

A COMPARISON OF SELF-ESTEEM/SELF-CONCEPT
IN GIFTED CHILDREN AND IN CHILDREN
NOT IDENTIFIED AS GIFTED

by

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ABSTRACT

Theory and research indicated that gifted children could experience problems with self-concept because of internal characteristics of giftedness and external pressures to achieve and to conform. This descriptive, correlational study investigated the self-concept of 61 gifted and 82 nongifted fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students by using the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (PHCSCS), the Self-Perception Profile (SPP), and a descriptive questionnaire. The purpose of the study was to determine if there was a difference in the level of self-concept between the two groups and to identify variables which were predictive of membership in each group. The research questions were: (a) Is there a difference in the overall self-concept of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students identified by the schools as gifted and fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students not identified as gifted? (b) Are there variables which are predictive of children who are classified as gifted versus nongifted? To answer the first question, a t-test was computed on the means of total self-concept and the self-esteem scores of both groups. On the PHCSCS, the gifted group's total self-concept mean was 62.70 and the nongifted group's mean was 57.68. The difference was

statistically significant at the 0.01 level. Both groups scored above the 50th percentile according to PHCSCS standardization data. On the SPP, the gifted group's mean was slightly higher, but the difference was not statistically significant. There were no statistically significant differences in the two groups' self-esteem scores. Stepwise discriminant analysis was used to analyze the second research question. The dependent variable was gifted versus nongifted. Variables which were predictive were: cognitive competence, mobility, socioeconomic status, age, behavior/conduct, and popularity. The gifted group members rated themselves higher on cognitive competence and popularity. They were from families of higher socioeconomic status and they moved more frequently than the nongifted group members. The nongifted group members rated themselves higher on social acceptance and behavior/conduct. Conclusions were that the gifted group had a higher self-concept, but that both groups had positive self-concept. Environmental conditions and educational programs were apparently conducive to positive self-concept development in both groups.

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each individual must meet certain basic needs before higher level needs can be met. He established a hierarchy of needs to show the relative importance of various types of needs. He determined that physiologic needs were of the first priority. Safety needs, love needs, self-esteem needs, and self-actualization needs followed in that ascending order (see Figure 1 on page 7). Self-actualization was defined as being all one could be, or using one's potential to the maximum. Self-actualizing people were described as healthy, fully human, and autonomous (Maslow, 1954, 1970).

In his theory of self-actualization, Maslow (1954) did not differentiate self-actualization in various ages, but in his subsequent discussion of it (Maslow, 1970), he defined full self-actualization as occurring only in older individuals who had, because of age, a larger wealth of experience from which to reach their potential. However, he did describe young people as able to have "good growth toward self-actualization" (Maslow, 1970, p. xx). He described individuals of varying ages as having their needs met in varying degrees. For instance, he said that an average person might have 85% of his physiological needs, 70% of his safety needs, 50% of his love needs, 40% of his esteem needs, and 10% of his self-actualization needs met. The lower needs were described as always having a larger proportion met than the next higher level. The amounts on each level would vary from individual to individual. The larger

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In the last 20 years, knowledge and understanding of the self-concept assumed interest to many researchers as the impact of the self-concept on every facet of life became clear. Researchers have investigated the origin of the self-concept, its stability, its effects on the individual, and its component parts. Self-concept has been defined as the basic perception of self. One of the component parts of the self-concept has been identified as self-esteem, or one's personal feeling of worth (Coopersmith, 1967; Fitts, Adams, Radford, Thompson, & Thomas, 1971; Wylie, 1979). Self-esteem and self-concept have been noted to be important to the use of potential (MacKinnon, 1962; Maslow, 1954, 1970) and to the development of emotional and mental health (Maslow, 1954, 1970). Many problems with measurements of the self-concept still exist because of the difficulty in objectively scoring and validating the self-concept (Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976; Wylie, 1979). Enough research has been done, however, to have useful baseline data for quantifying it.

All exceptional children may be at risk for developing a low self-concept, especially low self-esteem, since they

are different from their peers in some way. Exceptionality includes those children who are classified as gifted; gifted children are defined as children who have an increased potential to learn. Since these children pass through Piaget's stages of cognitive growth and Erikson's stages of psychosocial growth at a faster rate than children who are not gifted (Gowan & Bruch, 1971; Jacobs, 1971), they may think differently from their age peers (Gowan & Bruch, 1971; Shea, 1975) and they may be treated differently by parents, teachers, and peers (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1982; Ross, 1979). Because of their increased sensitivity to the actions and feelings of others (Clark, 1979; Gowan & Bruch, 1971; Silverman, 1983; Vail, 1979; Whitmore, 1980), their perfectionism (Clark, 1979; Silverman, 1983; Whitmore, 1980), and their different rate of cognitive and psychosocial development, they may think that something is wrong with them. These factors may cause them to develop a lowered self-concept, especially lowered self-esteem. The lowered self-concept may then contribute to problems with personal adjustment and mental and emotional health (Gowan & Bruch, 1971; Isaacs, 1971; Maslow, 1954, 1970; Whitmore, 1980).

From 2% to 5% of the population is presently identified as gifted (Beals & Simmons, 1980; Hallahan & Kauffman, 1982; Renzulli, 1982). To solve its problems and to increase assistance to persons who have other types of

special needs, society must have the help of highly functional intellects. These highly functional intellects would include not only high achievers who may not have an increased potential to learn, but also those persons who are identified as gifted. Providing assistance to gifted children to overcome some of the problems which are associated with giftedness will not only aid the gifted children themselves, but may also help society to overcome some of its problems as well.

Since the new morbidity has been described as adjustment problems, behavior problems, and adolescent difficulties (Nader, 1980), health professionals must not overlook the special needs of this segment of the population. It is important for all persons who work with gifted children or who are parents of gifted children to know if there is a need for intervention to help these children develop a higher self-concept. Since the self-concept may become set by the preadolescent years (Coopersmith, 1967; Fitts et al., 1971; Lynch, 1981, Wylie, 1979), the fourth, fifth, and sixth grade years are important years to validate whether intervention is needed.

Nurses who work directly with children and their families in various settings are in positions to assess and to intervene with self-concept problems. Therefore, knowledge about the self-concept of gifted children should be of interest and concern to them. Nurses' anticipatory

guidance concerning growth and development of gifted children can help parents resolve some of the problems caused by giftedness before poor emotional and mental health has occurred in children or in families.

Discussion with educators and close observation of gifted children for a three-year period led this investigator to suspect that the actual personal feeling of self-esteem in gifted children was lower than the feeling of self-esteem in children who were not classified as gifted. Empirical data were needed to clarify whether this observation was correct.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a difference in self-concept and self-esteem of gifted and non-gifted students. A second purpose was to identify selected variables which may correlate with self-concept in each group.

Theoretical Framework

Maslow's theory of self-actualization provided the theoretical base for the study. His theory described the importance of self-esteem to the use of potential and to the development and maintenance of emotional and mental health.

In establishing his theory, Maslow maintained that

the percentage of hierarchy needs which were met would move the individual further along to complete self-actualization.

Maslow spoke of esteem needs in terms which appeared to encompass the entire self-concept instead of the personal sense of worth as defined by Coopersmith (1967), Fitts et al., (1971), and Wylie (1974), and as used in this study. Since these two terms have been difficult to separate empirically (Shavelson et al., 1976) and since self-esteem is one variable of self-concept which is often used interchangeably with self-concept, that occurrence was not surprising. Since Maslow's theory was developed, other theorists and researchers have isolated components of the self-concept and have begun to clarify terms related to esteem.

Interferences which may prevent gifted children from attaining enough love and esteem needs to move on to self-actualization would be: (a) treatment by others, (b) external and internal pressure to achieve, (c) perfectionistic expectations of themselves and others, (d) hypersensitivity to interpersonal relationships, (e) increased rate of cognitive development and psychosocial development as compared to age peers, and (f) increased perception of the environment which brings them into contact with emotional pain at an earlier age as compared to age peers (see Figure 2 on page 8).

Interacting circles are appropriate for Maslow's hierarchy since the lower level of need must be more completely met than the one directly above it.

If self-actualization is not attained, maximum potential for good of self and mankind as well as maximum emotional and mental health cannot be achieved.

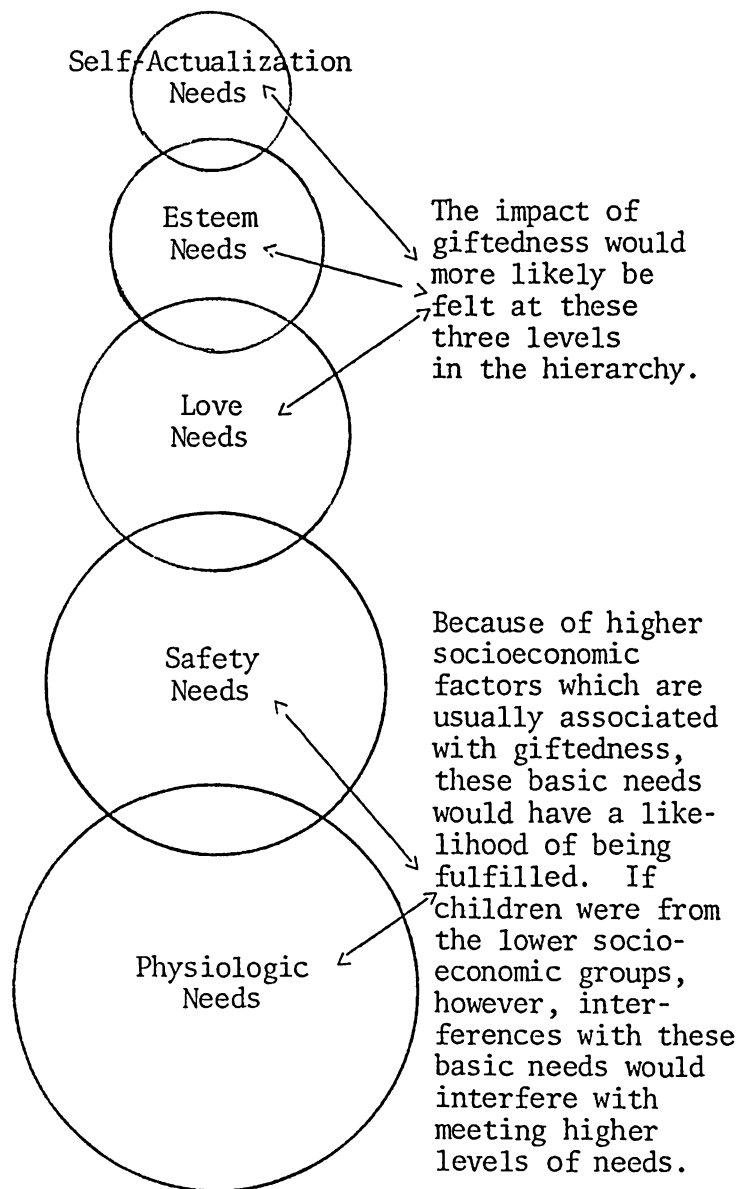


Figure 1. Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

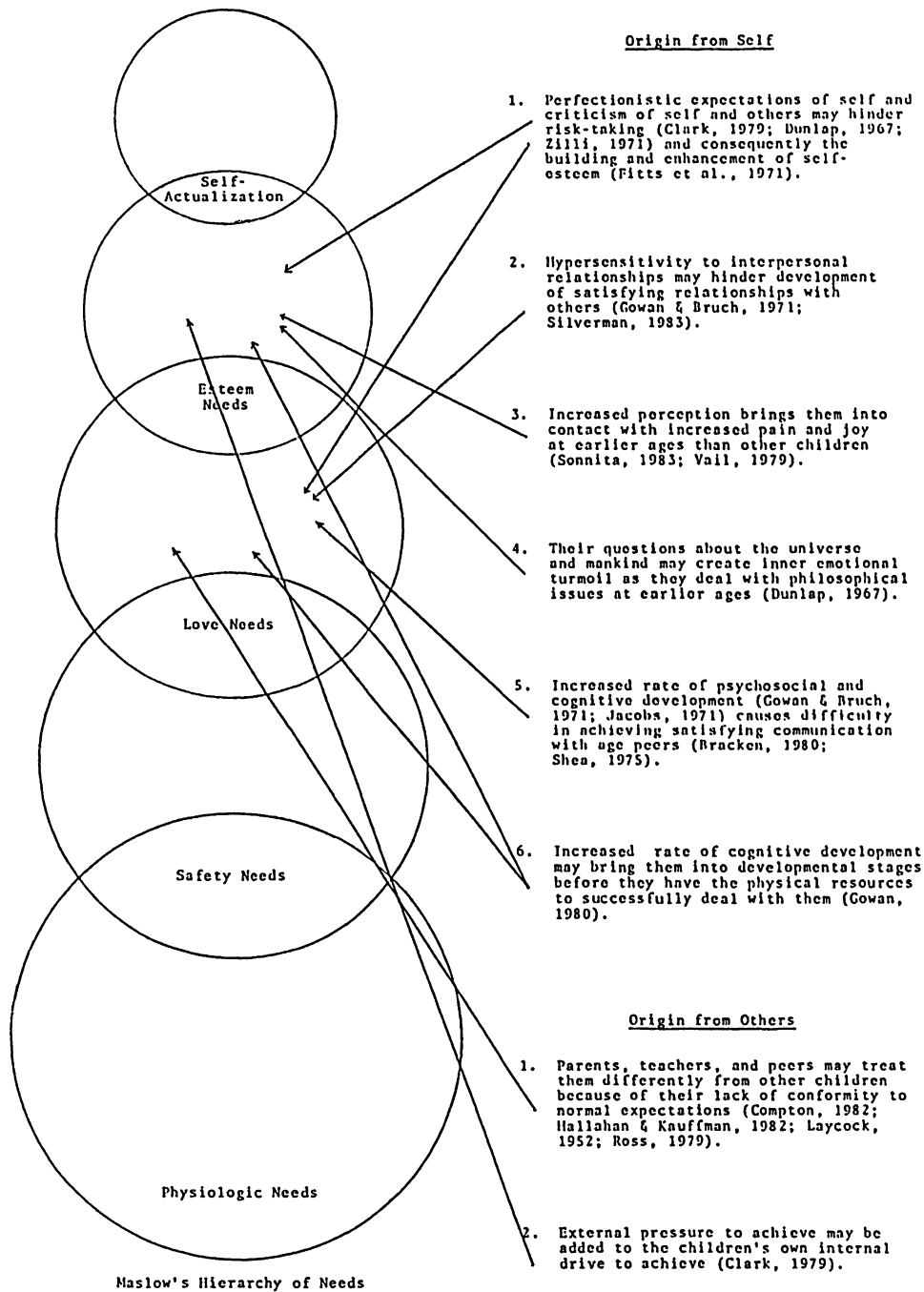


Figure 2. Possible interferences with love and esteem needs in gifted children.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

There are two major topics of importance for this literature review. Those topics are self-concept and giftedness. The self-esteem variable of the self-concept will be specifically identified with the self-concept literature since it is the primary variable of the self-concept which is of importance to this study. Factors which may impact on self-concept in gifted children will be reviewed.

