teacher, student, and parent/community participation in the camp planning processes. Other areas researched were the financial considerations, the camp curriculum, and the role of evaluation in the resident camp operation.

The survey instrument was checked for content validity before it was distributed to the sub-populations. The questions in this

survey were grouped so as to allow analysis by multivariate analysis and Chi Square, to determine significant differences between the sub-populations. Mean responses to 40 of the questions were also tabulated and analyzed to provide additional data pertinent to this study.

In Chapter IV the data collected from these sub-populations will be presented and analyzed, making the necessary comparisons to test the hypotheses and discuss the results of the information collected.

CHAPTER III: FOOTNOTES

¹Sharp, "Education and the Summer Camp--An Experiment."

²Gilliland, "Study of Administrative Factors in Establishing a Program of School Camping."

³Walton, "A Study of the Administrative Practices Used in the Operation of Thirty Selected Part Time School Camp Programs."

⁴Michigan Education Director and Buyers Guide (Lansing: Michigan Education Director, 1980).

⁵Hammerman and Hammerman, Teaching in the Outdoors, pp. 86-95.

⁶Julian W. Smith, Reynold E. Carlson, George W. Donaldson, and Hugh B. Masters, Outdoor Education (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963), pp. 103-130.

⁷Gilliland, School Camping, A Frontier of Curriculum Improvement, pp. 40-51.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

"It is extremely difficult in outdoor education programs to control, let alone even identify, all the variables that may have an impact on participants."¹ The scope of this study was defined to control and place limitations on the number of variables. The selection of 68 different camp operations using comparable Michigan DNR Outdoor Centers was made to control the type of facility used by these resident school camping programs and to reduce the sampling to a manageable number. Other controls, discussed at length in Chapter III, included the capacity of the facility, size of camper group, staffing of camp, and consistency of camp use. Contact was made with all 68 operations, using a questionnaire (Appendix VIII). This chapter will address the validation process used for the questionnaire, the response rate, demographic data, reliability, tests for significance, the hypotheses tested, and other data collected in this study.

Content Validity

The questionnaire was validated by a panel of outdoor education and camping experts (see Chapter III, p. 43). These parties pre-viewed the survey instrument for content validity, with the result of

no appreciable suggestions for change in the content of the individual questions. Cyphers conveyed the consensus of the panel when saying, "You have generally done a good job on the instrument."² Two panel members agreed with the re-organization suggested of Wiener that "If you grouped the items under headings or topics . . . it would be easier for the respondents."³ It was the intent of this study to compile the data according to the suggested emphasis areas, that is, administration, finances, and evaluation, so the questionnaire format was not altered. With the exception of suggested grammatical changes and the endorsement by the panel of experts, phrased by Carlson thus: "Your idea is very pertinent and could provide needed input into the area of the residential outdoor education program,"⁴ the researcher-developed survey instrument was determined to be valid and ready for distribution.

Response Rate

It was the intent of this study to have 20 completed and returned questionnaires for each of the identified sub-populations, continuously camping, and previously camped in 1974-75 and/or 1975-76 programs. If the number of returned questionnaires exceeded 20, a random sampling technique would be used to select the designated number.

The completed questionnaires were returned at an irregular rate which spanned a period of three summer months. The return rate can be attributed to the summer months during which some of the contact persons were on vacation or not at their business addresses.

Thirty-two questionnaires were sent to the continuously camping programs, with 29 completed and returned, for a return rate of 90.6 percent. The previously camped population of 36 returned 25 completed questionnaires, for a return rate of 69.4 percent. Combined, this study had 79.4 percent of the questionnaires returned (54 of 68), from which the data was tabulated and analyzed.

One of the assumptions made when selecting this test group, as stated in Chapter III, was that if a district had camped in DNR Centers in 1974-75 and/or 1975-76 but not in the three following years, there was the probability they no longer camped or had changed to another facility. Returns from the 25 previously camped group revealed that 14 had switched to other DNR facilities while 11 had indeed quit resident camping altogether. This breakdown altered the original intent to select randomly 20 questionnaires from each major group. The decision was made to use all responses received. This called for the identification of a third sub-population, those who continued to camp at other facilities.

Demographic Data

Data collected from the 54 respondents to this survey revealed that the majority were administrative personnel (Table 4.1). Since these were the parties who officially requested the reservation of their respective camp facilities, it was assumed that they were also the directors of their camp programs. The fact that a majority of those questioned were principals could have had an impact on this study, as discussed later in this chapter.

TABLE 4.1.--Respondents to Study.

Category	Number	Percent
Teachers	12	22.2
Outdoor/environmental education directors	5	9.3
Building principals	33	61.1
Other	4	7.4

When questioned on the share of the total camp costs covered by the school district, data indicated the students and parents were responsible for the majority of the costs (Table 4.2.).

TABLE 4.2.--School Districts Cost of Camp.

Share	Number	Percent
Less than 20%	73	68.5
20 to 40%	5	9.3
40 to 60%	4	7.4
60 to 80%	3	5.6
80 to 100%	5	9.3

The data from this study revealed the typical camper from this test population attended a school with a student population of 300-500, was in the sixth grade, and went to camp with 50 to 100 other students (Tables 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5).

TABLE 4.3.--School Building Population.

Population	Number	Percent
Less than 200 students	2	3.7
200 to 300 students	7	13.0
300 to 400 students	17	31.5
400 to 500 students	17	31.5
400 students or more	11	20.4

TABLE 4.4.--Grades Participating at Camp.

Grades	Number	Percent ^a
4th Grade	3	5.6
5th Grade	8	14.8
6th Grade	36	66.7
7th Grade	8	14.8
8th Grade	5	9.3
Other Grades	3	5.6

^aExceeds 100% due to multiple grades camping.

TABLE 4.5.--Average Size School Camp.

Students	Number	Percent
Less than 50 students	2	3.7
50 to 75 students	15	27.8
75 to 100 students	24	44.4
100 to 125 students	8	14.8
More than 125 students	5	9.3

Further investigation aimed at the camping student found a wide range in the reported levels of family income (Table 4.6).

TABLE 4.6.--Yearly Family Income.

Income Level	Number	Percent
Less than \$10,000/year	11	20.4
\$10,000 to \$25,000/year	24	44.4
\$25,000 to \$40,000/year	14	15.9
More than \$40,000/year	5	9.3

These demographics indicate that the populations tested in this study were very similar to those found in previous research on school camping. Camps were typically the administrative responsibility

of the building principal, as found by Frey⁵ and Pepper.⁶ The population of the participating school building was between 300-500 students with sixth graders usually camping with 50 to 100 other students. These findings support the data in studies by Nelson,⁷ Turner,⁸ and Walton.⁹ The majority of the campers came from middle income (\$10,000-\$40,000) families, as Ambry,¹⁰ Schaffer,¹¹ and Walton¹² discovered. Each of the campers paid the majority of the camp costs, more than 80 percent, similarly found in research by Rupff¹³ and Turner.¹⁴

Reliability

In an attempt to focus on certain general areas of school camping, questions from the first 33 questionnaires were placed in the six scales of Administrative Support (AS), Teacher Involvement (TI), Community Involvement (CI), Student Involvement (SI), Curriculum (C), and Finances (F) (Appendix IX). These researcher-determined scales were based upon the general content emphasis of each question.

A Cronbach alpha reliability was run on each of these scales. The scales were then adjusted by the deletion of certain questions (refer to Delete on scales i Appendix IX), until the reliability coefficient of each scale was above .6, with the exception of Finances (Table 4.7).

The closer a reliability coefficient is to the value of 1.00, the more the scale is free of error variance. The error variance may be defined as "the sum effect of the chance differences between

TABLE 4.7.--Reliability of Scales.

Scale	Number of Questions	Reliability A=
Administrative Support (AS)	10	.68757
Teacher Involvement (TI)	6	.61273
Community Involvement (CI)	4	.67064
Student Involvement (SI)	3	.63267
Curriculum Issues (C)	2	.69350
Finances (F)	4	.29543

persons that arise from factors associated with a particular measurement."¹⁵ Those factors in this questionnaire may have been the wording of the questions, the ordering of these questions, the question content or the mood of the respondent at the time of the questionnaire completion.

The questions eliminated to achieve the reliability coefficients found in Table 4.7 and the possible reasons for their influence upon the reliability of each scale are as follows:

Question 7, regarding the camp director being a classroom teacher, was deleted from the teacher involvement scale for it appeared to be concerned more with the administrative aspects of camp than the teachers' roles. Question 25, regarding resource personnel, was omitted from the community involvement for it appeared to be more concerned with the staffing at camp than with the community.

