

INFORMATION TO USERS

This was produced from a copy of a document sent to us for microfilming. While the most advanced technological means to photograph and reproduce this document have been used, the quality is heavily dependent upon the quality of the material submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help you understand markings or notations which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting through an image and duplicating adjacent pages to assure you of complete continuity.
2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a round black mark it is an indication that the film inspector noticed either blurred copy because of movement during exposure, or duplicate copy. Unless we meant to delete copyrighted materials that should not have been filmed, you will find a good image of the page in the adjacent frame.
3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., is part of the material being photographed the photographer has followed a definite method in "sectioning" the material. It is customary to begin filming at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. If necessary, sectioning is continued again—beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.
4. For any illustrations that cannot be reproduced satisfactorily by xerography, photographic prints can be purchased at additional cost and tipped into your xerographic copy. Requests can be made to our Dissertations Customer Services Department.
5. Some pages in any document may have indistinct print. In all cases we have filmed the best available copy.

University
Microfilms
International

300 N. ZEEB ROAD, ANN ARBOR, MI 48106
18 BEDFORD ROW, LONDON WC1R 4EJ, ENGLAND

7922425

WEISS, LINDA MELLETTE
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
CONSISTENT/INCONSISTENT IDENTIFICATION DATA
OF GIFTED CHILDREN AND THEIR SELF-CONCEPT.

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT
GREENSBORO, ED.D., 1979

University
Microfilms
International 300 N. ZEEB ROAD, ANN ARBOR, MI 48106

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONSISTENT/INCONSISTENT
IDENTIFICATION DATA OF GIFTED CHILDREN
AND THEIR SELF-CONCEPT

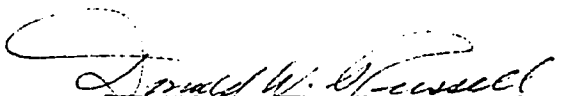
by

Linda Mellette Weiss

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

Greensboro
1979

Approved by


Dissertation Adviser

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Dissertation Adviser

Donald W. Stewart

Committee Members

Rosemary O. Nelson

John Christian Bush

Lester M. Powers

W. B. Smith

March 14, 1979
Date of Acceptance by Committee

March 14, 1979
Date of Final Oral Examination

WEISS. LINDA MELLETTE. The Relationship Between Consistent/Inconsistent Identification Data of Gifted Children and Their Self-Concept. (1979)
Directed by: Dr. Donald W. Russell. Pp. 114

The purpose of this study was to investigate the self-concept of two groups of gifted fourth, fifth, and sixth grade public school students. The relationship between the child's self-concept and the child's perception of the teacher rating was also studied, as was the child's perception of the teacher rating compared to the actual scores from the Teacher Rating Form. It was hypothesized that there would be no significant difference between the self-concept scores, as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (PHSCS), of gifted students with consistent identification data and gifted students with inconsistent identification data. It was also hypothesized that there would be no significant relationship between the self-concept scores of gifted students and the partial scoring of the "My Thoughts on School" scale which was developed by the present researcher to measure the child's perception of the teacher rating. And finally it was hypothesized that there would be no significant relationship between the scores of gifted students on the Teacher Rating Form and the partial scoring of the "My Thoughts on School" scale.

The subjects were 92 children, grades 4-6, from a piedmont North Carolina school system. The children had

been previously identified as gifted through a multi-faceted identification procedure involving the examination of standardized test scores, grades, and a teacher rating. Children were assigned to one of the two research groups based on the consistency or inconsistency of the identification data. Operationally, these groups consisted of the students with difference scores greater than $\pm 1 \text{ S D}$ from the group mean. Each student's difference score was derived by subtracting the Teacher Rating standard score from the average of the standardized test scores.

A 3X2X2 analysis of variance was used to test for differences in total self-concept scores by Grade/Sex/Group. Scheffé's test of pair-wise comparisons for unequal N's was used to determine the location of significant differences between means. Significant differences, found to exist through 3X2X2 analyses of variance of the six factors of self-concept, were also reported. Level of significance was set at $p \leq .05$.

The first null hypothesis, that there would be no significant difference between self-concept scores of gifted students with consistent and inconsistent identification data, was rejected. Gifted children with inconsistent identification data were found to have significantly higher total mean self-concept score ($\underline{M} = 68.64$) than gifted children with consistent identification data ($\underline{M} = 63.69$). The required level of significance for

differences was found only when comparing the total group. No significant differences were found when comparing males to females in the two groups. Nor were significant differences found when comparing fourth, fifth, and sixth graders in the two groups.