Self-Concept and Self-Esteem Literature

For both research and theory the task of separating self-esteem from the self-concept has been a difficult one. In most literature and research the separation is not actually made. Terms for all variables related to the self-concept have been used differently and interchangeably by different theorists and researchers (Wylie, 1979). The problem has been that "the distinctions between self-description and self-evaluation have not been clarified either conceptually or empirically" (Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976, p. 414). Self-worth, self-evaluation, and self-regard are other terms that are sometimes used to relate to self-esteem.

Instruments which measure self-concept also measure self-esteem. There are problems with the construct validity of these self-concept inventories because of the difficulty of separating all variables of self-concept (Lynch, 1981; Marx & Winne, 1978; Shavelson et al., 1976).

Wylie (1979) discussed the disappointing results from the large number of self-concept studies done, but she noted that "the self-referent constructs are potentially very important to theoretical understanding and practical application" (p. 701). Gergen (1981) described self-concept studies as giving impetus to improvement of life for the aged, assisting with decreasing prejudice, and assisting with the problems of poverty, drug dependency, and suicide.

In research on the self-concept, Fitts et al. (1971) defined self as that which includes all an individual is physiologically, socially, and emotionally. They defined the overall self-concept as the individual perception of this totality. There were three principal subparts of the self described by them: (a) identity self, or self as object, (b) behavioral self, or self as doer, and (c) judging self, or self as observer and judge. The judging self provided material for the self-esteem portion of the self-concept as it viewed the identity self and the behavioral self.

Although clear distinctions between the self-esteem and total self-concept have not always been made, self-esteem

has been considered by several important theorists. James first wrote about possible influences on the self-esteem in 1890. Adler (1979) and Maslow (1954) gave self-esteem a major role in their theories. Adler's view was primarily concerned with how the self-esteem was affected by what he called organ inferiority, as when a disability was present, or by differences in size and strength between a child and an adult. Maslow (1954) stated that as the physiological, safety, and love needs were assured, the esteem needs became of prime importance. When self-esteem was achieved, self-actualization, or living up to one's potential, could occur.

Coopersmith (1967) differentiated the self-esteem from the total self-concept. He stated that self-esteem is a primary concern for most people. He hypothesized that the self-esteem may vary across different areas. An individual could see himself as worthy as a musician, moderately worthy as a student, and unworthy as a sportsman. The individual's overall appraisal of his self-esteem would be decided by his subjective ratings of the various areas. In his research with adolescents, however, he could not identify that various ratings of self-esteem existed.

According to Fitts et al. (1971), the self-esteem is strongly dependent on self-enhancement. Any revisions to the self-concept that bring risk of decreased self-esteem are threatening and they are resisted. As new learning occurs,

enhancement of the self-esteem takes place. As those skills are assimilated, they become irrelevant if they are not important to the present self-esteem; those past successes have contributed to the growing store of self-esteem, freeing it to move on to other areas and to obtain even more self-esteem. In the judging self, they described two ways of judging: (a) absolute, or I am good, and (b) relative/comparative, or Am I as good as I could be or want to be? If the conclusion is positive and absolute, self-esteem is enhanced; if the conclusion is relative and not as good as the individual wants, there is a decrease in self-esteem.

Some agreement existed on the developmental aspects of the total self-concept. Lynch (1981) stated that some self-concept rules are present at birth. Such attributes were listed as "equivalence, ordering, adaptation, transformation, efficiency, and abstraction" (p. 120). In infancy, differentiation from the environment occurs gradually and as differentiation develops, so does the self-concept (L'Ecuyer, 1981; Lynch, 1981; Shavelson et al., 1976). The most important addition to the child's capabilities for forming and adding to the self-concept is the acquisition of language (Lynch, 1981).

As the child separates himself from the environment, feedback may be either positive or negative. Self-evaluation of his self-concept at this early stage is a black and white process; reactions and actions are seen as either good or

bad (Lynch, 1981). The physical attributes are the most important parts of the self-concept at this stage. L'Ecuyer (1981) found that the self-concept of a normal three-year-old child was well-organized. Her studies showed that a three-year-old child could describe herself. Harter (1982) discovered that by age eight, a child could recognize various components of self-concept.

In middle childhood, perceptions must be enlarged to integrate new experiences as differentiation of the self-concept continues (L'Ecuyer, 1981; Lynch, 1981; Shavelson et al., 1976). The self-concept may be more flexible at this stage since the child relates more on logical, verbal, and abstract rules for validating his self-concept (Lynch, 1981). New categories and new contents for old categories of self-concept may appear at this time. There may also be changes in the importance of various categories (L'Ecuyer, 1981, Lynch, 1981).

Coopersmith (1967), Fitts et al. (1976), and Wylie (1979) concluded that the self-esteem portion of self-concept is constant by the preadolescent years. If change occurred, they theorized that it would be a brief change with it reverting to its previous level once a crisis had been conquered. Lynch (1981) suggested that the entire self-concept may be constant by the preadolescent years. Others have described changes in the self-concept during the adolescent years when there is again further

differentiation of self (L'Ecuyer, 1981; Shavelson et al., 1976; Volpe, 1981). McCarthy and Hoge (1982) and O'Malley and Bachman (1983) found an increase in self-esteem from adolescence to young adulthood. Kawash (1982), however, found little difference in the structure of self-esteem in the ages from preadolescence through the young adult period.

Fitts (1981) and Anderson (1981) described the question of whether or not the self-concept could be changed as a fundamental one. They found that the self-concept was very resistant to change once it was established. They noted that if the self-concept is dysfunctional, no one has discovered definitively how to change it. The importance of the stability of the self-concept and the difficulty in changing dysfunctional self-concepts can be better understood if one considers studies which connect low self-esteem and depression (Battle, 1980), low self-esteem and child abuse (Shorkey, 1980), and low self-esteem and anxiety (Kawash, 1982; Rosenberg, 1965).

In her extensive discussion of the subject of the self-concept, Wylie (1974) reported several studies done by various researchers which supported higher self-concept associated with the following: white as opposed to Negro status in school beginners, higher socioeconomic level, tangible enrichment of the home, oldest sibling status, higher grade level in school, higher rated social maturity, higher teachers' ratings of speech quality, lower test

anxiety, lower originality on Torrance Lines Test of Creativity, better study habits, greater popularity, younger as opposed to older adults, and higher scores on a body attitude scale.

Family variables' influence on self-esteem and the total self-concept in children have been investigated. Rosenberg (1965) found that social class was unrelated to self-esteem, but that the amount of paternal attention and concern was significantly related to it. Divorce and family separation were shown to be connected with lower self-esteem. Coopersmith (1967) discovered two main areas of parental treatment to be significant for higher levels of self-esteem in children: (a) parents were concerned and attentive toward the children; they showed respect for the children as individuals, and (b) parents showed respect for the children's rights and responsibilities. He also found high self-esteem in the mothers of the children with high self-esteem. Fathers were not directly tested, but the mothers reported a close relationship between fathers and children.

Tinelli (1981) determined that children with higher self-esteem scores perceived their families as closer to the ideal family than those children with lower self-esteem. She found, also, that communication patterns of the family were the critical factors in the perceptions. Greater adaptive coping by the family was also related to increased

self-esteem. Peterson, Southworth, and Peters (1983) examined self-esteem levels and maternal behavior in children from low income groups. Their results were similar to earlier studies with middle class samples--loving and demanding behavior by mothers showed positive relationships with positive self-esteem while punishing behavior showed a negative relationship.

Other factors have been shown to be related to self-esteem and self-concept levels. Norem-Hebeisen and Johnson (1981) documented less self-esteem in adolescents who preferred to work alone. Yarworth and Gauthier (1978) concluded that students with higher self-concept participated more in extracurricular activities. However, Winne and Walsh (1980) reanalyzed the same data and did not find a significant correlation. Riffie (1981) reported significant decreases in self-esteem in children hospitalized for surgical purposes and less significant decreases in self-esteem in children hospitalized for non-surgical purposes. However, Hong and Kim (1981) found no interference with self-concept for another group of hospitalized children.

Efforts have been made to correlate self-esteem and achievement. Piers (1977) documented a strong, positive relationship between self-esteem levels and responsibility for success, but no significant relationship between self-esteem levels and responsibility for failure. She also

found that the low self-esteem group attributed achievement less to their own abilities and that girls accepted more responsibility for negative events than boys. Maruyama, Rubin, and Kingsbury (1981) found that social class and ability were strongly related, that self-esteem and achievement were related to ability and socioeconomic status, that achievement was highly stable for several years, and that neither achievement nor self-esteem showed causal influence on the other. MacKinnon (1962) and Fitts et al. (1971) showed self-concept levels to be related to the amount of work success and to the use of potential. McFarlin and Blascovich (1981) determined that the level of success was expected on the basis of chronic levels of self-esteem even though all subjects preferred success to failure.

It is clear from the literature review that definitive answers for the levels of self-esteem and self-concept in children have not been found. Although self-esteem and self-concept are difficult terms to operationally define so that they can be measured definitively, many efforts have been made to determine their levels in children and to determine how those levels can be affected. It is also clear, however, that the terms are often used interchangeably. In many of the studies which have been reviewed, the same instruments have been used to measure both concepts; the total scores on the instruments rather than the cluster scores for the self-esteem portion of the self-concept have

been most often used to describe self-esteem. If self-esteem is a separate identifiable part of the self-concept (Harter, 1982), it should be specifically identified in research. Although many studies have been done on these concepts with mixed results (Wyllie, 1979), it, nonetheless, appeared from the literature review that this area of endeavor can be one of great importance to children.

Literature on Giftedness

Historical Perspective

Persons with special abilities have been present throughout history, but it was not until 1869, when Galton compiled a retrospective list of characteristics of eminent men of the 19th century, that empirical data were collected about giftedness (Clark, 1979; Ellis, 1926; Terman, 1925; Whitmore, 1980). In his book, Hereditary Genius, Galton supported the hypothesis, which was widely held at that time, that genius was inherited rather than influenced by environmental conditions (Clark, 1979). Prior to Galton's study there had been little interest in studying giftedness because of a general belief that high intelligence and mental illness were closely connected (Clark, 1979; Ellis, 1926). In western Europe and America, there was also a belief that differences in intellectual endowment should be viewed unfavorably (Burt, 1970; Pressey, 1955; Terman, 1925).

The first prospective, longitudinal, comprehensive study of giftedness was done by Terman (1925) in California. His study began by identifying gifted elementary-aged children who were recommended by their teachers. If they met the IQ requirements of 140, as measured by the Stanford-Binet test, they were included in his study. That study continues today, carried on since Terman's death by his co-workers. Although his study has been criticized for being non-random and biased in subject selection (Goertzel & Goertzel, 1964; Hughes & Converse, 1962; Sears, 1979; Terman, 1925; Whitmore, 1980), his study is still regarded as the most comprehensive research on giftedness. In addition, his study increased awareness of the positive qualities of giftedness.

Results of Terman's initial study (1925) found that his subjects had above average growth in mental and physical attributes and that they were well-adjusted socially. These findings dispelled the myth of the gifted misfit, but at the same time, they created a new myth. The new myth indicated that the gifted child was always physically and mentally able, that he was superior in all categories of development, and that he would succeed without special assistance (Whitmore, 1980). This new myth perpetuated the average of the gifted group without indicating that the IQ was not always a strong indicator of other qualities on an individual basis (Sears, 1979). This new myth was further enhanced by

Terman's final published work (Terman & Oden, 1959). That study found that his initial subjects remained above average physically, intellectually, scholastically, and vocationally 35 years later. They also had a lower mortality rate and their personal and emotional stability was approximately the same as the comparison population. It was not until the 1970s that dissenters to Terman's conclusions emerged to discuss problems of the gifted.

Interest in gifted children in the United States has peaked and waned according to national need. One peak of interest occurred after Sputnik was deployed by the Russians in 1957. Another peak occurred in the last half of the 1970s. Both peaks were caused by society's recognition of the need for more talent to help with national problems (Tannebaum, 1979; Whitmore, 1980). Deep neglect of gifted individuals' needs occurred between those two peaks as the nation struggled with the needs of the socially handicapped, the poorly motivated, and low functioning individuals in the push for equality for all citizens. During that time, the country was very uncomfortable with anything that even suggested elitism of any group (Tannebaum, 1975, 1979).

The thrust of research into giftedness has varied in the past two decades. In the 1960s, research focused on the individual more than on groups of gifted. During that time there was more attention to the individuality of ability in the gifted. In the 1970s, the impact of the self-concept

and developmental theories began to encompass the field of all exceptional children (Gowan, 1980), but even then, relatively few research studies were done with gifted children. The research which was done was less open-ended and more experimental. Much of that research had no common thread from which to draw valid conclusions. More scientific, longitudinal research has been needed (Whitmore, 1980).

Some theorists have expressed optimism about society's present attitude toward the gifted. Passow (1979) concluded that interest in the gifted child was at its highest level in history. Barbe and Renzulli (1975) stated that for the first time in history, parents are saying they hope to have a gifted child. Tannebaum (1975, 1979) theorized that society was beginning to understand the impact gifted individuals could make on national problems if they were helped with their own development and problems. However, other theorists' views have not been as optimistic. Although Whitmore (1980) agreed that society was beginning to understand societal benefits from gifted individuals, she contended that gifted children are still the most neglected group in society. Gallagher (1979) concluded that American society has not yet come to grips with its ambivalent feelings about giftedness and that these ambivalent feelings influence all public actions related to the gifted.

Definition and Prevalence

The definition of giftedness has changed with time. That change is one of the complex issues surrounding giftedness. Prior to Terman's development of an objective tool for measuring intelligence, gifted persons had been noted throughout history by their outstanding performance in some endeavor (Whitmore, 1980). With the development of the intelligence test, a normal range of intelligence was defined. Those persons at least two standard deviations above that normal range were considered gifted. Terman's definition of giftedness became standard for identification of gifted children. His definition of giftedness was 140 IQ, which he termed "genius" (Terman, 1925).

Although in the United States individual state definitions of giftedness have varied, the states have generally followed the lead of the federal government (Tannebaum, 1979). In the 1960s, the accepted definition was divided into four categories:

1. Academically talented--above 115 IQ--16% of the population;
2. Superior Intelligence --above 125 IQ--5% of the population;
3. Gifted Intelligence--above 140 IQ--0.6% of the population; and
4. Highly Gifted Intelligence--160 IQ and above--0.007% of the population (Gowan & Demos, 1964).

In the 1970s, the emphasis shifted from determining how

gifted a child was to determining how the child was gifted (Gowan & Bruch, 1971; Whitmore, 1980). A broader view of giftedness began to be accepted since it was more thoroughly understood that intelligence tests measured a very restricted range of performance (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1982). The guidelines for intelligence which were used in the 1960s were retained, but new dimensions of giftedness were added.