Question 24, the students and parents responsibility for financing the food and lodging costs of camp, was deleted from student involvement for it was financially based and more appropriately belonged in the finances scale.

Question 26, regarding the integration of the camping program into the school curriculum, was deleted from the scale of curriculum issues. It was more appropriately concerned with the entire school program, not the camp curriculum as the other questions in that scale.

The low reliability of the finances scale might be attributed to lack of uniformity in the questions. While all are financially based, they cover three different aspects of the financial picture: students, staff, and district. If the researcher had concentrated on a singular aspect or increased the number of questions on these three components, the scale might have been strengthened with a corresponding higher reliability coefficient.

A confirmatory factor analysis was run on the 33 variables to see if the mathematical analysis of these scales confirmed the researcher's determination of the scales. This analysis produced scales for three, four, five, and six factors which were not substantially meaningful. A non-restrictive factor analysis produced twelve scales. With only 5 to 60 percent agreement between these five factor analyses and the researcher-determined scales, combined with the illogical grouping of the questions by factor analysis, the researcher-determined scales were used in this study.

This low level of agreement indicated that the design of the questions and their placement into the six scales could have been altered to achieve a higher degree (percentage) of agreement. This alteration could have similarly increased the reliability of each scale.

Multivariate Test

After each of the previous scales were tested for reliability, the scales were tested for significance between sub-populations. The total 54 respondents to this study were sub-divided into the three sub-populations: those who continued to camp at DNR Outdoor Centers, those who continued to camp but switched facilities; and those who ceased camping after 1974-75 or 1975-76. Multivariate analysis of variance was run to determine if there was any significant difference in the six scales across these three sub-populations. The resultant p value was .66812 using the Wilks Lambda Test. This test is the recommended F test for the non-orthogonal (unequal cell sizes) design in this study.

The score of this test indicated that there was no discernable internal relationship between the responses of the three sub-populations over the six scales. With this apparent lack of significance, further tests were deemed necessary, using the univariate tests of significance.

Study of the Hypotheses

The univariate tests of significance was run on the six scales of this study. The results, reported in Table 4.8, indicating

TABLE 4.8.--Mean Responses According to Scales by Sub-populations and Univariate Tests of Significance.

Sub-population	(AS)	(TI)	(CI)	(SI)	(C)	(F)
Continued Camping DNR Centers	1.967	2.552	2.379	3.228	2.609	2.531
Continued Camping Other Facilities	1.760	2.580	2.182	2.946	2.364	2.182
Ceased Camping after 1975-76	1.857	1.642	2.417	2.114	2.810	2.093
Mean Entire Group	1.896	2.581	2.349	3.141	2.611	2.346
Univariate Test of Significance p =	.54368	.90059	.62485	.35519	.41269	.07769

a lack of significance, will be discussed in the context of each of the hypotheses of this study. Significance would indicate a relationship between the sub-populations and the six scales that did not happen by chance.

Hypothesis I: Administrative Support

There will be no difference in the administrative support between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers, those who continued to camp at other facilities, and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

The p value from the univariate tests was .54368, indicating no significance, thereby the null hypothesis is accepted.

While the responses between sub-populations were not found to be significant, administrative support was deemed the most important type of support by the respondents to this study. Based on a 1 to 5 Likert Scale rating of importance, with 1 being very important and 5 being of no importance, the mean response to the questions grouped in the administrative scale was 1.896 (Table 4.8).

When investigating this scale in detail, the open support of the building principal (1.204) and general administrative support (1.333) were valued as most important (Appendix X). Conversely, the school district's responsibility to fund the camp operation was rated as the least important of the questions in this scale, 3.278 (Appendix X).

This data confirms the conclusions of the studies by Schafer¹⁶ and Frey¹⁷ on the important role of administration in camping programs. Similarly implied, as in Pepper's¹⁸ studies, is the responsibility of the school administration to provide the camp program leadership.

Myers stated, "The importance of leadership as a primary factor in the success of resident camp programs is not only widely expounded by camp directors and administrators, but is supported by the quantity of research efforts which have attempted to examine the various aspects of camp leadership."¹⁹

In the open-ended response section of the questionnaire, administrative support was listed by 56 percent of the respondents as the major reason for their camp continuation.

Generally, the responses to the specific questions in the administrative scale and the free response section were somewhat predictable since more than 70 percent of the people answering the questionnaire for this study were administrators. It is logical to assume the responses to this portion of the study to be slanted in a pro-administration line.

Hypothesis II: Teacher Involvement

There will be no difference in the degree of teacher involvement between the camp programs who continuously used DNR centers, those who continued to camp at other facilities, and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

The p value from the univariate tests was .90059 (Table 4.8) indicating no significance, thereby the null hypothesis is accepted.

Teacher involvement was given a mean response of 2.581 on the questions in the teacher involvement scale, Table 4.8. This response level is not definitive enough to make any generalizations on the relative importance of teachers based on the scale as a whole.

If Questions 27 and 30 had been omitted from this scale, the composite mean response would rise to 1.879, giving teacher involvement the highest ranking of all six scales (Appendix X). From the first 33 questions in this survey, Question 12 on the teaching staff's active role in planning camp, and Question 17, concerning the teaching staff's conducting classes, received the highest mean values--1.185 and 1.167, respectively.

The indication is that in the opinion of the respondents to this survey these were the two most important facets of a school camping operation. These high mean values would suggest that without the direct support and involvement of the classroom teacher, there really cannot be an ongoing camp program.

The studies of Willson,²⁰ Frey,²¹ Schafer,²² and Craddock²³ similarly found consensus on need for such teacher involvement. Watson's reported research showed that "genuine participation increased motivation, adaptability and speed of learning. The key to achieving such outcomes was genuine and meaningful participation and not pretended sharing."²⁴

It is noteworthy to remember that the majority of the respondents in this study were building principals and administrators, not teachers. In the opinion of these administrators, the teachers still ranked as the most meaningful component of the camp operation.

The two questions which appreciably lowered the mean value of this scale, Questions 27 and 30, dealt with previous experience and training. The need for previous camping experience by the camp teacher, Question 27, was given a mean response rating of 2.963

(Appendix X). With the Likert Scale rating of 3.0 signifying "undecided," this response indicates an uncertainty on the part of the respondents as to whether there was real value in having previous camping experiences. This indecision was contrary to the conclusions of Wenrich²⁵ and Schafer²⁶ who both felt that camping experiences were needed by the teacher in order to assure a successful camp program.

Response to Question 30 on the need for formal training in outdoor education brought a mean response of 3.537 (Appendix X) based on the previously described Likert Scale. This lower value on the importance of formal training is contrary to the conclusions in studies by MacMillan,²⁷ Holt,²⁸ and Hug.²⁹ Their data indicated that teachers must have this training in outdoor education in order to successfully conduct resident school camping programs.

Hypothesis III: Community Involvement

There will be no difference in the degree of parent/community involvement between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers, those who continued to camp at other facilities, and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

The p value from the univariate tests was .62485 (Table 4.8), indicating no significance, thereby the null hypothesis was accepted.

The parent/community involvement scale was given a mean response of 2.349 based on the previously described Likert Scale (Table 4.8). This indicates that the respondents to this study felt that, overall, community support was a vital link in a school camping program. This response agrees with the conclusions of Hibbs³⁰ and

Sato³¹ when they studied the administrative and organizational factor surrounding the establishment of school camping programs.

The question from this scale receiving the most support, 1.296 on the Likert Scale, concerned the open community support for the camping program, was number 3 (Appendix X).

This level of support, ranking the fourth highest among the 33 questions asked, seems indicative of the importance of the community in the camp operation. As the Superintendent of the San Diego's Public Schools stated, in reference to their county-wide residential school camping program initiated by Pumula:

One of the amazing things about the camping program has been the overwhelming public and parental support of the program. We've had some who objected to it, some council members, some members of the Board of Supervisors, who came on the Camp Commission determined that their role in life was to get rid of that particular piece of budget. And after a time they became solid supporters of the program.³²

Hypothesis IV: Student Involvement

There will be no difference in the degree of involvement by the student in planning of camp activities between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers, those who continued to camp at other facilities, and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

The p value from the univariate tests was .35519 (Table 4.8), indicating no significance, thereby the null hypothesis is accepted.

The student involvement scale was given a mean response of 3.141 (Table 4.8), indicating that the respondents were undecided on the importance of student involvement in the camp program. However, when questioned on the importance of student involvement in planning the camp program (Question 10), a mean response of 2.037 was given by

54 respondents to this study (Appendix X). With 2 meaning 'important,' this response concurs with the findings of studies by Kielsmeier³³ and Mason³⁴ that students must be active in planning their own camp programs.