Four factors of the PHSCS were found to significantly discriminate between the two research groups, and in each case gifted children with inconsistent identification data obtained the higher mean score. The four factors were Factor II, "Intellectual and School Status"; Factor III, "Physical Appearance and Attributes"; Factor IV, "Anxiety"; and Factor V, "Popularity."

Two correlation ratios were computed to test the second and third null hypotheses. A statistically significant ($p \leq .05$), but low ($r = .14$), outcome was found for the comparison of the total score from the PHSCS and the partial score of the "My Thoughts on School" scale. The correlation ratio of .003 between the score each child received on the Teacher Rating Form and his/her partial score on the "My Thoughts on School" scale lacked significance.

The results obtained in the present study were compared to other research concerning the self-concept of gifted elementary children and suggestions for further research were made.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my appreciation to Dr. Donald W. Russell, Chairman of my doctoral committee, who not only directed the plan of study and dissertation, but who also introduced the field of gifted education to me and me to the field of gifted education.

A great deal of appreciation is also due to Dr. Sandra M. Powers who first encouraged me to begin my doctoral studies, and then steadfastly provided assistance and support during my endeavors. Under Dr. John C. Busch's patient guidance I gained insight into the area of educational research, and from Dr. Dale L. Brubaker's optimistic views of teachers I learned to envision new horizons for the educational process. Thanks are also expressed to Dr. Rosemary O. Nelson for her conscientious fulfillment of the role of committee member.

Without the cooperation of the boys and girls, parents, and professional staff of the Guilford County School System, this study would not have been possible and so their assistance is gratefully acknowledged.

And to my husband, Robert P. Weiss II, a special thanks is due. His unflinching encouragement during my entire graduate program has been a source of immense solace, an invaluable and sustaining strength.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
APPROVAL PAGE	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	vi
LIST OF FIGURES	viii
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Significance of the Study	10
Limitations of Present Study	11
Definition of Terms	12
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	14
Self-Concept	14
Self-Concept vs Self-Report	21
Definition and Identification of Gifted Children	24
Self-Concept of Gifted Children	37
Validity and Reliability of the Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale	45
III. PROCEDURES	53
Sample	53
Instrumentation	59
The Short Form Test of Academic Aptitude (SFTAA) and the Compre- hensive Test of Basic Skills (CTBS)	59
Guilford County Teacher Rating Form	60
My Thoughts on School	64
The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale	64
Data Collection	65
Analysis of Data	68

CHAPTER	Page
IV. ANALYSIS OF DATA	70
Hypotheses Tested	70
Related Items	78
V. CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSIONS	81
Summary of Results	82
Discussion	84
Recommendations for Further Research	93
BIBLIOGRAPHY	94
REFERENCE NOTES	103
APPENDIX A. Means for Factor and Total Scores on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale by Research Group/Sex/Grade	104
APPENDIX B. Guilford County Schools Exceptional Child Services Academic Program Referral	105
APPENDIX C. Guilford County Schools Exceptional Child Services Academic Program Child Rating Form	106
APPENDIX D. Guilford County Schools Teacher Rating Form	108
APPENDIX E. Identification Summary Sheet	110
APPENDIX F. My Thoughts on School	111
APPENDIX G. Parental Informed Consent Letter	112
APPENDIX H. Permission to Include Chart 4 from <u>An Identification Model</u> by Tongue and Sperling	113
APPENDIX I. Permission to Include Table I from <u>The Identification of the Gifted and Talented</u> by Martinson	114

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Differences in Scores Between Group and Individual Tests at Various IQ Levels	32
2. Number of Pupils Designated as "Gifted" by the Various Predictors	34
3. Reliability Data	48
4. Convergent Validities	49
5. Correlation of the PHCSCS and Measures of Intelligence and Achievement	50
6. Membership by Years	54
7. SFTAA Testing Summary	55
8. Occupational Status in Percentages	56
9. Educational Status in Percentages	56
10. Test-Retest (Five Week) Reliability for the Guilford County Teacher Rating Form	62
11. Discriminant Validity of the Teacher Rating Form	63
12. Return Rate for Teacher Rating Form	66
13. Identifying Characteristics of Children in Sample	68
14. ANOVA: Total PHCSCS Scores	71
15. ANOVA: Factor II, Intellectual and School Status, of PHCSCS	72
16. Factor II, Intellectual and School Status, Means	73
17. Analysis of Variance of Simple Effects of Sex at Sixth Grade	74