The shift to the view of individual differences within giftedness was caused, in part, by the attention focused on the creative nature of intelligence as separate from the academic nature of intelligence. In a historical study, Goertzel and Goertzel (1962) noted that children who had been bright in the classroom often became competent but unimaginative adults, while children who were less conforming in the classroom often became well-known and imaginative in later life. This study helped lay the foundation for differentiating between the academically gifted and the creatively gifted. In another exploration of creativity in 1962, Getzels and Jackson (1975) determined that creativity is the ability to produce new forms, to join usually independent or dissimilar items, or an aptitude for making new meanings which have social value. Since these values have not been tested well by the usual IQ tests (Getzels & Jackson, 1975), creativity and measurable intelligence have not always been correlated (Hewett, 1974; Smith, 1962).

Other researchers have added data about creativity.

MacKinnon (1962) found that creative architects revealed an openness to feelings and emotions, a sensitive intellect, and an understanding self-awareness. They were relatively free of conventional restraints and inhibitions; they were more willing to take risks. They were also open to experience and were intuitive about their experiences. Kantner (1982) discovered that creative children often used day-dreaming as a method of exploring their creativity. Torrance (1975, 1980) developed several tests to separate highly academic children from highly creative children.

Many studies do not try to differentiate between creative and academic ability. Furthermore, many gifted programs do not make a distinction in the two types of giftedness (Tannebaum, 1979). At least one researcher found no data in her study to differentiate between high academic ability and high creativity (Hitchfield, 1973). To further complicate the definition of giftedness, there are 50 intellectual factors which can be measured and another 70 distinct abilities which could be theoretically predicted (Guilford, 1975).

A general definition of giftedness was suggested by Hallahan and Kauffman (1982): ". . . giftedness includes the requirement that a person show at least the potential for making a remarkable and valued contribution to the human condition" (p. 379). The categories they included within that framework were: (a) high ability, (b) high creativity,

and (c) high task commitment.

The most recent federal definition of giftedness as shown in the Gifted and Talented Children's Act of 1978, PL 95-561, section 902, is shown below:

. . . Gifted and talented children means children and, when applicable, youth who are identified at the preschool, elementary, or secondary level as possessing demonstrated or potential abilities that give evidence of high performance capabilities in such areas as intellectual, creative, specific academic, or leadership ability, or in the performing arts, and who by reason thereof, require services or activities not ordinarily provided by the school. (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1982, p. 378)

The inability to measure leadership ability and to recognize potential abilities made this definition difficult for Gallagher (1979) to accept. Renzulli (1978) also had reservations about the definition because it implied that those abilities may occur separately. He asserted that abilities are usually present in clusters in gifted children.

In the general population, 2% to 5% (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1982) or 3% to 5% (Renzulli, 1982) have been found to be gifted. Prevalence figures have depended on the definition chosen. The United States Department of Education has not published a prevalence figure for the gifted, but about 15% of the general school population have scored above 115 and about 2% of them have scored above 130 on the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, Revised (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1982).

Families of Gifted Children

Since families have such a great influence on children's self-concept (Coopersmith, 1966; Fitts et al., 1971), circumstances and problems of families impact on the child. Ross (1972, 1979) noted that parents have experienced some problems because of children's giftedness. The problems occur because parents' expectations are based on the "normal" child (Nathan, 1979; Ross, 1979). Ross (1979) identified problems which parents may experience as:

(a) ambivalence about giftedness, (b) guilt about their inability to provide the child with adequate intellectual stimulation and educational opportunities, (c) guilt for giving more attention to the gifted child than to other children, (d) ambivalence about the child's decreased participation in the usual sports and social activities, (e) increased effort and cost requirements to provide for the educational needs of the child, (f) comparison of the child's ability with their own.

Parents may deny problems, wish for their children to be normal, and demand perfection of them (Compton, 1982). They may also ignore or disbelieve the unique characteristics and abilities of their gifted children (Zaffrann & Colangelo, 1979). One researcher declared that some parents even reject the child (Laycock, 1952). Parents may fail to seek help at the proper time because they think their

problems are less significant than those of parents with other types of exceptional children. Consequently, they may not seek help until the children are withdrawn, indifferent, or have emotional problems (Nathan, 1979; Ross, 1979; Vail, 1979). In their need to advocate for their children they face an additional problem; they must be careful not to appear arrogant or superior. Parents of gifted children face a "subtle peril of loneliness and isolation in child raising" (Vail, 1979, p. 52).

Since gifted children's sensitivities to feelings and circumstances surrounding them are increased (Clark, 1979; Gowan & Bruch, 1971; Sannita, 1983; Silverman, 1983; Vail, 1979; Whitmore, 1980), they may be aware of these problems within their families. Since they also have been noted to feel guilt readily (Silverman, 1983; Vail, 1979), their self-concept may be decreased when they perceive themselves as the cause of these problems. To assist their children through these feelings, parents must clarify their own attitudes about their children, increase their own nurturing talents, and become actively involved in their children's development (Passow, 1979). Gifted children's psychosocial adjustment is dependent, at least in part, on their parents' reactions to their abilities (Bridges, 1973; Nathan, 1979; Ross, 1979).

Research has been done to determine the characteristics of families of gifted children. More gifted children are

identified from families of higher socioeconomic classes (Barbe, 1975; Beals & Simmons, 1980; Gallagher & Crowder, 1957; Hallahan & Kauffman, 1982; Hitchfield, 1973; Pringle, 1970; Roe, 1975; Schaefer, 1970; Terman, 1925; Witty, 1930). It has been noted, however, that cultural bias in testing may play a part in identifying more children from these homes (Tidwell, 1980; Whitmore, 1980). Parents of gifted children have been found to be older when their children were born than the general population of parents (Ellis, 1926; Terman, 1925). The majority of the gifted children were first-born (Barbe, 1975; Roe, 1975; Terman, 1925). The educational level of the parents was higher than for the general population (Barbe, 1975; Gallagher & Crowder, 1957; Groth, 1975; Witty, 1930). The mothers had six times more masters and doctoral degrees than mothers of nongifted children (Groth, 1975). There were fewer housewives among the mothers in Groth's study (1975) than mothers who worked outside the home. However, Beals and Simmons (1980) and Hitchfield (1973) found that more mothers were housewives than not. Parental hobbies were most often of an academic or intellectually stimulating type (Witty, 1930). Parents of gifted children had a strong interest in the education of their children (Goertzel & Goertzel, 1962; Hitchfield, 1973; Terman, 1925; Walberg, Tsai, Weinstein, Gabriel, Rasher, Rosecrans, Roval, Ide, Trujillo, & Vukosavich, 1981), frequently started the children to preschool early, and

encouraged private lessons in the humanities (Terman, 1925). They also had greater contact with the children's school than those parents of nongifted children (Hitchfield, 1973; Terman, 1925). Walberg et al. (1981) discovered that in those families which did not encourage their children scholastically, many of the children had found a person outside the family who did so. Clear parental expectations were present in 70% of the families studied by Walberg et al. (1981) and most families had encouraged exploration of the environment within limits.

Characteristics and Problems of Gifted Children

One of the most studied aspects of giftedness has been the characteristics of gifted children. Gifted children have been found to be more able to generalize, to abstract, and to synthesize than the general population (Clark, 1979). They have also been described as having increased sensitivity, inquisitiveness, persistence, curiosity, ease of learning (Dunlap, 1967; Isaacs, 1971; Jacobs, 1971; Terman, 1925), perception (Sannita, 1973; Vail, 1979; Whitmore, 1980), and perfectionism (Clark, 1979; Jenkins-Friedman, & Anderson, 1983; Whitmore, 1980). They make logical association, identify relationships, and seek answers to questions about man and the universe earlier than other children (Dunlap, 1967). In addition, they have been described as possessing originality, an internal drive to achieve, self-confidence,

leadership skills, and the ability to cope with new situations (Hitchfield, 1973). The particular characteristics have been shown to vary from child to child, with some evidence that children with IQs over 130 found life more difficult (Hitchfield, 1973). Boys with IQs over 130 were found to have more feminine aspects to their personalities (Hitchfield, 1973; MacKinnon, 1962). Overall, ". . . the more gifted a person becomes, the more unique he may appear" (Clark, 1979, p. 20).

Differences in the creatively gifted child and the academically gifted child were noted. Creative children with high IQs were described as more willing to take risks than academically gifted children with similarly high IQs (Hewett, 1974). Creatively gifted children have been identified as less interested in grades and teachers' opinions. They also were identified as having broader interests and more humor (Anderson, 1961). Although high IQ and creativity have not always been correlated, they usually have been (Renzulli, 1978).

The identified characteristics of gifted children have been shown to cause some problems. The new myth created by Terman (1925) which indicated superiority of gifted children in all areas, has hindered the recognition of these problems. Some researchers and theorists have addressed those problems (Gowan & Bruch, 1971; Isaacs, 1971; Shea, 1979; Silverman, 1983; Whitmore, 1980). Problems of

restlessness, impatience with uninteresting work, and criticism of themselves and others have been noted by Dunlap (1967). Silverman (1983) listed the most frequent problems of gifted children as:

. . . confusion about the meaning of giftedness, feeling different, heightened sensitivity, idealism, feelings of inadequacy, relentless self-criticism, increased levels of inner conflict, deep concerns with morality and justice, lack of understanding from others, unrealistic expectations of others, and hostility of others toward their abilities.
(p. 1)

Zilli (1971) discovered that gifted underachievers were negative in their evaluation of others and that they often held a high degree of hostility toward others.

The problems caused by increased sensitivity and perception have often been described. The increased perception has been discussed as an asset in extrasensory experiments (Sannita, 1983), but a detriment when it leads to hypersensitivity in interpersonal relations (Gowan & Bruch, 1971). Since "enhanced perception means enhanced perception of both pain and joy and of the discrepancy between how you see yourself and how the world sees you" (Vail, 1979, p. 9), gifted children may face greater contact with emotional pain at an early age. Silverman (1983) viewed this sensitivity as creating much inner conflict for which the child needs guidance. However, she theorized that the sensitivity of the gifted child must be nurtured if the child was to gain emotional health.

The trait of perfectionism, sometimes referred to as "paralyzing perfectionism" (Jenkins-Friedman & Anderson, 1983, p. 2) has also caused problems. Gifted children were described as having high internal expectations. They dealt, therefore, with the frustration of seldom living up to their own expectations and standards (Gowan & Bruch, 1971; Vail, 1979). That frustration could interfere with both mental and emotional growth. They might limit endeavors into new areas of learning because of the risk of failure (Gowan & Bruch, 1971). Perfectionism could become compulsive to the point of expecting the high standards of others as well (Vail, 1979). This perfectionism was described as being especially detrimental if the child had not been identified as gifted and therefore had no acknowledged reason to be different (Clark, 1979; Whitmore, 1980).

Along with increased rates of physical growth and maturity (Ellis, 1926; Terman, 1925), gifted children have been found to advance through Piaget and Erikson's developmental stages more quickly than nongifted peers (Gowan & Bruch, 1971; Jacobs, 1971). Whereas nongifted children may enter Piaget's concrete operations stage and Erikson's industry stage at age eight, gifted children may enter them at age six. Likewise, nongifted children may enter the Piaget stage of formal operations and the Erikson stage of identity at age 12 while gifted children may enter them at age nine. These contrasts of developmental stages have been

described as contributing to differences in communication ability. For gifted children there may be no peer with whom to fully communicate (Pringle, 1970; Shea, 1975). Even if gifted children's communication does not alienate their age peers, gifted children still may not gain the sense of accomplishment or satisfaction of full communication. Consequently, self-concept may suffer.

Because of the differences in passing through developmental stages, satisfying friendships may be especially difficult for the gifted child to find. The problem may be worse for children with IQs over 150, but problems may exist for all gifted children (Bracken, 1980; Scouller, 1975). Torrance (1980) found isolation and estrangement from peers and teachers and divergent attitudes to be major problems for creatively gifted children. However, Gallagher and Crowder (1957) found that academically gifted children who were low in creativity were popular with their classmates. Hitchfield (1973) and Schiefelbusch (1958) identified gifted children as leaders of other children. Popularity and leadership have not been identified as synonymous with friendship, however.

Underachievement has been described as a major problem of gifted children. "At least half the children who are born with special capacities never develop into special adults" (Dickinson, 1970, p. 7). Strang and Noecker (1958) described most gifted children as underachievers even if

they were making good grades. They noted a 15% to 25% discrepancy rate in performance scale and aptitude scale for most gifted children. The gifted group of children was described as "the most severely underachieving population" (Gowan & Bruch, 1971, p. 45). Torrance (1971) related the gifted child's early search for identity to underachievement. He theorized that until gifted children have identified for themselves who they are and what their goals are, they may use only 1% to 5% of their potential. Beals and Simmons (1980) also noted that gifted children's search for identity impacted on achievement. French's study (1975) of high school dropouts showed 8% to 11% of them with IQs of 110 or above. Reasons of this group for leaving school were the strong pressure to conform, the emotional gap between themselves and their teachers, and the lack of preparation in school for the real world.

From Galton's era to the present, the quantity of mental and emotional problems in gifted individuals has been discussed. However, research to document those problems has not been located. Terman and Oden (1959) found the rates of suicide, mental illness, alcoholism, and homosexuality in gifted adults generally lower than in the general population. The exception was with women. In suicide, the rate was slightly higher at 0.7% for gifted women as compared to 0.6% in nongifted women. In mental illness, the rate was 3.4% and 3.0%, respectively. More women than men had general

adjustment problems and there were more adjustment problems for women of 170 IQ and over than for those women with IQs under 170. Grotberg (1975) discovered no higher set of controls to keep emotional illness from occurring in the gifted group than in the nongifted group.

Research into mental and emotional illness in gifted children has seldom been done. Gallagher and Crowder's study (1957) documented a social adjustment problem in 20% of the gifted subjects. In 49% of the gifted group they found minor adjustment problems which might be of enough magnitude to influence total adjustment ability. Burns (1949) found that a large proportion of children who were referred to his clinic for maladjustment problems had high intelligence. In a study of adolescent suicides in Britain and Wales, Shaffer (1974) found that high intelligence was one of the correlates of suicide. Isaacs (1971) noted that gifted individuals have been increasingly implicated in drug problems, mental problems, and suicides. She also theorized that gifted individuals make up a large number of wanderers who are seeking their identity. Pringle (1970) noted an increase in emotional difficulties for gifted children. However, Smith (1962) found no difference in adjustment of gifted and nongifted adolescents. Reynolds and Bradley (1983) reported lower anxiety scores for academically achieving gifted children than for nongifted children.