The data from Question 39 (Table 4.9), indicated that the respondents to this study felt that students followed the teaching staff and principal in determining the camp program. Although the mean response level was lower, 2.370, it still indicated the relative importance of this group to the camp planning process.

Responses to questions on the importance of previous school and personal camping experiences, Questions 28 and 29, found total group means of 4.537 and 4.593, respectively, based on the previously described Likert Scale (Appendix X). In the research for this study, nothing was found to confirm or refute this seemingly low importance rating for the experience of a camper.

With two of the three questions in the student involvement scale receiving such relatively low ranking in importance, the topic of student involvement may not have been adequately assessed. The mean response for the scale (3.141) was probably not indicative of the relative importance of students because of the wide discrepancy between the values given these three questions.

The greatest variation in mean scores among the three sub-populations, by scales, was found with student involvement. The two continued camping populations had similar mean scores near 3 while the population which no longer camped was near 2. Speculation might lead one to question if there is any relationship between the

decision to continue camping, the student involvement in planning camp, and previous camping experience.

Hypothesis V: Curriculum

There will be no difference in the degree of infusion of the camp program into the school district's curriculum between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers, those who continued to camp at other facilities, and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

The p value from the univariate tests was .41269 (Table 4.8), indicating no significance, thereby the null hypothesis is accepted.

The scale for curriculum did not have enough questions to measure adequately the curriculum area. The mean response for the scale, 2.611 (Table 4.8), indicates some degree of importance; but with only two questions it is difficult to illustrate any differences between sub-populations.

The response to the individual questions did indicate some relative importance for the camping program being a part of the Board of Education approved curriculum, 1.815 mean score for Question 18 (Appendix X). This level of importance agreed with the studies of Craddock³⁵ and Schafer³⁶ that the camp program should be integrated into the regular school program. The other question in this scale, Question 14, had a mean response of 2.833 (Appendix X), indicating uncertainty on the part of the respondents as to the importance of following a standard camp curriculum.

One question in this study, Question 39, specifically addressed the topic of the relative responsibility of program determination (Table 4.9). While it is interesting to note how the 54

TABLE 4.9.--Relative Responsibility for Camping Program Determination (Question 39).

Group	Mean Response
Teachers	1.019
Principal	2.259
Students	2.370
Parents	3.185
Board of Education	3.141

respondents answered this question, indicating very strong support for teacher responsibility, this data could have been of greater value to the study of curriculum if the question had been worded differently.

Hypothesis VI: Finances

There will be no difference in the availability of financial resources to cover camp program expenses between the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers, those who continued to camp at other facilities, and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

The p value from the univariate tests was .07769 (Table 4.8), indicating no significance, thereby the null significance level of the finances scale (.077) was close in absolute value. This leads to speculation that if there had been a reliable scale, significance could have been reached. The questions, grouped as they were in the finance scale, were not reliable enough to make a valid test for this study.

The mean response for the finances scale was 2.346 (Table 4.8), indicating a relative degree of importance. This mean value includes one of the component questions, Question 23, which had an appreciably different value (3.185) than the other components. If this question had been removed from the scale, a more uniform response level would have been given on finances.

The response to Question 23, indicating an indifference to the importance of staff remuneration, is contrary to the results of Schafer's study.³⁷ That study concluded that it was important for teaching staff to receive extra remuneration for their camping duties. The previously stated condition that data for this study came from responses of administrators, not teachers, might offer an explanation as to the reason for these differences.

The response to the query on the students/parents' responsibility for financing camp expenses, Question 24, had a mean of 1.981 (Appendix X). This confirms the findings of Jones and Swan³⁸ when they questioned 566 parents of campers. Both studies indicated that it is the parents' responsibility to cover the basic camp costs of room and board.

There were 54 school districts which responded to this study, 11 of which ceased camping after 1974-75 or 1975-76. All 11 listed the lack of finances and administrative support as the reason their camping program is no longer in operation (Table 4.10). Such complete agreement to a single area in an open-ended question gives another reason to question if the scale on finances adequately covered the topic.

TABLE 4.10.--Major Reasons Camping Program Is or Is Not Continuing (Question 42).

Sub-population	No. Times Mentioned	Percent
<u>Continuing to Camp</u>		
Supportive teaching staff	26	60.5
Supportive administration	24	55.8
Supportive community/parents	22	51.2
Supportive students	17	39.5
Low cost to parents	5	11.6
Low cost to school district	5	11.6
<u>Ceased to Camp</u>		
Lack of finances	11	100.0
Lack of administrative support	11	100.0
Lack of teaching staff support	5	45.5
No longer the need, students have other camp experiences	2	18.2

Hypothesis VII: Evaluation

There will be no difference in the camp evaluation procedures followed by the camp programs who continuously used DNR Centers, those who continued to camp at other facilities, and those who ceased camping after 1975-76.

A cross-tabulation of the responses to Question 34 regarding the need for formal evaluation of camp between these three

sub-populations, resulted in a Chi square value of .2817, and a Cramers V correlation of .2166 (Table 4.11), indicating no significance. These results make the evaluation null hypothesis acceptable.

TABLE 4.11.--Cross Tabulation of Responses to Question 34--Camp Evaluation.

Component	Significance Level of Chi Square	Cramer's V (Correlation)
Camp formally evaluated	.2817	.2166
Evaluated by teaching staff	.2817	.2166
Evaluated by principal	.0531	.3297
Evaluated by students	.0235	.3728
Evaluated by parents of students	.1156	.2827

While this study did not substantiate the comparative significance of evaluation, 85 percent (46 out of the 54 total respondents), reported the camp program should be formally evaluated. There was 100 percent agreement that the camp staff, comprised of teachers, adult counsellors, and resource staff, should be responsible for this evaluation. Other parties deemed important to the evaluation of camp were the participating students, building principal, and the parents (Table 4.12). It is interesting to note that the consumers (campers) of the educational service (the camp program) were listed the second most frequently as the party responsible for evaluating the camp.

TABLE 4.12.--Responsibility for Evaluation of Camp (Question 34).

Group	Number of Responses	Percent
Camp staff	46	100.0
Students	37	80.0
Building principal	25	54.0
Parents of campers	23	50.0

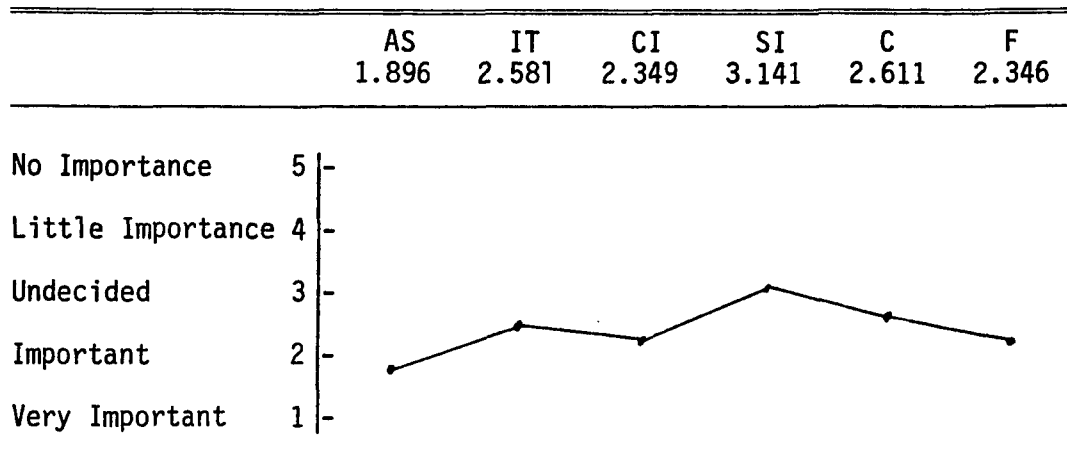
These responses on evaluation indicate the attitude that evaluation is definitely necessary and should be a joint venture among all the participating groups in the residential school camp. This confirms the conclusions of studies by Hammerman and Hammerman,³⁹ Rillo,⁴⁰ Parkman,⁴¹ and Sato⁴² that camp evaluation was deemed important.

Summary of Hypotheses

The responses of the 54 school districts involved in this study did not indicate any statistically significant differences on the decision to continue, switch, or cease camping according to the seven hypotheses tested. The data did indicate variance in the mean response for scales which correlated with six of these hypotheses (Table 4.23).