Table	Page
18. Analysis of Variance of Simple Effects of Grade for Females	75
19. ANOVA: Factor III, Physical Appearance and Attributes, of PHCSCS	76
20. ANOVA: Factor IV, Anxiety, of PHCSCS . .	77
21. ANOVA: Factor V, Popularity, of PHCSCS	77
22. Self-Concept Scores for Gifted Children Using the PHCSES: A Comparison of Three Studies	79
23. Comparison of Group Means from the Teacher Rating and Average Standardized Test Data	88

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. An Identification Matrix	36
2. Comparison of Mean Scores for Factor II . .	74

AS

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

The perception of self, one's self-concept, has been recognized historically as a central psychological construct governing not only the individual's view of him- or herself, but also much of his/her behavior (Combs & Soper, 1957; Patterson, 1961; Purkey, 1970). Combs, Avila, and Purkey (1971) state, "What people do at every moment of their lives is a product of how they see themselves and the situations they are in" (p. 39).

Common to most definitions of self-concept is the tenet that various perceptions of self, which to the individual represent "I" or "me," interact and form the central construct of self. The resulting perceptions vary in importance to the individual. Some are extremely vital to the individual's view of self such as the concepts of gender, paternity or maternity, nationality, and ethnic origin. Other perceptions, such as one's tennis or gardening ability would not, for most persons, be central in their view of self (Combs et al., 1971; Purkey, 1968).

Many of these perceptions and the importance they assume are the result of various social interactions. The importance of one's home is a function not only of its physical structure, but also of the community's opinion

of its prestige and the influence that opinion has on the individual. Whether one believes him/herself to be an outstanding tennis player depends partly on one's opponents, just as having the highest academic average in a high school of 100 students is not necessarily tantamount to being valedictorian for a class of 3,000 students.

One can view the phenomenon of self-concept in all persons, young and old. Purkey (1968) writes that even infants begin to form a concept of self. Quite early, the child discovers various aspects of his/her body and learns to maneuver hands and feet to gain contacts with favorite toys. In establishing modes of social interaction, the child discovers and manipulates many forms of communication. These activities all provide sources of perceptions about the self. Long before children enter school they have a large repertoire of me/I perceptions and this repertoire will grow even larger as the horizon expands to include the school setting, a setting which Purkey states is second only to the home in the forming of self-concept.

Upon entering school children discover that there are many tasks, academic, physical and social, which provide feedback on their ability to cope and adapt, succeed or fail. While perceptions concerning ability in the physical and social realm have been available during preschool years, it is usually not until children enter school that they have the chance to begin to formally undertake tasks from the

academic realm. During the next ten to twelve school years most children are daily confronted with the process of forming a view of self within the school setting. The ability to deal with peer groups, recess, reading and arithmetic all provide information for possible incorporation into the self.

Not all information becomes part of one's self-concept. Combs et al. (1971) and Purkey (1970) explain that two factors influence the incorporation of perceptions. First, each perception can be viewed as being either consistent or inconsistent with an already held opinion of self. If the current perception is compatible with existing views, it is easily and quickly incorporated. If it is inconsistent and particularly if the concept in question is a central one, the individual resists accepting it. So the child who has traditionally made low marks will reject the "outstanding" grade as a "fluke" or state that "everyone" passed that quiz. The basketball star who has an occasional "off" night will not worry too much about it as long as the poor performance occurs infrequently.

The other factor affecting the inclusion or rejection of the perception is situational. Interactions involving "significant others," those people viewed as important in one's life, are very influential in the formation of one's self-concept. Being praised for bidding correctly by a champion bridge player would, therefore, carry more

weight to the aspiring player than such a comment from a fellow novice. Negative comments from a significant other also have a correspondingly more important effect.

Within the school setting, then, one group of children--the gifted--would seem to have many advantages in the building of a positive self-concept. Success at academic tasks is usually accomplished more readily and easily than for their classmates. Many enter school reading and doing simple mathematics and continue through the years to be far ahead of their age group in academic achievement (Durr, 1960).

Also many researchers have found that these children as a group compare favorably with and often surpass their classmates on the physical and social dimensions (Durr, 1960; Terman, 1926). Often these children are found in positions of leadership as elected by their peers and are some of the most outstanding athletes of the community.

Since the realms of academic, physical, and social interactions are the basis for many of the perceptions of self, it would seem that gifted children excelling in these areas would have the opportunity to establish very positive self-concepts. For most gifted children this is true. Gifted children have scored significantly higher than the population in general on many of the available self-concept measures (Schauer, 1975; Yates, 1975).

But not all gifted children display such a positive view of themselves (Trowbridge, 1974). In attempting to examine the existence and possible cause of negative self-concepts in gifted children, two general research parameters are usually drawn. The population studied is usually gifted high school students and the independent variable is achievement and/or underachievement. The self-concept of elementary-aged gifted students has rarely been studied (Wittek, 1973; Yates, 1975) and results from the few studies done on this population have produced "inconclusive" results, writes Yates (p. 34). Perhaps, he concludes, this is because academic achievement is usually the independent variable and is often reported as grades received--a criterion hard to standardize.