Other factors which have led to concerns about mental

health in gifted children have been that gifted children are described as being hypersensitive, possessing a sense of being different from others, and accepting guilt and blame readily (Clark, 1979; Gowan & Bruch, 1971; Sannita, 1983; Silverman, 1983; Vail, 1979; Whitmore, 1980). These same traits have been identified as factors in suicide (Shaw & Schelkeen, 1965) and depression (Mellencamp, 1981). The self-esteem variable of self-concept may be closely related to these types of adjustment and emotional problems since depression and low self-esteem have been correlated (Battle, 1980; Evans, 1982; Ling, Oftedal, & Weinber, 1970), as have low self-esteem and anxiety (Kawash, 1982; Rosenberg, 1965) and decreased self-esteem and suicide (Shaw & Schelkeen, 1965).

Further reasons for concern for mental health in gifted children have been their "vast emotional range which makes them appear contradictory" (Silverman, 1983, p. 1). They were described as having contradictory traits of maturity and immaturity, arrogance and compassion, aggression and timidity all within the same child (Silverman, 1983). Their increased progression through the developmental stages may also have created concern for mental health when they were compared to nongifted children. Barbe and Renzulli (1975) determined that gifted students often have more personal adjustments to make, but that they frequently make those adjustments because of increased intellectual capacity.

However, they also noted that when gifted children make these adjustments without guidance, they may be prevented from making academic achievements and from accomplishing self-actualization.

Gowan (1980) summarized problems for which gifted children may need guidance as: (a) an embarrassment of riches in making occupational and educational choices; (b) an awareness of developmental tasks before they have the physical resources to solve them; (c) a lack of appropriate role models; (d) a need for developing specialized interests; (e) a need to discriminate those situations which apply to normal students, to gifted students, and to them all alike; and (f) a need to learn to deal with self-evaluation and the concept of self at higher levels and at earlier ages. A counselor must deal with a more complex set of variables when dealing with gifted children than in any other situation (Rothney, 1979).

Self-Concept of Gifted Children

The problems of gifted families and the problems of gifted children, themselves, have caused researchers to question the level of self-concept of gifted children. Since the self-concept has been shown to influence the use of potential (Fitts et al., 1971; MacKinnon, 1962) and since the self-concept may become set by the preadolescent years (Coopersmith, 1967; Fitts et al., 1971; Wylie, 1979),

the self-concept level is an important factor to measure in all groups of children. Gifted children may actually need to maintain a higher level of self-concept than non-gifted children in order to deal with the adjustment problems which are caused by giftedness (Barbe & Renzulli, 1975). Gifted children ". . . have further to go to fulfill self-actualization needs" (Gowan & Bruch, 1971, p. 33). Results of research into the self-concept of gifted children have been inconsistent.

Research has sought to identify a relationship between self-concept and achievement of gifted children. Anastasiow (1964) discovered a significant relationship between the level of self-concept and reading achievement in gifted students, but he found no significant relationship between self-concept and math achievement. Dean (1976) explored the self-esteem variable of the self-concept to see if it influenced gifted children's ability to learn. His results showed that those gifted children with high self-esteem used a more highly sophisticated method of learning than gifted children with low self-esteem. However, the relationship with grade point average and self-concept was not significant. Bracken (1980) found no correlation between reading achievement and self-concept in either gifted or nongifted groups but he did find a more favorable attitude to learning in the gifted group. Savicky (1980) demonstrated that gifted girls' self-concept increased with achievement. In contrast,

Ziv, Rimon, and Doni (1977) discovered that gifted under-achievers had higher self-concept than gifted achievers; the opposite was true for children of average intelligence. Stopper (1979) found that sixth grade males and females had poorer academic self-concept than any other group of gifted or nongifted children, but her study did not show a close relationship in self-concept and achievement. Ketchum and Snyder (1977) found no relationship between reading achievement and self-concept.

Research has shown various levels of self-concept in gifted and nongifted children. Some studies demonstrated high self-concept in gifted children. Terman (1925) documented slightly higher self-concept in his gifted subjects than in the nongifted group. Gifted girls scored slightly higher on self-concept than gifted boys; whereas, in the nongifted group, boys and girls scored equally well. Karnes and Wherry's (1981) gifted subjects in the fourth through seventh grades scored significantly higher on self-concept than nongifted children. Differences in self-concept in various grades or between sexes were not demonstrated. Katz (1981) measured higher self-concept in gifted children in the cognitive, social, and general self-esteem components of self-concept. No differences in other components of self-concept were found. Maugh (1977) documented higher self-concept in an academically gifted group than in a nongifted group. However, she discovered less favorable

attitudes to school in the gifted group than in the nongifted group. Jenkins-Friedman, Bransky, Paulsen, and Sheeks (1983) recorded positive global and academic self-concepts in their fourth, fifth, and sixth grade gifted subjects.

Other researchers have identified lowered self-concept in gifted children. Hitchfield (1973) recorded negative self-concept in her open-ended study of gifted children. In answering a question pertaining to what kind of person they were, the gifted children either would not comment or they gave responses pertaining to others' evaluations of themselves. Wittek (1973) recorded similar responses. In his open-ended study, gifted students classified other students brighter and better than themselves. Seventh graders reported lower self-concept than fifth and sixth graders. Savicky (1980) reported negative self-concept for gifted boys and girls. Winne, Woodlands, and Wong (1982) showed weak evidence that gifted children had lower self-concept in the social and physical domains than nongifted children and children with learning disabilities. Overall, gifted students demonstrated lower self-concept on items that involved contact with others. Stopper (1979) measured lower self-concept in gifted and nongifted males than in gifted and nongifted females in second, fourth, and sixth grades. Males in the second grade gifted program had lower self-concept than any other group. In a study of adolescents,

Kaiser and Van Aalst (1982) discovered lower scores on self-regard and self-acceptance subscales than in a non-gifted group. They also discovered that the gifted children were more frequently introverted than their peers. Some gifted students were found to be mildly depressed.

Some research has shown the same self-concept levels for gifted children and nongifted children. Ketcham and Snyder (1977) documented similar self-concept levels in gifted and nongifted second through fourth graders, with the younger students in both groups scoring higher self-concept. Bracken (1980) recorded similar self-concept levels and peer relations in gifted and nongifted children. Coopersmith (1967) found little correlation between intelligence level and self-esteem.

Mixed results were recorded by other researchers. Milgram and Milgram (1976) indicated that gifted children in the fourth through sixth grades showed greater feelings of personal adequacy in the family context, were less guarded and defensive, and gave fewer indicators of psychological disturbances than the nongifted group. Nongifted students showed a more positive body image. However, in the seventh and eighth grades, the gifted group of students had a lower self-concept in all areas, reported a lower sense of personal worth and self-confidence, and had more neurotic symptoms. Ross and Parker (1980) documented a significantly higher academic self-concept than social

self-concept in gifted fifth through eighth grade gifted students.

Other variables have been demonstrated to be related to self-concept in gifted children. Rodgers (1980) showed that gifted children who attended a one-day-per-week gifted program in addition to normal classroom activities had lower self-concept than gifted children who attended only the regular classroom activities. Maugh (1977) discovered that teachers in the 31 to 40 year age range had a less positive attitude to academically talented students than teachers who were in the 20 to 30 and 41 to 50 year age range. Some evidence has been presented that gifted children have a self-concept which reflects the way in which parents, teachers, and peers view their giftedness (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1982; Pringle, 1970; Ross, 1972, 1979).

With such inconsistent results of research, the answer to the question of relative self-concept in various levels of intelligence has obviously not been found. But, because of the importance of self-concept in developing mental and emotional health and self-actualization (Maslow, 1954), identifying levels of self-concept in gifted children has continued to be important. Due to gifted children's "hypersensitivity to interpersonal relationships" (Gowan & Bruch, 1971, p. 37), and perfectionism (Jenkins-Friedman et al., 1983; Silverman, 1983; Vail, 1979), they have been identified as especially vulnerable to self-concept problems.

Research Questions

Is there a difference in the overall self-concept of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students identified by the schools as gifted, and fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students not identified as gifted?

Are there variables which are predictive of children who are classified as gifted versus nongifted? The variables considered were:

1. Sex
2. Age
3. Grade
4. Socioeconomic Status (SES)
5. Mobility
6. Behavior from the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (PHCSCS)
7. Intellectual and School Status from the PHCSCS
8. Physical Appearance and Attributes from the PHCSCS
9. Anxiety from the PHCSCS
10. Popularity from the PHCSCS
11. Happiness and Satisfaction from the PHCSCS
12. Cognitive Competence from the Self-Perception Profile (SPP)
13. Social Acceptance from the SPP
14. Athletic Competence from the SPP
15. Physical Appearance from the SPP

16. Behavior/Conduct from the SPP
17. General Self-Worth from the SPP.

Definition of Terms

Self-Concept: The basic perception of self. It is "organized, multifaceted, hierarchial, stable, developmental, evaluative, and differentiable" (Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976, p. 411). Self-esteem is one variable in the self-concept and is defined as the personal sense of worth.

Gifted Children: Children with an Intelligence Quotient (IQ) of 130 or above as measured by the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children--Revised (WISC-R) or the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale (SBIS) and academic achievement at the 95th percentile as measured by the group Stanford Achievement Test.

Assumptions

1. The components of self-concept could be measured.
2. Students answered their true personal self-perceptions, not that which they believed to be socially acceptable.
3. Gifted children have different experiences from nongifted children that may have affected their self-concept.

4. Family and school variables impacting on self-concept, other than those variables which relate to giftedness, were comparable for both groups of children.

Limitations

1. Self-concept and its components are very subjective variables; they depended primarily on self-report.
2. The method of inclusion in the gifted program was dependent on achievement. Use of the academically gifted criteria may have excluded those students with high IQs who may have had increased creative ability but who could not meet the criteria of academic achievement at the 95th percentile. Consequently, students who may have been at greater risk for a low self-concept were excluded from the study.
3. The study had no control over how each child would answer the question pertaining to the work of the father and mother. Therefore, socioeconomic status may not have been clearly identified.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Setting

The setting for this study was the public school system of a midwestern county with a population of 54, 789. Within the public school system there were rural areas, a midsized town, and a military post. The military post was one which consisted primarily of military officers and their families. The military officers were staff officers or officer students in an intermediate level military education course. Superintendents from all six districts in the county gave permission for gifted students to participate in the study if parental permissions were obtained (see Appendix A). Superintendents from four districts in the county gave permission for the participation of nongifted children if parental permissions were obtained (see Appendix A). Permission for inclusion of nongifted children was not obtained for the post schools; however, several military families lived in the town district for which permission was obtained (see Appendix A). The children from these families attended off-post schools.

Subjects

Subjects for this study were students in the gifted classes of grades four, five, and six of the special education cooperative which served all special education needs in the entire county. In the nongifted comparison group, two classes each of grades four, five, and six were randomly selected from all fourth, fifth, and sixth grade classes in the four districts from which permission had been received.

The children in the study were primarily white American. In the gifted group there was one black child and one child of foreign nationality. In the nongifted group there were nine black children and two children of foreign nationality. The remaining children were white Americans.

A total of 61 gifted and 82 nongifted children in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades completed the questionnaires for the study. That number included a total of 71 males and 72 females. The age range of these subjects ranged from 8 to 13 years (see Table 1 on page 48).

Table 1
 Selected Characteristics of Gifted and Nongifted
 Children in the Study
 $\underline{N} = 143$

Characteristic	<u>Gifted</u> $\underline{n} = 61$	<u>Nongifted</u> $\underline{n} = 82$	Total
<u>Sex</u>			
Male	34	37	71
Female	27	45	72
<u>Grade</u>			
4	15	22	37
5	27	30	57
6	19	30	49
<u>Age</u>			
8	1	0	1
9	9	11	20
10	25	22	47
11	22	27	49
12	4	19	23
13	0	3	3

Instruments

Since there is no way to measure self-concept, except by self-description or observation by others, and since there are problems with construct validity of instruments which measure the self-concept (Shavelson et al., 1976; Wylie, 1979), two instruments to measure self-concept were chosen for this study. The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale had greater recognition by health professionals and educators and a longer period of validity testing. The Self-Perception Profile had a lower correlation with social desirability and its questions made clear to children that any answer was right if they honestly answered how they felt about themselves.

Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (PHSCS) for grades three through 12 consisted of 80 simple sentences worded at the third grade reading level. "Yes" or "No" answers were used. Scoring was possible from 0 to 80 for each student. Total scores and subscale scores were identified. Six subscores were possible: (a) behavior, (b) intellectual and school status, (c) physical appearance and attributes, (d) anxiety, (e) popularity, and (f) happiness and satisfaction. Subscales were described as appropriate for research, but their use for individual

assessment was questioned (Shavelson et al., 1976; Wylie, 1974). Bentler (1972) and Wylie (1974) recommended the scale for use in research and for further development.

Kuder-Richardson reliabilities for internal consistency ranged from 0.78 to 0.93. Test-retest reliability at two- and four-month intervals for fifth grade students was 0.77 (Wylie, 1974). It had been correlated with similar instruments and it had teacher and peer validity coefficients of approximately 0.40 (Bentler, 1972). The scale had correlations of 0.25 to 0.45 with social desirability (Piers, 1969) and negative correlations of -0.54 to -0.69 with an anxiety measure (Bentler, 1972).

The time required for administration of the scale was approximately 20 minutes (Piers, 1969). The scale was purchased from Western Psychological Services (see Appendix B).

Self-Perception Profile for Children

The Self-Perception Profile for Children by Harter (1983) was a revision of the Perceived Competence Scale for children by Harter (1979). The subscales were:

(a) scholastic; (b) social acceptance, (c) athletic competence, (d) physical appearance, (e) behavior/conduct, and (f) general self-worth.

This new scale contained a total of 36 items with six items per subscale. It was designed for use in the

third to sixth grade. Answers were presented in a Likert-type scale with four choices. Only one answer of the four was to be marked. Children first decided whether they were like the child described on the right or left side of the question. Then, they decided how true that side of the statement was for them and marked one of two boxes on that side. This format was designed to show them that children are different and that it was all right to be either type of child described in the question.

Reliability for internal consistency for the original scale was 0.76, 0.78, 0.83, and 0.73 for cognitive competence, social acceptance, athletic competence, and general self-worth subscales, respectively. Test-retest reliability after three months was 0.78, 0.80, 0.87, and 0.70. After nine months the reliability was 0.78, 0.75, 0.80, and 0.69. Convergent validity with pupil and teacher ratings in the cognitive subscale was 0.40; in the social subscale it was 0.59; and in the physical subscale, 0.62. For construct validity, cognitive was correlated to preference for challenge at 0.57, cognitive to independent mastery at 0.54, and cognitive to curiosity at 0.33. Higher order factoring was correlated to the same items at 0.76, 0.87, 0.80, and 0.79. Correlation with the Children's Social Desirability Scale was 0.09 (Harter, 1982).

The new scale was tested on 748 sixth and seventh graders in groups of 20 to 30 students. Reliability

figures for the new scale for this group were: scholastic competence, 0.80; social acceptance, 0.80; athletic competence, 0.84; physical appearance, 0.81; conduct/behavior, 0.75; and self-worth, 0.84 (Harter, 1983).

Administration of this instrument took approximately 20 minutes. The manual was purchased from Harter. Permission for copying the instrument was received from the author (see Appendix B).