When the mean responses for the first 33 questions were tabulated, community and principal support, teacher involvement and camp administration received the rating as most important on the Likert

Table 4.13.--Mean Response According to Scales.



Scale (Appendix X). Conversely, responses to the students' previous school and personal camping experiences, the necessity of the camp director to be an administrator, the responsibility of the school district to fund all or part of the camp expenses and the need for a camping teacher to have formal training in outdoor education had the lowest rating on the Likert Scale of importance.

As previously indicated, in spite of the unreliability of the finance scale, this scale was still closer to a level of significance than any other scale. This could suggest that financial considerations, in some form, might have an appreciable effect on the decision to continue with a residential school camping program. That conclusion cannot be reached with this set of data due to the unreliability of the scale.

Other Data

The responses to the final questions of this study, 35 to 40, were cross-tabulated by the three sub-populations: camping at DNR Centers, camping at other facilities, and those who ceased camping after 1974-75 or 1975-76, to determine any significant differences these variables might have had on the decision to continue camping (Table 4.14). With an Alpha level of .05 indicating significance, none of the responses on these questions reached a level of significance.

The Cramer's V (Table 4.14) is a correlation coefficient that indicates the strength of the relationship between the two variables. The nearer the coefficient is to ± 1.0 , the stronger this relationship.

The responses to Question 35 on the share of the total camp costs covered by the school district did not indicate any significant differences between the three sub-populations. Data did indicate that in 69 percent of the school districts surveyed, districts' share of the cost for the total camp program was less than 20 percent (Table 4.2). The research by Jones and Swan⁴³ similarly found that the parents/students cover the majority of the school camp costs (room and board) with the school district providing transportation and instructional materials.

Question 35, worded differently, might possibly have been more appropriately placed in the finances scale so as to strengthen the scale and thus alter the results of this study.

There were no significant differences between sub-populations when the size of the camping group (Question 36) and school building

TABLE 4.14.--Cross-Tabulation of Responses to Questions 35 and 40.

Question	Significance Level of Chi Square	Cramer's V (Correlation)
35. Share of costs covered by district	.2827	.3338
36. Size of camp group	.0838	.3590
37. Size of school building	.5005	.2607
38. Grade that camps:		
4th grade	.6658	.1228
5th grade	.0642	.3189
6th grade	.0918	.2974
7th grade	.4207	.2792
8th grade	.3855	.1879
Other	.6658	.1228
39. Program responsibility		
Teachers	.3199	.2548
Students	.7090	.2246
Principal	.3859	.3139
40. Yearly family income		
Less than \$10,000/year	.1705	.5106
\$10,000 to \$25,000/year	.5426	.5647
\$25,000 to \$40,000/year	.5337	.4974
\$40,000 or more	.5469	.4365

size (Question 37) were compared (Table 4.14). These results confirmed the studies by Turner.⁴⁴ Data did indicate that 71 percent of the camping groups had between 50 and 100 campers (Table 4.5), confirming the findings of Walton⁴⁵ when he studied 30 Michigan school camp programs.

Sixty-three percent of the campers came from school buildings that housed from 300 to 500 students (Table 4.3). The sixth grade was the most commonly found (67 percent) camping grade (Table 4.4). No significance was indicated between the sub-populations' camping grades, or the size of their school and the decision to continue camping (Table 4.14). The next most popular camping grades were fifth and seventh (Table 4.4). Data from the Turner⁴⁶ and Walton⁴⁷ studies revealed similar findings that the typical camping grades were fifth and sixth.

There were no significant differences found between the sub-populations when questioned on the responsibility for determining the program at camp (Table 4.14). When asked to rank the relative degree of responsibility, teachers were ranked the most responsible, followed by principals, students, parents, and the Board of Education, respectively (Table 4.9). These results correspond with the research by MacMillan,⁴⁸ Willson,⁴⁹ and Wenrich,⁵⁰ that teachers and administrators must provide the leadership in developing the camp program.

The responses to Question 40 indicated that there was no apparent correlation between family income level and the three sub-populations' decision on camping (Table 4.14). Forty-five percent of the campers came from income levels of \$10,000 to \$25,000, while 70

percent fell between \$10,000 and \$40,000 yearly family income (Table 4.6). It seems quite apparent that campers come from the typical, middle income family, confirming the findings of Turner.⁵¹

The final question in this survey instrument, Question 42, solicited open responses for the major reasons the camping program was or was not continuing. Table 4.10 illustrates that the continuing camp programs focused on four general reasons for continuing: supportive teaching staff, administration, community/parents, and students. These reasons confirm the previously presented data on the importance of these support bases for a resident school camping program.

Conversely, those who had not camped since 1975-76 found uniform agreement on the lack of administrative/financial support with some agreement on the lack of support from the teaching staff. Both of these results confirm the importance of staff support and possible significance of finances in the decision to terminate the school camp program.

Chapter V will address the conclusions made from this study and present recommendations for future study in the area of finance, camp program, evaluation, and teachers.

CHAPTER IV: FOOTNOTES

¹Frederick A. Staley, "Research, Evaluation and Measurement in Outdoor Education," The Communicator, Journal of the New York State Outdoor Education 11 (1980): 13.

²Vincent A. Cyphers to Ronald Z. Bacon, May 20, 1980.

³Morris Wiener to Ronald Z. Bacon, May 12, 1980.

⁴Marcia Carlson to Ronald Z. Bacon, May 14, 1980.

⁵Frey, "Job Analysis of School Camp Directors."

⁶Pepper, "School Camping with Emphasis on Program Objectives, Curriculum, Administration, and Evaluation."

⁷Nelson, "Criteria in Selection and Development Outdoor Sites," pp. 17-21.

⁸Turner, "Administrative Procedures in Outdoor Laboratory Programs."

⁹Walton, "Administrative Practices in Part-time Camps."

¹⁰Ambry, "Investigation of Administrative Problems."

¹¹Schafer, "Administrative Guide for Initiating Outdoor Education."

¹²Walton, "Administrative Practices in Part-time Camps."

¹³Rupff, "Comparison of Aspirations with Achievements in School Camps."

¹⁴Turner, "Administrative Procedures in Outdoor Laboratory Programs."

¹⁵Walter R. Borg and Meredith D. Gall, Education Research (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1971), p. 144.

¹⁶Schafer, "Administrative Guide for Initiating Resident Outdoor Education."

¹⁷Frey, "Job Analysis of School Camp Directors."

¹⁸Pepper, "School Camping with Emphasis on Program Objectives, Curriculum, Administration and Evaluation."

¹⁹Judith L. Myers, "A Summary of Camp Leadership Research," Research Camping and Environmental Education (Pennsylvania State University: HPER Series #11, 1976), p. 349.

²⁰Willson, Research Camping and Environmental Education, p. 324.

²¹Frey, "Job Analysis of School Camp Directors."

²²Schafer, "Administrative Guide for Initiating Resident Outdoor Education."

²³Craddock, "Suggested School Camping Program."

²⁴G. Watson, "What Psychology Can We Trust," Reading in Learning and Human Abilities, edited by R. R. Ripple (New York: Harper & Row, 1964), p. 29.

²⁵Wenrich, "Staffing of Public Elementary School Camps."

²⁶Schafer, "Administrative Guide for Initiating Resident Outdoor Education."

²⁷MacMillan, "Duties and Responsibilities of School Camp Directors."

²⁸Holt, "Competencies Needed by Teachers in Resident Outdoor Education."

²⁹Hug, "Factors Which Influence Teachers in Outdoor Activities."

³⁰Hibbs, "Development of Outdoor Laboratories in Public Schools."

³¹Sato, "Guide for Organization and Administration of Outdoor Education Programs."

³²Ralph Dailard, cited by Wilbur Schram, Classroom Out-of-Doors (Kalamazoo, Mich.: Sequoia Press/Publishers, 1969), p. 162.

³³Keilsmeier, "Experience as Focus in Alternative Programs," p. 12.

³⁴Mason, Camping and Education.