This present study changes the current focus, then, by addressing itself to the self-concept of the elementary-aged gifted child and by proposing a different independent variable, one founded in the data used for identifying these children.

New national and state guidelines (Marland, 1971; Tongue & Sperling, 1976) recommend the use of a multi-faceted identification procedure. Data are collected from such sources as standardized tests, grades, and behavioral checklists or inventories. Guilford County, North Carolina, site of the current study, has an identification procedure

which utilizes five of these sources. Three sources of data are obtained from standardized tests of academic achievement and aptitude. The remaining two sources are a summary of grades and a "Teacher Rating Form" which incorporates "behaviors associated with the gifted student" (Guilford County's Ele. EC 2 GT Form).

The form consists of 25 phrases such as:

- asks many provocative questions
- moves from concrete to abstract
- curious about many things

The teacher is instructed "to check those items which you have observed in the student being referred."

For many identified gifted children scores from all five sources are very consistent--all five falling within a range of five percentile points. For other students, a great discrepancy of scores exists, with the Teacher Rating Form score generally the outlier.

This study examined these identification data on the children's giftedness and determined for each child if the scores presented a consistent or inconsistent pattern of giftedness. Identifying these concepts as two end points on a continuum similar to one which could be established for achievement, the students and their self-concept at each extreme were examined.

The sample of children in this study included those with "consistent" data (little variance in the identification

data) and those with "inconsistent" data (data with a large amount of variation in scores). Operationally these two groups consisted of students obtaining difference scores greater than ± 1 S D from the group mean. Each student's difference score was derived by subtracting the Teacher Rating score from the average of the standardized test scores, all scores first being converted to standard scores.

Based on previous groups of identified children, the range in difference scores was predicted to run from approximately 0 to 40 points.

There were several reasons for choosing consistency and inconsistency of identification data as the independent variable. First, all information included in this study and used in identifying the children is routinely shared with the parents and child. The information is available then to the child as perceptions about him/herself for possible incorporation into the self-concept. If these perceptions are consistent with past experiences and with each other, in other words the scores form a consistent pattern, research says they will be more easily assimilated into the child's existing self-concept (Purkey, 1968). If they are inconsistent with past experiences, or in this case with each other, they will theoretically be harder for the child to incorporate into his/her concept of self.

Secondly, standardized test data were used in lieu of grades because such data offer comparable information for

all students. Thus, variation in school curriculum or grading procedures was eliminated.

Finally, the Teacher Rating score was included because it provided an index from a "significant other," the classroom teacher, on a specific list of characteristics concerning the student's possible giftedness. This list also provided a common parameter for all the teachers to supply input on the children's ability.

The independent variables selected for this study included:

- (1) classification of the children as having consistent or inconsistent identification data as explained previously;
- (2) sex of each child; and
- (3) current grade level of each child (grades 4, 5, and 6).

A three-way ANOVA was used to analyze the data concerning these three independent variables of identification-data grouping, sex, and grade in relation to the dependent variable of self-concept. The null hypothesis tested was:

I. There is no significant difference between the self-concept scores, as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale PHSCS), of gifted students with consistent identification data and gifted students with inconsistent identification data.

All of the children who participated in this study had been previously identified as gifted. Under current Guilford County identification procedures, these children

were the top academically performing students in grades four through six. However, did they believe that their teachers thought so? Would they report that their teachers thought that they were "intelligent" or "good students"? Would there be a relationship between how students perceived the teacher's attitude about them and their self-concept? Also, would there be a relationship between the student's perception of the teacher's attitude and the actual rating the teacher gave the child on the Teacher Rating Form? If a difference in self-concept between gifted children with consistent and inconsistent identification data was established, could these additional sources of information possibly clarify why the differences in self-concept occurred?

The information needed to answer these additional questions was currently available except for a measure of the child's perceptions about the teacher's attitude. To fill this void, a scale entitled "My Thoughts on School" was developed by the present investigator. Although covering a wide range of perceptions about students and their relationship to school, the scale was devised primarily to discover if students thought their teachers considered them "intelligent" or "good student(s)." Only those two items, therefore, were scored and the results were used to determine answers to null hypotheses II and III.

II. There is no significant relationship between the self-concept scores of gifted students and the partial scores from the "My Thoughts on School" scale.

III. There is no significant relationship between the scores of gifted students on the Teacher Rating Form and the partial scores from the "My Thoughts on School" scale.