Descriptive Questionnaire

A descriptive questionnaire was designed by the investigator to identify age, grade, sex, mobility, and socioeconomic factors. This questionnaire was stapled to the instruments so that subjects did not need to identify themselves (see Appendix B).

To categorize socioeconomic status, an adapted format (Gifford, 1982) of a scale by Straus and Nelson (1968) was modified to include a category for military personnel. The modification was necessary because of the lack of information from the children to determine if parents were military officers or enlisted personnel. The modified scale grouped families into eight categories according to the major wage earner. High numbers referred to low socioeconomic status and low numbers referred to high socioeconomic status. To categorize mobility, a scale was developed to indicate high mobility as equal to one year

and under in the same town; medium mobility as equal to one year, one month to three years in the same town; and low mobility as equal to three years, one month or more in the same town (see Appendix C).

Data Collection Procedures

Parental permission forms and letters of explanation were sent to parents of the 78 students in the county who were identified by the public school system as gifted. Permission to include their children in the study was given by 64 of the parents, or 82%. However, due to school absences on the day of the investigator's visit, 61 students, or 78%, actually marked the questionnaires. The educational plan for these students included a special class from one to two and one-half hours per week. The remainder of the week was spend in regular classrooms. The questionnaires for this group of students were marked during this special education time period.

For the comparison group, two classes each of grades four, five, and six were randomly selected from all fourth, fifth, and sixth grade classes from the four districts whose superintendents had given permission for this part of the study (see Appendix A). Stratified random sampling by the lottery method was used to select this nongifted comparison group. All fourth, fifth, and sixth grade classes from all districts participating in the study were

listed alphabetically by school name and identified by a number. If there were two classes of a grade in the same school, the classes were alphabetized by the teachers' names. Two numbers for each grade were chosen. Those six classes were the comparison group. The number of students in those classes was 136.

Parental permission forms and letters of explanation were sent to the parents of all children who were in these randomly chosen comparison classrooms. Permissions for their children's inclusion were received from 98 of them, or 72%. Due to school absences on the day of the investigator's visit, 89 children (65%) actually marked the questionnaires. Seven children in this group incorrectly marked or omitted answers on the questionnaires. Therefore, 82 questionnaires from this group (60%) were included in the study (see Table 1 on page 48).

After children for the study were identified as described, participation permission letters were mailed to each child's home at least four weeks prior to the investigator's visit to the classrooms. An exception was permitted with 10 newly identified gifted students who were identified only two weeks prior to the scheduled visits; letters were mailed to these parents approximately one and one-half weeks prior to the visits. A stamped self-addressed envelope was included for return of the permission form. Letters of explanation of the study were included

with the form. The letter explained that a study was being conducted to determine if the self-concept of selected groups of children who received special education was different from children who did not receive special education. Results of the study were made available to each parent upon their request. That request was indicated by a check in the appropriate box on the permission form. If permission forms were not returned after two weeks, a reminder postcard was sent to the parents (see Appendix D). Of the total number of permissions obtained, 66% of them were received after the initial letters were mailed. Another 34% were received after the postcards were mailed.

On the days of administration of the questionnaires for the respective groups, the investigator went to the school rooms as scheduled with the teachers. She explained the study to the students and answered any of their questions. She told them that the study was being conducted to learn more about how children really feel about themselves. The investigator emphasized the importance of their honest answers concerning how they actually felt about themselves, not how they thought they should feel. They were assured that no one would know how they had answered the questions. To assure anonymity, both instruments and the descriptive questionnaire were stapled together so that no identification marks were needed. Both instruments were always placed before the descriptive

questionnaire. In an effort to remove any order effect of one questionnaire on another, the sequence of the two self-concept questionnaires was randomly alternated for class groups. The class groups were paired as closely as possible according to grade and to the number of students in the classes before the sequence order was randomly determined. The investigator read each of the questions on the questionnaires just prior to the students' marking of each question.

Statement of Risk

There was no anticipated risk to children who participated in this study. Complete anonymity was assured. Grades were not affected in any way by participation or nonparticipation. Preceding and following the testing, the investigator answered any questions that were verbalized or which appeared to be present, but un verbalized.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Purpose

The purpose of this descriptive, correlational survey was to determine if there was a difference in the self-concept and self-esteem of gifted and nongifted students. A secondary purpose was to identify selected variables which correlated with self-concept in each group.

Subjects

The subjects for the study were 61 gifted and 82 nongifted fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students from a mid-western county. The subjects came from a midsized town, rural areas, and military post. The subjects were primarily white Americans.

Analysis

Descriptive and analytic statistics were used in this study to analyze the data. Descriptive statistics for demographic factors and for Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (PHSCS) and the Self-Perception Profile (SPP) were computed. These statistics included the means and

standard deviations for the two groups. The means of the demographic factors showed that the gifted children had slightly higher mobility and higher socioeconomic status, while the nongifted children were slightly older than the gifted children. The instruments' subscales showed that the means for the gifted children were more positive on the PHCSCS in all subscales. On the Self-Perception Profile, the gifted children had higher means on the cognitive, behavior/conduct, and self-worth subscales. The social acceptance subscale showed nearly equal mean scores for the two groups. The nongifted group had higher means in the athletic competence and physical appearance subscales (see Tables 2 and 3 on pages 59 and 60, respectively).

Analytic statistics were used to answer the two research questions:

Research Question 1

Is there a difference in the overall self-concept of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students identified by the schools as gifted, and fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students not identified as gifted?

To answer this question, a two-tailed t-test was used for comparison of self-concept between gifted and nongifted children. The means of the groups were tested on the total score and on the self-esteem portion of each of the instruments (see Table 4 on page 61).

Table 2
Means and Standard Deviations of the Piers-Harris
Children's Self-Concept Scale

Characteristic	Gifted		Nongifted	
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD
Total Self-Concept	62.70	10.11	57.68	13.83
Behavior	12.48	2.54	11.70	2.74
Intellectual and School Status	14.49	2.48	12.35	3.90
Physical Appearance and Attributes	9.10	3.20	8.65	3.18
Anxiety ^a	10.80	2.87	9.51	3.55
Popularity	9.11	2.39	7.95	3.07
Happiness and Satisfaction (Self-Esteem)	8.56	1.98	8.15	2.37

^aHigher score indicates lower anxiety

Table 3
Means and Standard Deviations of the
Self-Perception Profile

Characteristics	Gifted		Nongifted	
	\bar{X}	<u>SD</u>	\bar{X}	<u>SD</u>
Total Self-Concept	110.41	14.69	106.80	18.63
Cognitive Competence	20.97	2.64	17.32	4.61
Social Acceptance	18.56	3.64	18.49	4.62
Athletic Competence	17.05	4.73	17.85	4.29
Physical Appearance	16.74	4.82	17.23	4.75
Behavior/Conduct	18.08	3.56	17.63	3.98
Self-Worth	19.08	3.81	18.48	4.36

Table 4
Means and Standard Deviations for Total Self-Concept
and Self-Esteem of the Piers-Harris Children's
Self-Concept Scale (PHCSCS) and the
Self-Perception Profile (SPP)

	Gifted	Nongifted	<u>t</u> -statistic
<u>PHCSCS</u>			
Total Self-Concept	62.70	57.68	2.51*
	SD 10.11	8.15	
Total Self-Esteem	8.56	8.15	1.10
	SD 1.98	2.37	
<u>SPP</u>			
Total Self-Concept	110.41	106.80	1.25
	SD 14.69	18.63	
Total Self-Esteem	19.08	18.48	0.87
	SD 3.81	4.36	

*Statistically significant at $p < .01$

On the PHCSCS, the self-esteem subscale was happiness and satisfaction. On the Self-Perception Profile (SPP), the self-esteem subscale was general self-worth. On the PHCSCS, the gifted group scored significantly higher than the nongifted group on total self-concept. The gifted group also had a lower standard deviation and, therefore, less variability in their scores than the nongifted group. The differences between the groups on the PHCSCS showed statistical significance at $p < 0.01$. The mean for the SPP was higher for the gifted group, but the difference was not statistically significant. The self-esteem means were slightly higher for the gifted group than for the nongifted group, but the differences were not statistically significant.

Research Question 2

Are there variables which are predictive of children who are classified as gifted versus nongifted?

Stepwise discriminant analysis was used to explore this second question so that the variables which were statistically significantly related to the two groups could be identified, taking into consideration the intercorrelations. The grouping variable was gifted versus nongifted education programs. Independent variables included demographic variables and scores from the instruments'

subscales which described the components of self-concept. The dependent variable, y , was gifted versus nongifted and the independent variables were:

- x_1 = sex
- x_2 = age
- x_3 = grade
- x_4 = socioeconomic status
- x_5 = mobility
- x_6 = behavior from the PHCSCS
- x_7 = intellectual and school status from the PHCSCS
- x_8 = physical appearance and attributes from the PHCSCS
- x_9 = anxiety from the PHCSCS
- x_{10} = popularity from the PHCSCS
- x_{11} = happiness and satisfaction from the PHCSCS
- x_{12} = cognitive competence from the SPP
- x_{13} = social acceptance from the SPP
- x_{14} = athletic competence from the SPP
- x_{15} = physical appearance from the SPP
- x_{16} = behavior/conduct from the SPP
- x_{17} = general self-worth from the SPP

The analysis selected seven of the 17 variables as statistically significant in discriminating between the two groups. In the order of predictive strength, they were: cognitive competence from the SPP, mobility, socioeconomic status, age, behavior/conduct from the SPP, social acceptance from the SPP, and popularity from the PHCSCS.

The analysis found that gifted children were higher in their self-perception on the items of cognitive competence and popularity. They were higher in the demographic variables of socioeconomic status and mobility. The nongifted population was higher in their self-perceptions of social acceptance and behavior/conduct. They were higher in the demographic variable of age. The classification functions produced by the analysis are shown in Table 5 (see page 65). F-values and p-values for the significant variables are shown in Table 6. Variables are listed according to the step number of their appearance in the analysis. The earlier their appearance into the analysis, the greater their association with the dependent variable, y .

Based on the significant variables identified by discriminant analysis, any child could be correctly classified as gifted or nongifted 81.1% of the time if his scores on the discriminating subscales of the two instruments were known and if the significant demographic variables were calculated using the same classification function as in Table 6 (see page 66). Table 7 shows the classification matrix for the two groups (see page 67).

Table 5
Classification Functions between the
Gifted and Nongifted Children^c

Instrument	Variable	Gifted	Nongifted	Interpretation
SPP	Cognitive Competence	0.668	0.288	Self-perceptions of cognitive competence are higher in gifted.
Descriptive	Mobility	2.739	3.553 ^a	Gifted children have lived in the same town for a shorter time.
Descriptive	SES	1.609	1.926 ^b	Gifted children come from families of higher SES
Descriptive	Age	11.606	12.270	Gifted children are younger.
SPP	Behavior/Conduct	0.858	1.007	Self-perceptions of positive behavior/conduct are lower in gifted children.
SPP	Social Acceptance	0.272	0.502	Self-perceptions of social acceptance are lower in gifted children.
PHCSCS	Popularity	0.120	-0.144	Self-perceptions of popularity are higher in gifted children.

^aHigher number refers to less mobility

^bHigher number refers to lower SES

^cExplanation:

To classify a new subject into one of the two groups:

1. Multiply each variable by the corresponding weights from Tables ; compute for both gifted and nongifted columns, separately.
2. Add the products of the variable values and weights in each group.
3. Add the constant to each calculation.
4. The higher of the two computations indicates the group to which the child is likely to belong (see Appendix E).
(Holderbaum, Ritz, Hassanein, & Goetzinger, 1979)

Table 6
F- and p-values for Discriminating Variables
 between Gifted and Nongifted Children

Instrument	Variable	<u>F</u> -value	<u>p</u> -value
SPP	Cognitive Competence	30.381	.0000002
Descriptive	Mobility	8.564	.004
Descriptive	SES	12.661	.0005
Descriptive	Age	8.356	.0045
SPP	Behavior/ Conduct	4.182	.043
SPP	Social Acceptance	8.399	.0044
PHCSCS	Popularity	5.193	.0242

Table 7
 Classification Matrix for the
 Two Groups

Group	Percent Correct	Number Classified	
		Gifted	Nongifted
Gifted	73.8	45	16
Nongifted	86.6	11	71
TOTAL	81.1	56	87

The percentages which each variable added toward the total percent of correct discrimination is shown in Table 8.

Table 8
 Percentage of Prediction Added by Significant Variables

Variable	Percent of Prediction
Cognitive Competence	63.6
Mobility	4.9
SES	2.1
Age	4.9
Behavior/Conduct	0.7
Social Acceptance	2.8
Popularity	2.1

Because two instruments were used to identify self-concept and its components in each child, correlation of the instruments for construct validity was computed. The PHCSCS correlated at 0.76970 ($\underline{p} < .0001$) with the Harter Self-Perception Profile and vice versa. The self-esteem component of the Self-Perception Scale correlated at 0.77791 ($\underline{p} < .0001$) with the total scale. The self-esteem component of the PHCSCS correlated with the total PHCSCS at 0.75386 ($\underline{p} < .0001$). The self-esteem component of one instrument correlated with the self-esteem component of the other instrument at 0.62833 ($\underline{p} < .0001$) (see Table 9).

Table 9
Correlation Matrix for the Piers-Harris Children's
Self-Concept Scale (PHCSCS) and the
Self-Perception Profile (SPP)

	Total PHCSCS	Total SPP	PHCSCS Self-Esteem	SPP Self-Esteem
Total PHCSCS	1.0000**	0.76970*	0.75386*	0.66497*
Total SPP	0.76970*	1.000**	0.60204*	0.77791*
PHCSCS Self Esteem	0.75386*	0.60204*	1.000**	0.62833*
SPP Self-Esteem	0.66497*	0.77791*	0.62833*	1.000**

* $\underline{p} < .0001$

** $\underline{p} < .0000$

Since the subscales of the two instruments appeared similar, with the exception of anxiety on the PHCSCS and athletic competence on the SPP, the correlation coefficients for the scales must be examined. The subscales from the PHCSCS are listed first followed by the Self-Perception Profile subscales. The correlation coefficient of:

- (a) behavior and behavior/conduct was 0.63, (b) intellectual/school status and cognitive competence was 0.71,
- (c) physical appearance/attributes and physical appearance was 0.52, (d) popularity and social acceptance was 0.71.

Of the remaining subscales, anxiety, from the PHCSCS, correlated most highly at 0.49 with cognitive competence from the SPP. Athletic competence from the SPP correlated most highly at 0.31 with physical appearance/attributes from the PHCSCS (see Appendix F).

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Theory and research indicated that gifted children might experience problems with self-concept because of the internal characteristics of giftedness and because of external pressures to achieve and to conform. This descriptive, correlational study investigated the self-concept of 61 gifted and 82 nongifted fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students. The purpose of the study was to determine if there was a difference in the level of self-concept between the two groups and to identify variables which correlated with the self-concept in both groups.