- ³⁵Craddock, "Suggested School Camping Program."
- ³⁶Schafer, "Administrative Guide for Initiating Resident Outdoor Education."
- ³⁷Ibid.
- ³⁸Jones and Swan, "Parents' Perception of Resident Outdoor Education," p. 19.
- ³⁹Hammerman and Hammerman, Teaching in the Outdoors, pp. 127-135.
- ⁴⁰Rillo, "Role of Coordination in Outdoor Education Programs."
- ⁴¹Parkman, "Guidelines for Conversion of Camp to Outdoor Center."
- ⁴²Sato, "Guide for Organization and Administration of Outdoor Education Programs."
- ⁴³Jones and Swan, "Parents' Perception of Resident Outdoor Education," p. 19.
- ⁴⁴Turner, "Administrative Procedures in Outdoor Laboratory Programs."
- ⁴⁵Walton, "Administrative Practices in Part-time Camps."
- ⁴⁶Turner, "Administrative Procedures in Outdoor Laboratory Programs."
- ⁴⁷Walton, "Administrative Practices in Part-time Camps."
- ⁴⁸MacMillan, "Duties and Responsibilities of School Camp Directors."
- ⁴⁹Willson, Research Camping and Environmental Education, p. 324.
- ⁵⁰Wenrich, "Staffing of Public Elementary School Camps."
- ⁵¹Turner, "Administrative Procedures in Outdoor Laboratory Programs."

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND REFLECTIONS

Introduction

This comparative study of factors and practices in selected residential school camping programs was undertaken to determine: (1) the reasons for the sharp decline in the use of Michigan Department of Natural Resources Outdoor Centers by residential school camping groups, (2) the reasons why certain school districts continue to operate their camp programs at DNR facilities while others ceased to camp, and (3) what support mechanisms are needed to maintain Michigan resident school camping programs.

A 42-item questionnaire was the instrument employed to survey 68 different school camp programs to ascertain the answers to these three questions. The first 33 questions were placed into six scales to test six of the seven hypotheses of this study. These scales were Administrative Support, Teacher Involvement, Community Involvement, Student Involvement, Curriculum, and Finances. The seventh hypothesis, on evaluation, was tested using responses from the survey question directly relating to evaluation.

The hypotheses were searching for significant differences between the sub-populations of the programs polled when tested across these six scales. The sub-populations were the school districts who

continued to camp at DNR Outdoor Centers, districts who continued to camp at other facilities, and districts who ceased camping after 1974-75 or 1975-76.

Major Conclusions

The data did not indicate any significant differences between these sub-populations and thereby did not indicate the significant reasons for the sharp decline in the use of the DNR Outdoor Centers by residential school camping groups.

The hypotheses of this study were accepted and thus reasons why certain districts continue to operate their camp while others ceased to camp were not discovered. Data did not indicate why certain school districts continued to use DNR Centers while others switched to another camping facility. However, this question was not directly asked because those districts who had switched facilities were not identified at the time the survey was administered.

The reasons for the termination of the camping programs of one sub-population were explicitly defined. Data collected from those districts who ceased camping after 1974-75 or 1975-76 showed agreement as to why they were no longer camping: the lack of administrative and financial support. In addition to 100 percent agreement on those two reasons, the loss of teacher support was also listed by a number of school districts. While these reasons are not significant in a comparative fashion, they are of major importance when considering this particular sub-population.

This study did indicate a number of areas which were of importance in the establishment and maintenance of a resident camping program, particularly administrative support, teacher and community involvement, and finances.

When the 'continuing to camp' sub-populations were asked for their continuation reasons, more than 50 percent of the respondents listed supportive teaching staff, administration, and community/parents. Supportive students, the relative low cost to the parents and the low cost to the school district were other responses to this open-ended question.

The similarity between these reasons for continuation and the rank ordering of importance found within and between the scales of this study point to the inter-relationship of support mechanisms needed to continue a camping program.

From the scales, the high ranking of support by the building principal, followed in order by administration, school board, and superintendent support indicated that overall administrative backing was deemed very important for a camp program. This direct-line relationship could indicate the influence of the building principal upon the remainder of the administrative forces. In a pyramid fashion, this individual seemed to be the base of the administrative support.

Data showed that administrators viewed the teachers' active role in planning and conducting the camp classes as very important. This view is another indication of the principal's influence on the teachers' involvement in the camp operation. Playing lesser roles of importance were the teachers' orientation to the out-of-doors and

their involvement in an in-service training program. The necessity for teachers to be formally trained in outdoor education was deemed of little importance.

The open support of the community at large was deemed crucial as was the Board of Education's acceptance of camping as part of the school curriculum. Similarly, the inter-relationship of these two major forces can be seen, for without the support of one group, the efforts of the other would be futile.

The willingness of the students and parents to finance the majority (80 percent) of the camp expenses was also indicated in the data. Implied was the willingness of the Board of Education to cover the remaining 20 percent of the camp costs. This financial support indicated the prioritization given to residential school camping by a combination of the school board, district staff, and the community at large.

Information in this study indicated a desire by the camp staff, campers, building principal, and parents of the campers to have the camp operation formally evaluated. Parents will be increasingly more important in light of the thrust for public awareness, accountability, and parental funding found in today's public education. This desire for evaluation did not seem to be translated into practice for there were few indications of ongoing evaluation procedures in the camp operations surveyed.

If the topic of program evaluation had been more thoroughly investigated as to the actual evaluative practices, followed by the

various respondents in this study, the cause and effect principle of this camp component might have been more meaningful.

Support Mechanisms

The final question in this study was for the identification of support mechanisms needed to maintain school camping programs. To this end, the rank order relationship of the principal, community and parental support, followed by financial maintenance, teacher involvement, the camp program (curriculum), and student involvement, were determined to be the crucial forces for camp continuation. It is important to remember the strength of the relationship between these forces. The influences they have on one another must be considered important, because all of these component parts must mesh together, to provide a continuum of support.

The principal appeared to be the focal point around which the other support bases were built. That individual alone could set the stage for the nourishment or demise of the residential school camp. However, unless all of these other foundations are also present, particularly community, parent and financial support, residential camping will have a difficult, if not impossible, time of existing in the educational system.

Other Conclusions

According to this study, it was not important that the camping students had previous camping experiences, either personal or through another school program. The general support of students was indicated

of value but it did not appear to be the crucial factor in the continuation of the camp operation.

Data indicated that the participating students played a relatively important role in the camp planning process, following the teaching staff and principal.

There were no specific conclusions about the economic background of the camper, along with the size of the building and camp group or the school grade of the camper. Data from this study indicated that a typical school camping operation would be found in a school building area comprised of middle income families with yearly incomes of \$10,000-\$40,000.

The camping students would be in the sixth, fifth, or seventh grades (in that order) and would come from a school building with a student population of 300-400. A representative camping group would number around 80 students, rarely going under 50 or over 125 campers.

Recommendations for Future Study

Finances

It is recommended that studies be made on the importance of finances to the continuation of the camping program.

Results of this study indicated the area of finances warrants further investigation, particularly as it relates to determining significant differences between the three test sub-populations.

Some of the financial questions unanswered are:

1. Did the camp programs who left the DNR facilities but continued to camp, do so for financial reasons?

2. Are the expressed financial concerns of those who have not camped since 1974-75 or 1975-76 related to negotiated teacher contracts?
3. Is the cost effectiveness of the camp experience a factor in it's continuation?
4. If camping was eliminated for financial reasons, did the teaching staff have input into the school district's budget building process?
5. If not for financial reasons, why did the 14 districts leave the DNR facilities for other camps?
6. Were the economic conditions of Michigan's educational system, in 1980 when this survey was taken, of significant importance to the responses made to the survey questions?
7. What were the financial reasons that caused the 11 districts in this study to cease camping after 1975 or 1976?
8. Does camping fall into that category of "frills," which came into school programs in the 1950s and 1960s, that possibly the educational budgets of the 1970s and 1980s can no longer finance?
9. Are the 'hidden' costs of transportation, teaching supplies and teacher salaries significant factors in the decision to discontinue camp programs?
10. Is there a relationship between the quality of the camp programming and extra duty compensation received by camp staff in some camp programs?

Evaluation

The general consensus from the 54 respondents in this study was that evaluation is desired. The implied lack of evaluative data, and this researcher's opinion, might suggest that little is being done in this area. Some of the evaluation questions unanswered are:

1. Are school camp operations adequately evaluated?
2. If school camp operations are evaluated, what type of evaluation takes place?

3. Can the effect of changes in the attitudes and values of the student, as the result of the camp experience, be evaluated over a short term basis?
4. Are camp operations evaluated by school district or camp staff developed evaluation instruments?
5. Are standardized measurement instruments used in the evaluation of camping operations?
6. What facet of the camp operation is evaluated--the campers, staff, program, administration, or the entire camp operation?
7. Are the decisions to continue or discontinue camping programs based on evaluative data?