Two validated and reliable instruments were used to determine the level of self-concept for each group. The instruments were the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (PHCSCS) and the Self-Perception Profile (SPP). A descriptive questionnaire was used to gather demographic data.

Two research questions were investigated:

1. Is there a difference in the overall self-concept of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade

students identified by the schools as gifted and fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students not identified as gifted.

2. Are there variables which are predictive of children who are classified as gifted versus nongifted?

To analyze data for the first research question, a t-test was used to determine statistical significance between the means of the total self-concept scores from both instruments and between the means of the self-esteem subscale scores of each instrument. On the PHCSCS, gifted children scored higher in total self-concept than the nongifted children. The statistical significance was $p < .01$. On the SPP, the mean for the gifted group's total self-concept was higher than the mean for the nongifted group, but the difference was not statistically significant. There were no statistically significant differences in the self-esteem scores for the two groups.

Stepwise discriminant analysis was used to investigate the second research question. Seven of 17 variables were selected as the most discriminatory ones. They were: cognitive competence, mobility, socioeconomic status, age, behavior/conduct, social acceptance, and popularity. Gifted children's self-perceptions were higher on cognitive competence and popularity. They were higher in the demographic

variables of socioeconomic status and mobility. The nongifted group's self-perceptions were higher on social acceptance and behavior/conduct. They were also older than the gifted group.

Discussion

This investigation determined that the gifted children who took part in this study, on the average, had a statistically significant higher self-concept than their nongifted peers on the PHCSCS. They had a slightly higher mean on the SPP, but the difference was not statistically significant. The self-esteem means for gifted children on both instruments were also slightly higher for the gifted children, but there was no statistical significance.

To determine why a statistically significant difference in measurement between the two groups occurred on one instrument but not on the other, one must, perhaps, examine the instruments themselves. The gifted children who might have marked a positive answer on the PHCSCS may have chosen a slightly less positive answer on the SPP. The SPP gave a choice of degrees of positive and negative. Such a choice would perhaps have made a difference. Since the PHCSCS forced a "yes" or "no" answer, the need to make an absolute decision may have forced some artificial answers. However, Piers (1969) defended that type of scale as a more accurate description of self-concept. During the marking of

questionnaires for this study, several children commented that they needed a middle answer on the PHCSCS. Indeed, some of the PHCSCS questionnaires which had to be discarded were marked by a circle around both answers.

The fact that there was a statistically significant difference in PHCSCS total self-concept for gifted and nongifted children, yet there was no such statistical significance in the self-esteem portion of that scale, may support Harter's (1982, 1983) concept that children as well as adults make separate evaluations of themselves in various domains and that self-esteem may be a separate domain in itself. In that domain, children may decide that even though in other areas of their self-perception they see problem areas, they, nonetheless, view themselves as valuable and important people. That concept may be valuable to retain.

An important fact to note is that the mean score of the nongifted group in this study, 57.68, compared very favorably to the mean obtained by another study in a district of the same county where this investigation took place (Dorathy, 1982). When the PHCSCS was administered to children, at that time, a mean of 56.6 was obtained for all regular classroom children who were in the study.

The PHCSCS manual listed 46 to 60 as an average raw score for that scale (Piers, 1969). According to the standardization data for the PHCSCS, the total mean score

of 57.68 for the nongifted group on the PHCSCS would place that group in the 63rd percentile and the sixth stanine if the mean were rounded to a 58 raw score. By the same standardization, the score of 62.70 would place the gifted group in the 77th percentile and the 6th stanine if the mean were rounded to 63. By that standardization, both gifted and nongifted groups were above average in self-concept. Since Harter developed her instrument primarily for use as separate subscales within the scale, there were no similar standardization data available for the Self-Perception Profile.

In deciding whether the PHCSCS or the SPP is a more accurate depiction of the self-concept, one must remember that Piers (1969) stated that the PHCSCS depicted a more accurate rating for total self-concept than for the components of self-concept. During its development, only 42% of the variability of the total score could be attributed to the subscales within the instrument (Piers, 1969). On the question of whether Harter's instrument was accurate for total self-concept, one must remember that Harter developed her instrument to depict the components of self-concept more precisely than the total self-concept. She even questioned whether total self-concept should be measured at all (Harter, 1982, 1983). Therefore, one should perhaps use the PHCSCS as the most accurate reflection of total self-concept and Harter's instrument, the SPP, as the

most accurate reflection of the components of self-concept.

The finding of higher self-concept in gifted children replicated the results of studies by Terman (1925), Karnes and Wherry (1981), Katz (1981), Maugh (1977), and Jenkins-Friedman et al. (1983). However, other studies found lower self-concept in gifted children (Hitchfield, 1973; Wittek, 1973; Kaiser & Van Aalst, 1982). Perhaps the inconsistencies occurred because of the various types of programs and environmental conditions that were present and because of the different instruments which were used in the studies.

In this study, the majority of subjects in both groups were from two parent homes. The socioeconomic status of the majority of families appeared to be fairly high. The subjects were primarily white American and they attended neighborhood schools.

Since the higher mean for gifted children occurred even in light of several problem areas and adjustments which gifted children must make, one might draw several other conclusions about their milieu. Since the nongifted children are also above the average in self-concept, several of the same environmental factors may be at work for them as well.

Perhaps these gifted children were not treated differently from other children in the regular classroom. Teachers may have been adept in dealing with children on an individual basis, whatever the special needs were. Since

so many other special types of educational programs occurred within the school, perhaps the gifted children did not feel negatively singled out when they attended the gifted program during the week. Attending the special program may even have provided increased status in the regular classroom.

The special education program for gifted children may have assisted children to arrive at an understanding of giftedness and to cope with special problems which occur with giftedness. The special education program may also have provided an intellectual peer group through which the children could feel challenged, find friendship, and find a forum for satisfying communication. The special education program may have provided an extra amount of intellectual stimulation of the type that these children must have to find satisfaction with cognitive learning.

Family support for these children may also have been available to provide the family environment which they needed. Perhaps families were attuned to the needs of the family members so that they were aware of special needs. Perhaps, also, the special education program and its individual education plan for each child had alerted family members to possible problem areas for the gifted child. Teachers in the gifted program may have served as guides to parents when problems developed so that intervention could occur. Perhaps children from military families have

learned to make various kinds of adjustments which were necessitated by frequent moves. The increased intellectual potential of gifted children may have helped them make the necessary adjustments to maintain positive levels of self-concept (Barbe & Renzulli, 1975).

Observations of possible decreased self-concept and self-esteem which were made by this investigator prior to this study may not have taken into consideration nongifted children's true self-concept levels for comparison. Those observations were not random ones. Since theory and some research have shown that gifted children have reason to be susceptible to problems with self-concept, this investigator will continue to be alert to signs of problems with self-concept in individual gifted children. There is also the possibility that, since these children were academically gifted and the number of children who are creatively gifted within this same group is unknown, the children who were most at risk for reduced self-concept were not actually studied. Creatively gifted children do not always achieve academically (Hewett, 1974) at a level which would allow them to be included into the gifted program as it is established in this county.

Parental concerns about gifted children which are frequently voiced (Reynolds & Bradley, 1983) may indicate something besides self-concept concerns. Parents may sense the inner turbulence of emotional development. This inner

turbulence, for gifted children (Silverman, 1983), may not contribute to self-concept problems at all. Perhaps if emotional growth is occurring, regardless of whether a struggle is occurring or not, the self-concept is increased by the struggle, not decreased. It may also mean that the child is receiving needed and desired stimulation as the emotional growth is occurring.

Discriminant analysis identified seven variables which could be used as predictors of membership in the gifted or nongifted group. The primary discriminator was cognitive competence. That finding was not surprising since the subjects of this study were in an academically gifted program. It was encouraging to note that 55.7% of the gifted group had self-perceptions which supported their cognitive ability. It was also noteworthy that 27 of the gifted children did not perceive themselves as high in cognitive ability and that 25 of the nongifted group saw themselves at a cognitive level which would have placed them in the gifted group for that discriminator. It appears that some children who are creatively gifted may not see themselves as highly academically able, even though their achievement test scores determine otherwise. It is also important to note that some gifted children often question why they themselves are in the gifted program when others in their class who are not in the gifted program make better grades than they do. These children may account for at least part of the children who

do not place themselves in the gifted category by their cognitive self-perceptions. These children may be the ones who are struggling to understand what giftedness means for them. That struggle to understand giftedness is one of the problems which Silverman (1983) identified for gifted children.

The next strongest predictor variable was mobility. Gifted children had lived in their present location for a shorter time than their nongifted peers. In this study, the children from military families impacted on that variable. Even so, one must suppose that increased mobility had not necessarily interfered with development of positive self-concept. The amount of mobility which may be advantageous or a detriment for self-concept was not addressed by this study.

Socioeconomic status was the next strongest predictor of membership in the gifted group. The finding of increased socioeconomic status for gifted children replicated the results of other studies (Barbe, 1975; Beals & Simmons, 1980; Gallagher & Crowder, 1957; Hitchfield, 1973; Roe, 1975; Terman, 1925; Witty, 1930). This study, however, had a limitation related to socioeconomic status. Since the children gave the information, they had difficulty identifying the work of their parents. Therefore, clarity of grouping for socioeconomic status was not always possible.

The next strongest predictor of gifted status was age.

The gifted group was younger than their nongifted peers. This result is not surprising because it would be unlikely that a gifted child with increased academic ability would be retained in any grade in school. In fact, he may have been accelerated to a higher grade.

Behavior/Conduct from the Self-Perception Profile was the next highest predictor of group membership. That subscale asked the child to judge how well he did what he thought was expected of him. The nongifted group was rated higher in this part of the analysis. At first glance, that result appeared surprising, but it is possible that the creatively gifted made an impact in this variable. Since the creatively gifted are not so conforming as the academically gifted (Getzels & Jackson, 1975; Torrance, 1980), there may be enough creatively gifted in this gifted group to make a difference. However it is most interesting to note that on the means of that subscale, the gifted group scored 18.08 and the nongifted group scored 17.63. The difference in the two analyses occurred because the discriminate analysis takes intercorrelations between the variables into consideration whereas the computation of means does not.

The last two predictors in this analysis were social acceptance from the Self-Perception Profile and popularity from the Piers- Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, in that order. Since the concepts of popularity and social

acceptance appeared so similar in definition, a closer look at the subscales was needed. Nongifted children placed themselves higher in social acceptance than gifted children did, whereas gifted children placed themselves higher than nongifted children in popularity. Increased popularity in gifted children has been supported by other studies (Gallagher & Crowder, 1957; Hitchfield, 1973).

The popularity subscale from the PHCSCS and the social acceptance subscale from the SPP had a correlation of 0.71 in the correlation matrix pertaining to all variables for all children (see Appendix F). That correlation was significant, but obviously the remaining proportion of the correlation must have made a difference to the scoring of the subscales. It was helpful to examine specific questions which made up the subscales. Questions in the subscales appeared to be related to one another except for one question in the Self-Perception Profile which may have influenced the difference: "Some kids are always doing things with a lot of kids, but other kids usually do things by themselves." One of the characteristics of gifted children, identified early in the 20th century, is their ability and desire to work and to play by themselves (Terman, 1925; Witty, 1930). This question was designed so that positive self-concept was indicated by the first part of the question. If working independently is a characteristic of gifted children, then this question may have been the discriminator question for

the two subscales.

Conclusions

This study was appropriate to determine the self-concept level of the gifted children within this county. However, because of the inconsistencies in self-concept research with gifted children, future self-concept studies might be more worthwhile if another measure, such as an instrument to measure perception of family, were added to the child's self-concept scale. The additional measure would be an attempt to discover possible causes of various levels of self-concept in gifted and nongifted children.

Results of this study indicated that gifted children had statistically significant higher total self-concept than nongifted children. However, both groups scored above the standardization mean for the PHSCS. Therefore, both groups of children would appear to fit Maslow's description of "good growth toward self-actualization" (1970, p. xx).

Both gifted and nongifted children had apparently received enough appropriate support and assistance to develop positive self-concept levels. It is important to note, however, that within both groups there were individual children whose scores were low enough to cause concern for the individual child.

Gifted children came from higher socioeconomic circumstances and they were more mobile than their nongifted peers.

They were also younger.

The PHSCS and the SPP had a significant correlation coefficient. The coefficient would add to the construct validity of the instruments.

Limitations

The limitations for this study were:

1. Gifted children who were not achieving at a high enough rate to be in the special education program were excluded. Those children may have been more likely to have self-concept problems than gifted children who were achieving at a higher level.

2. This study did not attempt to measure other variables such as family conditions which impact significantly on self-concept levels.

3. This study was unable clearly to identify socioeconomic status of the family from the children's descriptions of the mother's and father's work. Another related limitation was the lack of identification of various levels of socioeconomic status within the military category. In actuality, there are many strata of socioeconomic status within military personnel.

4. The diverse backgrounds of the children may have been another limitation since a military post, town, and the rural settings may provide different environmental factors to impact on self-concept.

Implications for Nursing

The nurse has many roles. One of the important roles for the nurse is that of prevention of health problems. Within that role, the ability to meet the patient or consumer where he is and to understand the needs he may have is of great importance. Anticipatory guidance of families with gifted children is part of that role.

Since parenting and child-rearing practices have a great impact on the self-concept of children (Coopersmith, 1967; Fitts et al., 1971; Piers, 1969), nurses can have a significant influence on the self-concept of all children by influencing parental knowledge through anticipatory guidance (Brink, 1982). In the areas of emotional and mental health for parents and children alike, guidance from nurses may be a primary source of help for some parents who are struggling with the problems that may occur with gifted children. With an understanding of the valuable contribution parents make to their children's health, the nurse can acknowledge that contribution and support parental efforts to maintain health and a strong self-concept in all children. For families of gifted children, they can discuss the number of studies which show positive self-concept in gifted children.

The problems of the gifted child and his family are becoming increasingly recognized by child development

experts, health professionals, and educators. The nurse can be instrumental in bringing this information to parents so that they can seek help, if it is needed, without social stigma. The nurse must assist in the identification and solution of problems in the individual gifted child and his family. She/He must be an advocate for programs which build strong self-concept in every group of children.

Recommendations for Further Research

From the results of this study, further research would seem indicated in the following areas:

1. A longitudinal study with the same groups of children to determine if there are self-concept changes as they progress through school.
2. Replication of this study with creatively gifted children as subjects.
3. Replication of this study in another area of the country, with a different special education program, and with a larger number of students.
4. Measurement of family perception correlated with the level of self-concept.
5. Measurement of self-concept with IQ level within the giftedness definition and grade point average as variables.
6. Comparison between gifted children's self-concept and teacher or parent rating of the child's

self-concept.

7. Comparison of the parents' self-concept level with the children's self-concept level.
8. Longitudinal measurement to determine if there are correlations of self-concept level and future achievement.
9. Comparison of gifted and nongifted children in perception of factors which cause distress and stress.

REFERENCE LIST

REFERENCE LIST

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LETTERS OF PERMISSION FROM SCHOOL DISTRICTS

The Leavenworth Public Schools

Unified School District No. 453
624 Olive Street
LEAVENWORTH, KANSAS 66048
(913) 682-5932

October 3, 1983

Mrs. Carl W. Albright
1318 Militia Court
Leavenworth, KS 66048

Dear Mrs. Albright:

Your request for research has been approved.

I don't know if the control group issue will be a problem with the Leavenworth Schools, but I am sure it can be worked around on our part if it still meets the research requirements of your committee.

Let me know when you are ready to proceed so that I might provide any assistance.

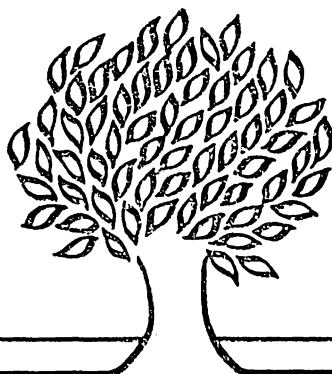
Sincerely,

Michael Slusher
Superintendent of Schools

bh

Attachment: Approved Research Request

Director's Office
624 Olive St.
Leavenworth, KS 66048
913-682-5932



102
Staff Office
Third Avenue & Marshall
Leavenworth, KS 66048
913-651-6466

Leavenworth County Special Education Cooperative

October 10, 1983

Mrs. Nancy Albright
1318 Militia Court
Leavenworth, Kansas 66048

Dear Nancy:

This letter is to follow up our recent discussion regarding your proposed research project concerning self concept of gifted students in relation to non-gifted students. I have reviewed this project with Dr. Slusher in terms of appropriate method of carrying out the research.

It is felt that the research is appropriate and has so been cleared by the Leavenworth school district in an earlier letter to you from Dr. Slusher. In order to effectively carry out the research and maintain confidentiality of students it is felt that all materials should be mailed from the Special Education Office to parents of gifted students. We will be happy to cooperate with you to facilitate this mailing in attempting to assure that all students are accounted for in terms of response. When you have materials ready, please feel free to contact me so that we can make final arrangements on how to get the materials out and how to get releases to you to facilitate the research you are planning.

Please feel free to contact me with draft materials for review prior to creating multiple copies. If you have any questions regarding proper format I will be more than happy to work with you in trying to assure the most effective means of securing the data you need.

Sincerely,

Gerald M. Carder, Director
Special Education

GMC/ps

Unified School Districts

Leavenworth

449 Easton

453 Leavenworth

458 Basehor

464 Tonganoxie

469 Lansing

UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT NO. 449

103

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EASTON, KANSAS 66020
TELEPHONE: (913) 773-5591

KAREN J. LOGAN, CLERK
CAROLE J. LAWRENCE, SECY./FOOD SVC.
GARY STAFFORD, TREASURER
JOY KROMER, CURRICULUM DIR.
SARAH MCMILLIN, FEDERAL PROGRAMS
FRANCIS SPEAR, MAINTENANCE DIR.

September 30, 1983

Nancy M. Albright, R.N.
1318 Militia Court
Leavenworth, KS 66048

Dear Nancy,

I have reviewed your "Research Proposal", A Comparison of Self Esteem/Self Concept in Gifted Children and in Children not Identified as Gifted, and find it to be quite intriguing.

Unified School District No. 449 would be quite happy to assist you in your further study of the subject. Please keep this office informed as to your progress and future plans.

It was nice to visit with you the other day.

Cordially,

Ronald L. Fagan
Superintendent of Schools

Unified School District 464

104

Tonganoxie, Kansas 66086

DR. STEPHEN G. MCCLURE, SUPERINTENDENT
913-845-2153

JAMES H. CONWAY, PRIN.
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
913-845-2290

MARVIN E. PINE, PRIN.
MIDDLE SCHOOL
913-845-2627

LEE A. SMITH, PRIN.
STEVEN L. MCILVAIN, ASST. PRIN.
HIGH SCHOOL
913-845-2654

November 30, 1983

Ms. Nancy Albright
1318 Militia Court
Leavenworth, Kansas 66048

Dear Ms. Albright:

This letter is your permission to work with Tonganoxie fourth, fifth, and sixth grade gifted students as part of the research for your dissertation.

It is understood that you will work with the facilitator of our IDEA program to set up a time schedule. It is also understood that you will secure the necessary parental permission before beginning your work with individual students.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Colene S. DeHoff,
Administrative Assistant

cc: Dr. McClure
Jim Conway, Grade School Principal
Marvin Pine, Middle School Principal
Donna Dietsch, IDEA

Unified School District No. 469

Charles I. Schneider, Superintendent

105

110 South Main
LANSING, KANSAS 66043
913-727-1100

BOARD OF EDUCATION

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CLERK

Kay Edmonds

ASSISTANT CLERK

Debby Carter

January 20, 1984

Bryan D. Spillers, Prin.
Delaware
Lansing Elementary

Lee M. Holstrom, Prin.
Sallie Zoll School
Lansing Intermediate

Wilbur G. Barnes, Prin.
Lansing High School

Ms. Nancy Albright
1318 Militia Ct.
Leavenworth, Kansas 66048

Dear Ms. Albright:

This letter will allow you permission for Lansing Elementary School to be included in your study of The Self-concept of Gifted Students Compared to Non-gifted Students. You may use grades four and five to randomly select students from the the non-gifted classes and use all students from the gifted classes of grades four, five and six.

We at Lansing Elementary School wish you success with your study and will help in any way possible. Please feel free to call on us at any time.

Sincerely yours,

Bryan D. Spillers, Principal
Lansing Elementary School

FORT LEAVENWORTH SCHOOL DISTRICT

U.S.D. NO. 207
FORT LEAVENWORTH, KANSAS 66027

CLYDE E. RANSOM, Superintendent

106

DAN E. SCHILLING
Business Manager

THOMAS J. DEVLIN
Assistant Superintendent
& Curriculum Director

16 January 1984

Mrs. Nancy Albright
1318 Militia Court
Leavenworth, Kansas 66048

Dear Mrs. Albright:

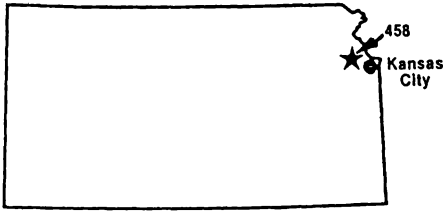
This letter is to notify you that you may test the fourth, fifth and six grade gifted students.

If I may be of further assistance please feel free to contact my office.

Sincerely,

Clyde E Ransom
Superintendent of Schools

CER/dj



Basehor-Linwood 107
Unified School District - 458

2008 N. 155th Street, P.O. Box 282
BASEHOR, KANSAS 66007
(913) 724-1396

Stephen Doerr
Superintendent

November 21, 1983

Ms. Nancy Albrect
1318 Militia Court
Leavenworth, KS 66048

Dear Ms. Albrect:

This letter is to confirm our telephone conversation of earlier today. I have reviewed your proposal and feel that there would be no problems in using our students in your research. When you are ready to begin your research with our students, please let me know and I will put you in contact with the appropriate building principals.

May I wish you the best of luck in your research.

Sincerely,

Stephen Doerr
Superintendent

SD/cp

APPENDIX B

INSTRUMENTS:

PIERS-HARRIS CHILDREN'S SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

SELF-PERCEPTION PROFILE

DESCRIPTIVE QUESTIONNAIRE

"THE WAY I FEEL ABOUT MYSELF"

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

Ellen V. Piers, Ph.D. and Dale B. Harris, Ph.D.

Published by

wps WESTERN PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES
Publishers and Distributors
12031 Wilshire Boulevard
Los Angeles, California 90025

Name: _____ Today's Date: _____

Age: _____ Sex (circle one): Girl Boy Grade: _____

School: _____ Teacher's Name (optional): _____

Directions: Here are a set of statements that tell how some people feel about themselves. Read each statement and decide whether or not it describes the way you feel about yourself. If it is *true or mostly true* for you, circle the word "yes" next to the statement. If it is *false or mostly false* for you, circle the word "no." Answer every question, even if some are hard to decide. Do not circle both "yes" and "no" for the same statement.

Remember that there are no right or wrong answers. Only you can tell us how you feel about yourself, so we hope you will mark the way you really feel inside.

TOTAL SCORE: Raw Score _____ Percentile _____ Stanine _____
CLUSTERS: I _____ II _____ III _____ IV _____ V _____ VI _____

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- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. My classmates make fun of meyes no | 21. I am good in my school workyes no |
| 2. I am a happy personyes no | 22. I do many bad thingsyes no |
| 3. It is hard for me to make friendsyes no | 23. I can draw wellyes no |
| 4. I am often sadyes no | 24. I am good in musicyes no |
| 5. I am smartyes no | 25. I behave badly at homeyes no |
| 6. I am shyyes no | 26. I am slow in finishing my school workyes no |
| 7. I get nervous when the teacher calls on meyes no | 27. I am an important member of my classyes no |
| 8. My looks bother meyes no | 28. I am nervousyes no |
| 9. When I grow up, I will be an important personyes no | 29. I have pretty eyesyes no |
| 10. I get worried when we have tests in schoolyes no | 30. I can give a good report in front of the classyes no |
| 11. I am unpopularyes no | 31. In school I am a dreameryes no |
| 12. I am well behaved in schoolyes no | 32. I pick on my brother(s) and sister(s)yes no |
| 13. It is usually my fault when something goes wrongyes no | 33. My friends like my ideasyes no |
| 14. I cause trouble to my familyyes no | 34. I often get into troubleyes no |
| 15. I am strongyes no | 35. I am obedient at homeyes no |
| 16. I have good ideasyes no | 36. I am luckyyes no |
| 17. I am an important member of my familyyes no | 37. I worry a lotyes no |
| 18. I usually want my own wayyes no | 38. My parents expect too much of meyes no |
| 19. I am good at making things with my handsyes no | 39. I like being the way I amyes no |
| 20. I give up easilyyes no | 40. I feel left out of thingsyes no |

- | | | | | | |
|---|-----|----|--|-----|----|
| 41. I have nice hair | yes | no | 61. When I try to make something, everything seems to go wrong | yes | no |
| 42. I often volunteer in school | yes | no | 62. I am picked on at home | yes | no |
| 43. I wish I were different | yes | no | 63. I am a leader in games and sports | yes | no |
| 44. I sleep well at night | yes | no | 64. I am clumsy | yes | no |
| 45. I hate school | yes | no | 65. In games and sports, I watch instead of play | yes | no |
| 46. I am among the last to be chosen for games | yes | no | 66. I forget what I learn | yes | no |
| 47. I am sick a lot | yes | no | 67. I am easy to get along with | yes | no |
| 48. I am often mean to other people | yes | no | 68. I lose my temper easily | yes | no |
| 49. My classmates in school think I have good ideas | yes | no | 69. I am popular with girls | yes | no |
| 50. I am unhappy | yes | no | 70. I am a good reader | yes | no |
| 51. I have many friends | yes | no | 71. I would rather work alone than with a group | yes | no |
| 52. I am cheerful | yes | no | 72. I like my brother (sister) | yes | no |
| 53. I am dumb about most things | yes | no | 73. I have a good figure | yes | no |
| 54. I am good-looking | yes | no | 74. I am often afraid | yes | no |
| 55. I have lots of pep | yes | no | 75. I am always dropping or breaking things | yes | no |
| 56. I get into a lot of fights | yes | no | 76. I can be trusted | yes | no |
| 57. I am popular with boys | yes | no | 77. I am different from other people | yes | no |
| 58. People pick on me | yes | no | 78. I think bad thoughts | yes | no |
| 59. My family is disappointed in me | yes | no | 79. I cry easily | yes | no |
| 60. I have a pleasant face | yes | no | 80. I am a good person | yes | no |

What I Am Like

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Name _____ Age _____ Birthday _____
Month Day Group _____

Boy or Girl (circle which)

SAMPLE SENTENCE

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me			Sort of True for me	Really True for me	
(a)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids would rather play outdoors in their spare time	BUT	Other kids would rather watch T.V.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids feel that they are very <i>good</i> at their school work	BUT	Other kids <i>worry</i> about whether they can do the school work assigned to them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids find it <i>hard</i> to make friends	BUT	For other kids it's pretty <i>easy</i> .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids do very <i>well</i> at all kinds of sports	BUT	Others <i>don't</i> feel that they are very good when it comes to sports.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are <i>happy</i> with the way they look	BUT	Other kids are <i>not</i> happy with the way they look.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids often do <i>not</i> like the way they <i>behave</i>	BUT	Other kids usually <i>like</i> the way they behave.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids often get <i>mad</i> at themselves	BUT	Other kids are pretty <i>pleased</i> with themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids feel like they are <i>just as smart</i> as as other kids their age	BUT	Other kids aren't so sure and <i>wonder</i> if they are as smart.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids have <i>alot</i> of friends	BUT	Other kids <i>don't</i> have very many friends.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me			Sort of True for me	Really True for me	
9.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids wish they could be alot better at sports	BUT	Other kids feel they are good enough at sports.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are <i>happy</i> with their height and weight	BUT	Other kids wish their height or weight were <i>different</i> .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids usually do the <i>right</i> thing	BUT	Other kids often <i>don't</i> do the right thing.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids <i>don't</i> like the way they are leading their life	BUT	Other kids <i>do</i> like the way they are leading their life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are pretty <i>slow</i> in finishing their school work	BUT	Other kids can do their school work <i>quickly</i> .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are kind of <i>hard</i> to like	BUT	Other kids are really <i>easy</i> to like.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids think they could do <i>well</i> at just about any new outdoor activity they haven't tried before	BUT	Other kids are afraid they might <i>not</i> do well at outdoor things they haven't ever tried.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids wish their body was <i>different</i>	BUT	Other kids <i>like</i> their body the way it is.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids usually <i>act</i> the way they know they are <i>supposed</i> to	BUT	Other kids often <i>don't</i> act the way they are supposed to.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are <i>happy</i> with themselves most of the time.	BUT	Other kids are often <i>not</i> happy with themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids often <i>forget</i> what they learn	BUT	Other kids can remember things <i>easily</i> .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are always doing things with <i>alot</i> of kids	BUT	Other kids usually do things <i>by themselves</i> .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Really True for me Sort of True for me

Sort of True for me Really True for me

114

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids feel that they are <i>better</i> than others their age at sports	BUT	Other kids <i>don't</i> feel they can play as well.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids wish their physical appearance was <i>different</i>	BUT	Other kids <i>like</i> their physical appearance the way it is.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids usually get in <i>trouble</i> because of things they do	BUT	Other kids usually <i>don't</i> do things that get them in trouble.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids <i>like</i> the kind of <i>person</i> they are	BUT	Other kids often wish they were someone else.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids do <i>very well</i> at their classwork	BUT	Other kids <i>don't</i> do very well at their classwork.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids wish that more kids liked them	BUT	Others feel that most kids <i>do</i> like them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	In games and sports some kids usually <i>watch</i> instead of play	BUT	Other kids usually <i>play</i> rather than just watch.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids wish something about their face or hair looked <i>different</i>	BUT	Other kids <i>like</i> their face and hair the way they are.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids do things they know they <i>shouldn't</i> do	BUT	Other kids <i>hardly ever</i> do things they know they shouldn't do.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are very <i>happy</i> being the way they are	BUT	Other kids wish they were <i>different</i> .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids have <i>trouble</i> figuring out the answers in school	BUT	Other kids almost <i>always</i> can figure out the answers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Some kids are <i>popular</i> with others their age	BUT	Other kids are <i>not</i> very popular.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Really True for me Sort of True for me

Sort of True for me Really True for me

115

- | | | | | | | | |
|-----|--------------------------|--------------------------|---|-----|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 33. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids <i>don't</i> do well at new outdoor games | BUT | Other kids are <i>good</i> at new games right away. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 34. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids think that they are attractive or good looking | BUT | Other kids think that they are <i>not</i> very attractive or good looking. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 35. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids are usually very <i>kind</i> to others | BUT | Other kids <i>wish</i> they would be <i>kinder</i> to others. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 36. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Some kids <i>aren't</i> very happy with the way they do a lot of things | BUT | Other kids think the way they do things is <i>fine</i> . | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

INSTRUMENT PERMISSION REQUEST

116

To: Nancy M. Albright
Name of Student and/or Faculty Advisor

From: Dr. Susan Harter
Name of author of instrument

RE: Use of the instrument: Self Perception Profile
Name of instrument

I hereby give my permission for you to copy and use the above named instrument for use in your study. This permission is valid only for the study named in your letter.