Teachers

The data from this study are contrary to the findings of previously mentioned studies which specify the necessity for pre-service and in-service training for camping teachers. Some of the unanswered questions on camping teachers are:

1. Do pre-service and in-service teacher training programs equate with the continuation of camping programs?
2. Can the effectiveness of teacher training, both pre-service and in-service, be measured in terms of the quality of a camp program?
3. Are teachers' attitudes toward the out-of-doors transferred to the participating campers?
4. Is the effectiveness of the educational experience on the campers appreciably altered when the classroom teacher is not involved in the camp planning and operation?
5. Is the relative importance of the classroom teacher, found in this study, contrary to the trend found in today's colleges and universities toward the preparation of professional camp staff?
6. Is there a relationship between the age and experiences of a teaching staff member and their willingness to participate in a resident camp program?

7. What is the relationship between a supportive building administrator and the classroom teacher's willingness to participate in a resident school camp program?

Caution must be exercised when undertaking the previously mentioned topics for future study. This study indicated that the standard research methodologies typically used in education often do not fit the scope of the residential school camping program. Many of the effects of the resident camp might be more appropriately measured over a long term (years) basis. As Staley suggested:

One reason for our failures in outdoor education and educational research in general may well be a result of using inappropriate models of evaluation research. The strength of outdoor education is the interaction that occurs between people, activities, and the outdoors and this strength may be best measured using sociological and holistic alternative, evaluative methodologies.¹

We may indeed be looking for short-term solutions for long-term problems. Many societal and educational changes have taken place since the inception of residential school camping more than 40 years ago. Some would say they have had an appreciable effect on the camping movement. Others still concur with the thoughts of Melby when he said:

When we see the general education values that are to be secured through school camping, we realize that there is no frill that is nice to have but that can be dispensed with in times of financial stress and strain. I believe that educational values can be secured through camping that can be secured in no other way or at least in no other way with equal effectiveness.²

The research of this decade can go a long way in determining the eventual longevity of the residential school camp in Michigan.

Reflections

In looking back on seventeen years of resident school camping, the author has a few reflections to share with the reader.

Some of the uniquenesses of these experiences for youth and adults alike have already been illustrated. But what is the future of the resident school camp? The author would suggest:

1. That school camping can truly be a community education. If properly developed, operated, and evaluated, it can reach farther into the community-at-large than almost any other educational operation. The uniqueness of this 'off campus' form of learning brings forth resources from the community which can hardly be duplicated in the regular classroom setting.
2. That a major bi-product of the camping program can be the positive relationship built between the school staff and the tax-paying community. Camping can develop the same sense of community at the lower grade levels that comes with inter-scholastic athletics or the performing arts at the higher grade levels.
3. That one cannot emphasize enough the importance of the building principal. This is the "key" person who can make or break the operation. The principal can run interference for the enthusiastic and energetic teacher who develops such an experience for the students. Without the principal's necessary acknowledgments and needed verbal recognition, it would be difficult at best to have a successful program. The principal alone can have a great impact on fellow administrators, teaching, and auxiliary staff and the community with whom they regularly work.

4. That system-wide camp curricula, which do not vary between the camping groups, have a tendency to eliminate some of the effectiveness of the camp operation. The benefits of a uniform program are counterbalanced by the loss of building autonomy when it comes to planning the camp program.

5. That camp operations conducted at facilities like the DNR Outdoor Centers tend to find the teaching staff more educationally involved. Teachers must get involved in all facets of the program, as compared to the facility where there is a resident camp staff and a pre-determined program. This teacher involvement brings forth more student, administrator, parent, and community participation, a total group consciousness. This type of organization allows for an integration of experiences into the school year curriculum that can be difficult to duplicate in other camp organizational patterns.

6. That those involved in teacher education at colleges and universities have a vested interest in utilizing the out-of-doors in the educative process. Those people can be far more helpful to the school camping districts, with the provision of support services, than they have been to date.

7. That educational training prior to a camping experience might be desired but in no way indicates the success of a camp operation. It is more important to feel comfortable with students and the out-of-doors than to have a formalized outdoor education. This can often be achieved through a well-planned in-service program that exposes the teacher to outdoor experiences which can be

transferred on to the students. Colleges and universities can be an invaluable resource in helping accomplish this.

8. That teachers who are interested in camping are generally in a minority, they are the 'better' educators, relatively speaking. They are capable and willing to go the 'extra mile' by providing additional opportunities for creative learning. As in any profession, these are the backbone of the system and they deserve whatever support we can possibly provide.

9. That the role of the negotiated teaching contract, particularly the extra-duty remuneration for camping, is of greater significance in the decline of camping than was indicated in this study. (The lack of importance indicated on this issue might be explained by the fact that administrative, rather than classroom, personnel were the main respondents in this study.)

10. That the 'lack of money' has been used as an excuse for camp program elimination to cover a number of other unrelated deficiencies, such as the lack of proper planning, staffing, administrative commitment, time, and evaluation. (The results of significance testing in this study indicate the need for further study on finances, which may be able to show that money doesn't deserve the 'cure' label that educators have often placed on it.)

11. That students actually have far greater input into the camp program than the building principal realizes. Students can have an appreciable influence on teachers, parents, and administrators.

12. That students would generally support resident school camping because it was a change from the normal classroom routine, offering an exciting change of pace.

13. That camping is unique to the point that when program evaluation has taken place, students have been a part of the evaluative process. This is not the commonly accepted procedure in the evaluation of other educational programs. This involvement might well be a major key in the continuation of resident school camping.

14. That as the need for accountability continues to permeate educational circles, those who have voluntarily conducted an objective evaluation, and based their program decisions on the results, should stand on an educationally solid foundation.

15. That the growth in family camping in the past decade may have taken the 'edge' off the resident school camping movement, to the point of reducing the perceived need.

For the future I see the combined support of those in the educational community will have to become much more visible in order for resident school camping to weather the educational storms. Michigan can overcome the decline in school camping growth and surge ahead. Principals, teachers, and students are ready to put their 'heart and soul' into camping and willing to do so, if they can find the necessary backing.

CHAPTER V: FOOTNOTES

¹Staley, "Research, Evaluation and Measurement," p. 15.

²Ernest O. Melby, cited by George W. Donaldson, School Camping (New York: Association Press, 1952), p. 7.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

NUMBER OF SCHOOL GROUPS AND STUDENTS USING
MICHIGAN DNR OUTDOOR CENTERS
SEPTEMBER THROUGH JUNE
1974-1979

APPENDIX I.--Number of School Groups and Students Using Michigan DNR Outdoor Centers, September through June, 1974-1979.^a

Year	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	Total
<u>1974-1975</u>											
Groups	13	35	14	5	16	20	15	22	49	23	212
Campers	1247	2782	1096	340	1439	1406	1283	1994	4811	1274	17,672
<u>1975-1976</u>											
Groups	16	37	11	4	17	15	18	24	48	16	206
Campers	1332	2747	898	301	1327	1015	1333	2001	3590	980	15,524
<u>1976-1977</u>											
Groups	12	27	10	3	15	15	16	22	51	19	190
Campers	1082	1849	952	278	1383	1219	1106	1808	3874	1473	15,024
<u>1977-1978</u>											
Groups	14	33	9	4	11	14	11	20	45	14	175
Campers	1345	2534	735	190	875	928	776	1582	3368	906	13,239
<u>1978-1979</u>											
Groups	14	27	10	2	14	10	11	21	45	10	164
Campers	1161	2018	930	171	1264	694	984	1626	3351	624	12,823

^aIllustrates a 23 percent decline in group use over the 5-year period, 1974-1979.