I would like to have the results of the study for use in further establishment of the reliability and validity of the instrument. The data sent to me would not be used for any other purpose than instrument development.

I do not give my permission for you to copy the above instrument as it is published and may be obtained at the following address:

You may use the instrument for your study but it must be purchased from me at the following cost:

You may not use my instrument for your study as it is not ready for release for research purposes at this time.

Signature of author

Nov 4, 1983
Date

Fact Sheet

Please answer these questions. Do not put your name on the paper.

1. What is your age? _____
2. What is your grade in school? _____
3. Are you a girl or a boy? _____
4. What kind of work does your father do?

5. What kind of work does your mother do?

6. How long have you lived in the town where you live now? _____

APPENDIX C

STRAUS AND NELSON (1968) SOCIOECONOMIC SCALES:

ORIGINAL SCALE

MODIFIED SCALE

Straus and Nelson (1968) Occupation Classifications

01 Higher executive, proprietor of large concern, major professional.

Doctor	Minister (considerable education)
Lawyer	Priest
Bank Vice-President	College Vice-Chancellor
CPA	College Professor
Dentist	

02 Business manager of a large concern, proprietor of medium-sized business, lesser professional.

R.N.	Architect
Pharmacist	Systems Analyst
Principal	Physical Therapist
Minister (medium education)	Tax Accountant
Engineer	FBI Agent
Editor	Trust Investment Analyst
Manufacturer's Rep.	Stock Broker
Med. Tech.	Psychologist
Occupational Therapist	Comptroller
Social Worker	Film Producer
Pilot	Disc Jockey

03 Administrative personnel, owner of small independent business, minor professional, farmer.

Teacher	Photographer
Supervisor	Community Organizer Specialist
Foreman	Account Representative
Policeman	Computer, Data Processing
Contractor	Sales Manager
Film Distributor	X-ray Technician
Interior Designer	Paralegal
News Reporter	Evangelist
Auditor	Construction Estimator
L.P.N.	Apartment Manager
Dental Hygienist	Embalmer, Funeral Director
Metallurgist	Commercial Artist
Musician	Graduate Teaching Assistant
Art Dealer	Optician
Job Developer	

- 04 Clerical or sales worker, technician, owner of little business, farmer.
- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| Insurance Salesman | Bookkeeper |
| Secretary | IBM Repairman |
| Receiving Clerk | Inventory Analyst |
| Sales Clerk | Detail Man |
| Medical Transcriber | |
- 05 Skilled manual employee, farmer.
- | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------|
| Beautician | Pipefitter |
| Printer | Swimming Pool Builder |
| Typesetter | Carpenter |
| Mechanic | Firefighter |
| Telephone Repairman | Photoplate Maker |
| Railroad Worker | |
- 06 Machine operator, semi-skilled employee, farmer.
- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------|
| Keypunch Operator | Window Cutter |
| Truck Driver | Cook |
| Typist | Splicer |
| Machinist | Mail Carrier |
| Meatcutter | Lock Box Teller |
| Sewing Machine Operator | |
- 07 Unskilled employee, farmer.
- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| Teacher's Aide | Highway Maintenance Man |
| Nurse's Aide | Waitress |
| Orderly | Janitor |
| Assembler | Cashier |
| Service Station Atten. | Maid |
| Bartender | Marker |
| Laborer, | Bus Driver |
| Warehouseman | Security Guard |
- 08 Homemaker
- 09 Person never worked in paid employment or not doing so now.
- 10 Student
- 11 Part-time housewife and part-time other occupation
- Avon Lady
- 12 Former Professional/Current Homemaker
- 13 No Response.

Modified Straus & Nelson (1968) Occupation Classification

01 Higher executive, proprietor of large concern, major professional.

Doctor	Minister (considerable education)
Lawyer	Priest
Bank Vice-President	College Vice-Chancellor
CPA	College Professor
Dentist	

02 Business manager of a large concern, proprietor of medium-sized business, lesser professional.

R.N.	Architect
Pharmacist	Systems Analyst
Principal	Physical Therapist
Minister (med. education)	Tax Accountant
Engineer	FBI Agent
Editor	Trust Investment Analyst
Manufacturer's Rep.	Stock Broker
Med. Tech.	Psychologist
Occupational Therapist	Comptroller
Social Worker	Film Producer
Pilot	Disc Jockey

03 Military

04 Administrative personnel, owner of small independent business, minor professional, farmer.

Teacher	Photographer
Supervisor	Community Organizer Specialist
Foreman	Account Representative
Policeman	Computer, Data Processing
Contractor	Sales Manager
Film Distributor	X-ray Technician
Interior Designer	Paralegal
News Reporter	Evangelist
Auditor	Construction Estimator
L.P.N.	Apartment Manager
Dental Hygienist	Embalmer, Funeral Director
Metallurgist	Commercial Artist
Musician	Graduate Teaching Assistant
Art Dealer	Optician
Job Developer	

- 05 Clerical or sales worker, technician, owner of little business, farmer.
- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| Insurance Salesman | Bookkeeper |
| Secretary | IBM Repairman |
| Receiving Clerk | Inventory Analyst |
| Sales Clerk | Detail Man |
| Medical Transcriber | |
- 06 Skilled manual employee, farmer.
- | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------|
| Beautician | Pipefitter |
| Printer | Swimming Pool Builder |
| Typesetter | Carpenter |
| Mechanic | Firefighter |
| Telephone Repairman | Photoplate Maker |
| Railroad Worker | |
- 07 Machine operator, semi-skilled employee, farmer.
- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------|
| Keypunch Operator | Window Cutter |
| Truck Driver | Cook |
| Typist | Splicer |
| Machinist | Mail Carrier |
| Meatcutter | Lock Box Teller |
| Sewing Machine Operator | |
- 08 Unskilled employee, farmer.
- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| Teacher's Aide | Highway Maintenance Man |
| Nurse's Aide | Waitress |
| Orderly | Janitor |
| Assembler | Cashier |
| Service Station Atten. | Maid |
| Bartender | Marker |
| Laborer, | Bus Driver |
| Warehouseman | Security Guard |
- 09 Homemaker
- 10 Person never worked in paid employment or not doing so now.
- 11 Student
- 12 Part-time housewife and part-time other occupation
- Avon Lady
- 13 Former Professional/Current Homemaker
- 14 No Response

APPENDIX D

EXPLANATION LETTER TO PARENTS,
PERMISSION FORM, AND
FOLLOW-UP POSTCARD

Letter to Parents

Dear Parents,

I am a graduate student at the University of Kansas School of Nursing. After realizing the importance of self concept (how one feels about himself) to life satisfaction and success, I have become interested in the self concept of children in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. I would like your permission to have your child take part in a study I am planning.

The study is designed to compare the self concept of selected groups of students who attend special education classes with students who do not attend special education classes. Children who participate would fill out two questionnaires which are not difficult to do, which may help them identify feelings they have about themselves, and which may also be fun.

No one will know what any particular child answers or scores on the questionnaires; the study will be completely anonymous. I hope to have your child's entire special education or regular class take part in the study so it can be a group activity. Filling out the questionnaire will take approximately 30 to 50 minutes of one day. The study has the approval of your school district.

I hope you will let your child take part in the study. If you would like to know the results of the study, please check the box on the permission sheet. If there are any questions about the study, please call me at 651-2492 in Leavenworth. If you are on a long distant line from Leavenworth, please call me collect. Please return the completed permission form to me as soon as possible. I appreciate your help very much.

Sincerely,

Nancy M. Albright, R.N.

Parent Permission Form

I, _____, give permission for my child,
(Parent's Name)

_____, to participate in the study of the self
(Child's Name)

concept which is to be done by Nancy Albright, R.N. I understand that no one will know my child's individual scores, and that the study will involve completing two questionnaires which will take 30 to 50 minutes.

Parent's Signature

Date of Signature

I would like to have the results of the study sent to me. (Please print your name and address below:)

Follow-up Postcard

I wonder if you have forgotten to mail the permission slip for your child to participate in my study. If so, could you please return it to me as soon as possible?

Thank you very much.

Nancy Albright

APPENDIX E

EXAMPLE OF COMPUTATION USING CLASSIFICATION
FUNCTION TABLE

EXAMPLE OF COMPUTATION USING CLASSIFICATION
FUNCTION TABLE

One child in this study had the following values
on the significant variables:

Cognitive Competence:	23
Mobility:	2
SES:	5
Age:	10
Behavior/Conduct:	17
Social Acceptance:	19
Popularity:	11

<u>Gifted</u>	<u>Nongifted</u>
.668 x 23 = 15.36	.288 x 23 = 6.62
2.739 x 3 = 8.22	3.553 x 3 = 10.66
1.609 x 5 = 8.05	1.926 x 5 = 9.60
11.606 x 10 = 116.06	12.270 x 10 = 122.70
.858 x 17 = 14.59	1.007 x 17 = 17.12
.272 x 19 = 5.17	.502 x 19 = 9.54
.120 x 11 = <u>1.32</u>	-.144 x 11 = <u>-1.58</u>
TOTAL = 170.48	TOTAL = 174.66
+Constant <u>-84.62</u>	+Constant <u>-92.20</u>
= 84.15	= 82.46

Conclusion: This child is likely to belong to the
gifted group.

APPENDIX F

CORRELATION MATRIX OF BOTH GROUPS
FOR ALL VARIABLES

Correlation Matrix of Both Groups for All Variables

	Student	Sex	Age	Grade	SES	Ability	Behavior	Intelligence	Phys. Attri.	Anxiety	Popularity	Happiness	Cogni. Comp.	Social Comp.	Athletic Comp.	Appearance	Behavior/Conduct	Self-Worth	TOTAL HSCS	TOTAL SPP	
Student	1.00*	.07 .42	.57 .00	.62 .00	-.24 .00	-.03 .75	.01 .96	-.14 .10	-.02 .80	-.08 .37	-.03 .74	-.07 .42	-.13 .03	-.03 .70	-.11 .13	.03 .71	-.09 .29	.07 .39	-.07 .42	-.12 .14	
Sex		1.00*	.05 .59	.02 .34	.01 .90	.03 .35	.26 .00	.02 .78	.00 .98	.11 .13	.02 .31	.02 .31	.04 .01	.02 .95	-.39 .00	.14 .10	.24 .30	.04 .63	.05 .33	-.08 .32	
Age			1.00*	.76 .00	-.15 .07	.04 .67	.01 .93	-.17 .05	-.04 .66	-.06 .48	.01 .92	-.10 .26	.09 .30	.03 .33	.02 .34	-.08 .32	-.05 .35	.05 .56	-.06 .50	-.02 .31	
Grade				1.00*	-.30 .00	-.06 .49	.07 .43	-.02 .85	.04 .61	.00 .99	.13 .11	-.02 .35	.02 .81	.17 .04	-.06 .48	-.13 .13	-.06 .30	.06 .31	.05 .36	-.03 .97	
SES					1.00*	.22 .01	-.10 .23	-.12 .16	-.07 .43	.02 .33	-.10 .26	-.00 .99	.02 .81	.17 .04	-.06 .18	-.13 .13	-.06 .30	.06 .51	.03 .36	-.00 .97	
Ability						1.00*	.07 .40	-.09 .30	-.00 .98	-.10 .23	.04 .67	-.03 .73	.10 .25	.08 .36	.00 .99	-.05 .52	.01 .91	-.06 .50	-.02 .77	-.03 .59	
Behavior							1.00*	.60 .00	.38 .00	.32 .00	.34 .00	.50 .00	.50 .00	.26 .00	.03 .74	.25 .00	.63 .90	.17 .00	.70 .00	.52 .00	
Intellectual and School Status								1.00*	.56 .00	.59 .00	.54 .00	.50 .00	.71 .00	.42 .00	.14 .10	.18 .91	.43 .00	.44 .60	.82 .00	.57 .00	
Physical Attributes									1.00*	.59 .00	.69 .00	.60 .00	.38 .00	.56 .00	.31 .00	.52 .00	.33 .00	.49 .00	.90 .00	.65 .00	
Anxiety										1.00*	.65 .00	.73 .00	.49 .00	.14 .00	.25 .00	.52 .00	.29 .00	.65 .90	.31 .00	.66 .00	
Popularity											1.00*	.50 .00	.42 .00	.71 .00	.24 .00	.32 .00	.19 .02	.42 .00	.76 .00	.57 .00	
Happiness and Satisfaction												1.00*	.54 .00	.38 .00	.16 .06	.57 .00	.30 .90	.63 .00	.75 .00	.60 .00	
Cognitive Competence													1.00*	.42 .00	.12 .14	.17 .04	.51 .00	.41 .00	.61 .00	.64 .00	
Social Competence														1.00*	.54 .00	.29 .00	.33 .00	.46 .00	.60 .00	.70 .00	
Athletic Competence															1.00*	.33 .00	.10 .25	.25 .90	.23 .00	.55 .00	
Appearance																1.00	.25 .00	.55 .00	.45 .00	.67 .00	
Behavior/Conduct																	1.00	.17 .00	.50 .00	.65 .00	
Self-Worth																		1.00	.67 .00	.73 .00	
TOTAL HSCS																			1.00*	.77 .00	
TOTAL SPP																					1.00*

p < .00