APPENDIX II

NUMBER OF SEPARATE CAMP PROGRAMS AND PARTICIPANTS, 1975-1979

APPENDIX II.--Number of Separate Camp Programs and Participants,
1975-1979.^a

Year	Number of Separate Camp Programs	Number of Participants
1974-75	Data Not Available	Data Not Available
1975-76	532	31,524
1976-77	483	24,635
1977-78	444	24,414
1978-79	406	23,920

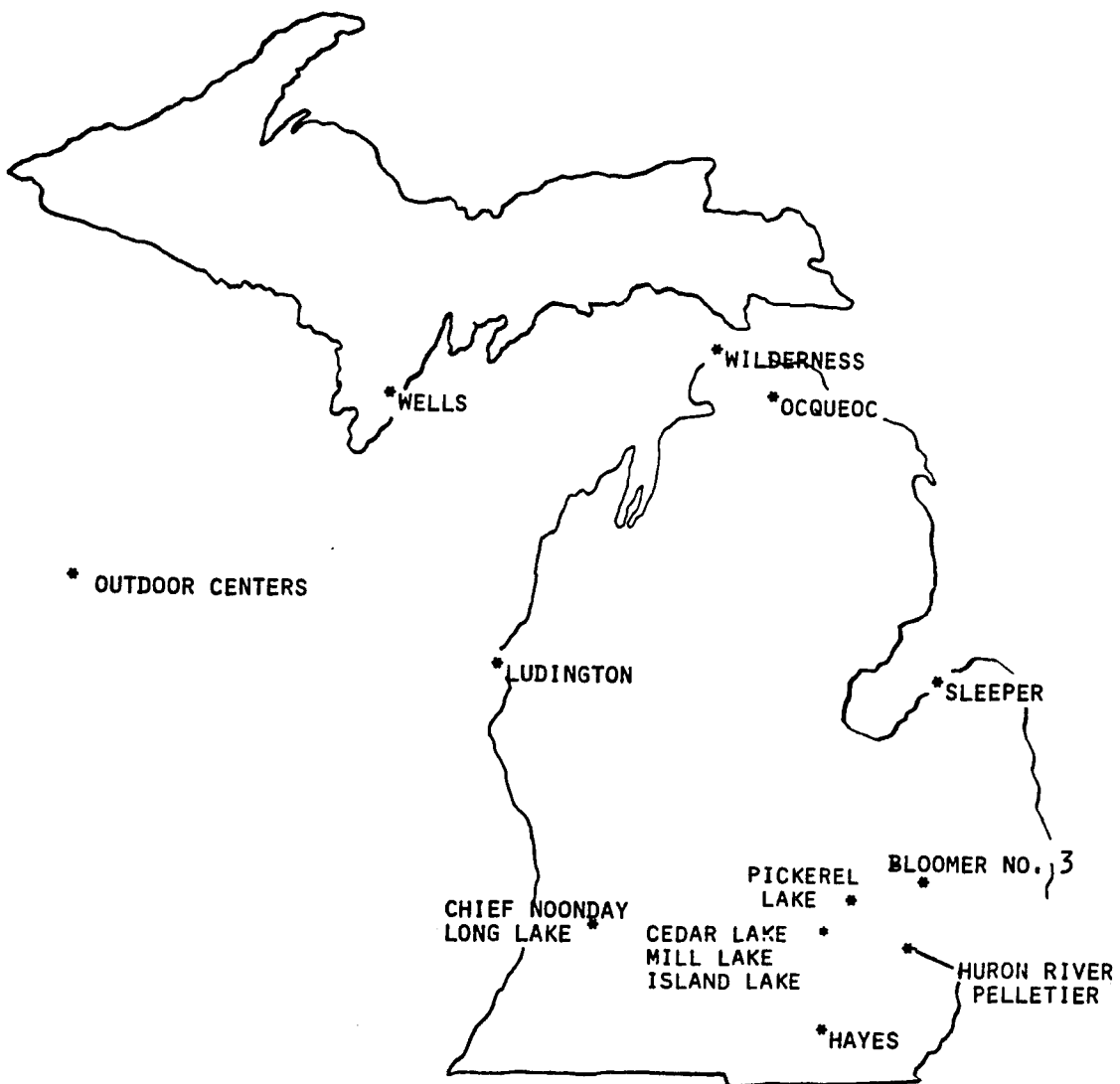
^aData collected by the Michigan Department of Education, General Education Services, Office of Pre-Primary and Family Education. Data illustrates a 24 percent decline in camp program use over the 4-year period, 1975-1979.

APPENDIX III

MICHIGAN OUTDOOR CENTERS

APPENDIX III

MICHIGAN OUTDOOR CENTERS



APPENDIX IV

MICHIGAN DEPARTMENT OF NATURAL RESOURCES

OUTDOOR CENTERS - CAPACITY

APPENDIX IV.--Michigan Department of Natural Resources Outdoor
Centers - Capacity.

Center	Maximum Capacity
1. Bloomer*	40
2. Cedar Lake	120
3. Chief Noonday	120
4. Hayes*	44
5. Island Lake	140 (closed in 1975)
6. Long Lake	120
7. Ludington*	72 (closed in 1978)
8. Mill Lake	140
9. Ocqueoc Lake	140
10. Pelletier	100 (closed in 1976)
11. Pickeral Lake*	26
12. Proud Lake	130
13. Sleeper	120
14. Wells*	82
15. Wilderness*	75

APPENDIX V

NUMBER OF CAMP PROGRAMS MEETING CRITERIA,
UTILIZING DNR OUTDOOR CENTERS WHICH
ACCOMMODATE 85 OR MORE CAMPERS

APPENDIX V.--Number of Camp Programs Meeting Criteria, Utilizing
DNR Outdoor Centers which Accommodate 85 or More
Campers.

	1974- 1975	1975- 1976	1976- 1977	1977- 1978	1978- 1979
September	9	14	10	15	13
October	30	25	18	28	19
November	12	10	10	6	10
December	3	3	3	3	2
January	14	14	15	11	14
February	16	10	12	12	9
March	12	14	12	10	11
April	20	17	16	16	17
May	28	31	29	29	30
June	13	9	11	9	5
Total	158	147	136	139	130
GRAND TOTAL:	710				

APPENDIX VI

DATA CARD

APPENDIX VI: DATA CARD

KEY:

1- 3 = number assigned
each school
building

4 = grade level

5 = distance from
camp, 50 miles

6 = urban, suburban
or rural
district

7,12
17,22
27 = checked if
camped that year

8- 9
13-14
18-19
23-24
28-29 = month Center
used

10-11
15-16
20-21
25-26
30-31 = DNR Outdoor
Center used

1-3	School I.D.	
4	Level	
5	> <	
6	U.S.R.	
7	74-75	
8-9	Month	
10-11	Camp	
12	75-76	
13-14	Month	
15-16	Camp	
17	76-77	
18-19	Month	
20-21	Camp	
22	77-78	
23-24	Month	
25-26	Camp	
27	78-79	
28-29	Month	
30-31	Camp	

SCHOOL:
CONTACT PERSON:
ADDRESS:

Data card system used to collect information on the 710 residential school camping programs using DNR Outdoor Centers between 1974 and 1979, September through June.

APPENDIX VII

**COVER LETTER FOR SURVEY INSTRUMENT
VALIDATION**

May 6, 1980

Dear

Over the past fourteen years I have been involved in conducting school camp operations in a number of Michigan school districts. The past five years this once steadily increasing movement has experienced an apparent decline. As you well know, many resources, both fiscal and personnel, are expended by a school district when conducting a resident camping program. I am conducting a study to identify some common factors found in those districts who continue their camping programs and similarly for those who have discontinued. This study will eventually be used to partially fulfill the requirements for a Ph.D. degree in Education from Michigan State University.

In order to research these factors, I have developed a questionnaire to administer to a selected number of school districts who are/have been involved in residential camping. This questionnaire concentrates upon the general areas of administration, evaluation, experience, finances, program planning, and operation. I recognize that there are other areas such as public relations, facilities, food services, health and safety and transportation, which might have some effect; but that I have not chosen due to the scope of my study, except within my thesis context.

The reason I am writing to you is that I need your input/opinions on my questionnaire. You are one of five people I am asking to assist me in making certain that the questions asked are appropriate to my intent and for the validation of my instrument. I would like to have you ask yourself, as you are reading through these questions, whether there are any glaring areas which I have inadvertently omitted. When one is so close to such a topic, there is a tendency to "fail to see the forest for the trees." Enclosed is a copy of my proposal which might illustrate in greater detail exactly what 'trees' I am looking at.

Inasmuch as I need to get this instrument out and back before the end of this school year, I would appreciate your prompt review of the questions. Please find enclosed a stamped, self-addressed envelope so as to further expedite this process.

I want to thank you for taking your time to help me with this process. I certainly "owe" you one and urge you to 'collect' whenever you so desire.

Yours truly,

Ronald Z. Bacon, Coordinator
Community Education

APPENDIX VIII

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

July 7, 1980

Dear

Over the past fourteen years I have been involved in conducting school camp operations in a number of Michigan school districts. The past five years this once steadily-increasing movement has experienced an apparent decline. As you well know, there are many resources, both fiscal and personnel, expended by a school district when conducting a resident camping program. I am conducting a study to look for some common factors found in those districts which continue their camping programs and similarly for those which have discontinued. This study will eventually be used to partially fulfill the requirements for a PhD degree in Education from Michigan State University.

According to Michigan Department of Natural Resources records, your district has been using one of their Outdoor Centers. Similarly, you are the contact person on record and thus this questionnaire is being sent to you. If, per chance, you are not the actual camp director/facilitator, I would greatly appreciate your passing this on to the appropriate person for I am only surveying forty (40) districts like yours and do indeed need responses from all forty.

Find enclosed a stamped, self-addressed envelope so as to expedite your completed questionnaire which I would like returned by August 10 as I need to have all the responses for this past school year. Your questionnaire is numbered solely for record keeping purpose. All information will be kept in the strictest confidence.

I recognize this is summer vacation time for many school people and really appreciate your taking the time to assist me with this task. Thanks again.

Very truly yours,

Ronald Z. Bacon, Coordinator
Community Education

RZB:mc

Enclosure

When making the decision on continuance of your school districts residential camping program, one has to address a number of important factors including evaluation, finance, staff, planning and operation, etc. Using the experience in your districts camp program, please rate the degree of importance of the items listed below when you make that judgement on the continuation/or termination of camping. Please mark (X) only one item for each sentence stem.

How important is it that:	Very Important	Important	Undecided	Little Importance	No Importance
1. Camp has a designated camp director.					
2. Board of Education openly supports the camp program.					
3. School community openly supports the camping program.					
4. Superintendent of Schools openly supports the camping program.					
5. Camp director is a school administrator.					
6. Camp program is openly supported by the building principal.					
7. Camp director is a classroom teacher.					
8. Building principal participates in the camp program.					
9. Administrative support is necessary to have a camping program.					
10. Students take active roles in planning the camp program.					
11. Building principal takes an active role in planning the camp program.					
12. Teaching (camp) staff takes an active role in planning the camp program.					
13. Community/parents take an active role in planning the camp program.					
14. A standard, system-wide camp curriculum is followed.					
15. Community/parents are utilized as counsellors for supervising students at camp.					
16. Community/parents are utilized as resource staff in the camp program.					
17. Teaching (camp) staff members conduct classes when at camp.					
18. The camping program is a regular part of the Board of Education approved curriculum.					
19. The building principal attends camp.					
20. The school district is responsible for the complete funding of all or part of the school camp expenses.					
21. Students are involved in fund raising projects to help defer camp costs.					
22. Financial considerations are a major factor in the continuation of your camp program.					
23. Teaching (camp) staff receive remuneration for their camp activities in addition to their basic salaries.					
24. Students/parents are responsible for financing the majority of their camp expenses (food & lodging).					
25. Resource personnel are readily available.					
26. Camping program is integrated into the everyday classroom curriculum.					
27. Camping teacher has had previous school camping experience.					
28. Student has had previous school camping experience.					
29. Student has had previous camping experience (family, scouts).					
30. Camping teacher has had formal (college/university) training in outdoor education.					
31. Camping teacher is a person oriented to the out-of-doors.					
32. Camping teacher has received in-service training in outdoor/environmental education.					
33. School district/school has an in-service program for teachers.					

34. Do you think it is important that the camping program is formally evaluated on a yearly basis? Yes___ No___ If so, who should be responsible for this evaluation?

___ Parents of participating student campers

___ Building principal

___ Independent reseachers

___ Camp staff (teachers, adult counsellors & resource staff)

___ Students who camped

___ Other, please list_____

35. What share of the total camp costs, per student, does your district cover, including transportation?

___ less than 20%

___ 20% to 40%

___ 40% to 60%

___ 60% to 80%

___ 80% to 100%

36. What is the average size of one of your school camp groups?

___ less than 50 students

___ 50 to 75 students

___ 75 to 100 students

___ 100 to 125 students

___ 125 or more students

37. What is your school building population (average if more than one building camps)?

___ less than 200 students

___ 200 to 300 students

___ 300 to 400 students

___ 400 to 500 students

___ 500 or more students

38. What grade(s) are participating in your camping program?

___ 4th Grade

___ 5th Grade

___ 6th Grade

___ 7th Grade

___ 8th Grade

___ Other or combination, please list_____

39. Please rank, 1 thru 5, who should be responsible for determining the program at camp.

___ Participating teachers

___ Camping students

___ Parents of camping students

___ Board of Education

___ Building principal

___ Other, please list_____

40. In general terms, what percent of your camping students would come from these categories of yearly family income?

___ % less than \$10,000/year

___ % \$10,000 to \$25,000/year

___ % \$25,000 to \$40,000/year

___ % \$40,000 or more per year

41. Please indicate what position you presently occupy.

___ Classroom teacher

___ Outdoor/environmental education director

___ Building principal

___ Other, please specify_____

42. In brief, what are the major reasons your camping program is/isn't continuing?

If you would like a copy of the summary of this data, please give me your current address below. Thank you.

NAME: _____

ADDRESS _____

#	Street	City	State	Zip
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APPENDIX IX

QUESTIONS ASSIGNED TO SCALES

APPENDIX IX

QUESTIONS ASSIGNED TO SCALES

(AS) ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT

2. Board of Education openly supports the camp program.
4. Superintendent of Schools openly supports the camping program.
6. Camp program is openly supported by the building principal.
8. Building principal participates in the camp program.
9. Administrative support is necessary to have a camping program.
11. Building principal takes an active role in planning the camp program.
19. The building principal attends camp.
20. The school district is responsible for the complete funding of all or part of the school camp expenses.
22. Financial considerations are a major factor in the continuation of your camp program.
33. School district/school has an in-service program for teachers.

(TI) TEACHER INVOLVEMENT

7. Camp director is a classroom teacher. (DELETED)
12. Teaching (camp) staff takes an active role in planning the camp program.
17. Teaching (camp) staff members conduct classes when at camp.
27. Camping teacher has had previous school camping experience.
30. Camping teacher has had formal (college/university) training in outdoor education.
31. Camping teacher is a person oriented to the out-of-doors.
32. Camping teacher has received in-service training in outdoor/environmental education.

(CI) COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

3. School community openly supports the camping program.
13. Community/parents take an active role in planning the camp program.
15. Community/parents are utilized as counsellors for supervising students at camp.

(CI) continued.

- 16. Community/parents are utilized as resource staff in the camp program.
- 25. Resource personnel are readily available. (DELETED)

(SI) STUDENT INVOLVEMENT

- 10. Students take active roles in planning the camp program.
- 24. Students/parents are responsible for financing the majority of their camp expenses (food and lodging). (DELETED)
- 28. Student has had previous school camping experience.
- 29. Student has had previous camping experience (family, scouts).

(C) CURRICULUM

- 14. A standard, system-wide camp curriculum is followed.
- 18. The camping program is a regular part of the Board of Education approved curriculum
- 26. Camping program is integrated into the everyday classroom curriculum. (DELETED)

(F) FINANCES

- 21. Students are involved in fund raising projects to help defer camp costs.
- 22. Financial considerations are a major factor in the continuation of your school camp program.
- 23. Teaching (camp) staff receive remuneration for their camp activities in addition to their basic salaries.
- 24. Students/parents are responsible for financing the majority of their camp expenses (food and lodging).

APPENDIX X

MEAN RESPONSE FOR VARIABLES
ACCORDING TO SCALES

APPENDIX X.--Mean Response for Variables according to Scales.

Likert Scale						Question Number	Question	Mean Response Individual Question	Mean Response For Scale
	No Importance	Little Importance	Undecided	Important	Very Important				
	5	4	3	2	1				
Finances						V21	Students involved fund raising	2.556	2.346
						V22	Finances factor continuation camp	2.204	
						V23	Teaching staff remuneration	3.185	
						V24	Students/parents finance major camp	1.981	
Curriculum						V14	Standard camp curriculum	2.833	2.611
						V18	Camp program part Board curriculum	1.815	
Student Involvement						V10	Students active planning program	2.037	3.141
						V28	Student previous school camp experience	4.537	
						V29	Student previous camp experience	4.593	
Community Involvement						V3	School community openly supports	1.296	2.349
						V13	Community/parents active planning	3.222	
						V15	Community/parents utilized counsellors	2.900	
						V16	Community/parents utilized resource staff	2.778	
Teacher Involvement						V12	Teacher (camp) staff active camp planning	1.185	2.581
						V17	Teacher (camp) staff conducts classes	1.167	
						V27	Camp teacher previous camp experience	2.963	
						V30	Camp teacher formal training outdoor education	3.537	
						V31	Camp teacher oriented out-of-doors	2.537	
						V32	Camp teacher received in-service	2.630	
Administrative Support						V2	Board openly supports	1.463	1.896
						V4	Superintendent openly supports	1.556	
						V6	Camp openly supported by principal	1.204	
						V8	Building principal participated at camp	2.185	
						V9	Administration support necessary	1.333	
						V11	Principal active planning program	2.352	
						V19	Building principal attends camp	2.407	
						V20	District responsible funding camp	3.278	
						V33	School district in-service	2.833	