Significance of the Study

Elementary-school aged, gifted children have seldom been the subjects of self-concept studies, and so it seems appropriate to consider this study part of a continuing attempt to narrow the research focus. Assumptions applicable to all gifted children can be made only after several investigators have examined the self-concept of this age group of gifted children. The resulting generalizations concerning the self-concept of gifted children as compared to the entire population and the variables influencing the self-concept would be of interest to educators and investigators concerned with the development of self-concept. Also the generalizations would be of particular interest to the parents and professionals who work with gifted children.

In the present study, if a difference in self-concept is found to exist between gifted children with consistent identification data and those with inconsistent data, then the direction can be examined. Could the inconsistency in identification scores be indicative of a significant

variation in perceptions available to the child concerning his/her giftedness or is the inconsistency an extraneous variable? If the inconsistency is indicative of a significant variation is the associated difference in self-concept of practical and statistical significance? Answers to these inquiries could point the way to new research questions aimed at clarifying assumptions both about the construct of self-concept as related to gifted children and the variables associated with differences in self-concept among these gifted children.

Limitations of Present Study

There appeared to be three major limitations associated with this study. First, the current project deals only with identified gifted children, using the North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction's (1975) definition, and Guilford County School System's identification procedures. Using a different definition or identification procedure would possibly generate a slightly different population for whom different scores may or may not be obtained. Also, this study includes only identified gifted children. Therefore, there exists the possibility that not every gifted child in Guilford County was included. If that is true, the population from which the samples are drawn is not complete.

Secondly, only fourth, fifth, and sixth graders from the Guilford County administrative unit were included.

While this represents a total of 314 gifted children, it does not include any primary or secondary students. Therefore, any conclusions drawn could only be generalized to gifted children in grades four through six identified using similar criteria.

Finally, as dealt with in Chapter Two, there exists some disagreement as to whether the self-report of a subject (his response to self-concept statements) is synonymous with his self-concept. There, the author chose to qualify the definition of self-concept used in this study.

Definition of Terms

The following operational definitions were utilized in this study:

Self-Concept: A system of conscious perceptions an individual holds about him/herself. This system is developed through continual interactions with the communal environment. Since the self-concept is an individual's conscious perceptions about self, it can be measured through the use of self-concept scales. A child will be said to have a positive self-concept if he or she obtains a score above the norming group's mean on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

Gifted: According to the 1975 definition from the North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction.

A child who is gifted and talented is one who falls within the upper 10% in the total school district on intelligence tests, achievement tests, and/or scales that rate behavior characteristics.

This child has academic talent and generally performs above average in his class-work and/or may demonstrate a special talent in areas such as creativity, communication, leadership, decision making, forecasting, and planning as indicated by the use of behavioral scales and check-lists. (Tongue, Note 1)

Standardized test data: Scores obtained from the full-scale intelligence quotient, expressed as a standard score, on the Short Form Test of Academic Aptitude and standard scores from the subtests "Reading Comprehension" and "Math Concepts" from the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (CTB/McGraw-Hill, 1975).

Teacher Rating Form: The Guilford County Schools' Exceptional Child Services Academic Program Teacher Rating Form, a checklist of 25 behaviors associated with gifted children which is completed on each child by his/her homeroom teacher.

My Thoughts on School: A scale developed by the present investigator, it is a checklist of 13 statements concerning the student and his/her relationship to school. Each child reads and completes the scale by checking "Never," "Sometimes" or "Usually."

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In reviewing the pertinent literature for this study, the topics of self-concept and giftedness provide the two main avenues of explorations. For clarity, five subtopics generated by the two main topics individually and collectively are addressed.

These subtopics are:

- 1) Self-concept, background and definition
- 2) The self-concept vs self-report issue
- 3) Definition and identification of gifted children
- 4) Self-concept of gifted children
- 5) Validity and reliability of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

Each subtopic is dealt with separately.

Self-Concept

Historically the concept of self has been of concern to both theorists and practitioners in the many branches of psychology. While it was not until the second half of the present century that the self and self-concept as a separate psychological construct were established, the self within the context of personality development has long been a source of investigation and study.

Freudian psychologists believe that the individual passes through five psychosexual stages of personality development and that one's childhood experiences are of

primary importance in later adjustment to life. Several of the early Freudians added their own interpretations and modifications to the original theory. One, Horney, theorized that conflicts arose between an individual and his environment rather than between the ego, id, and superego. If these conflicts could be avoided or resolved, the person would become a mature, well-adjusted human being.

Fromm also saw one's social environment as having a major role in the individual's development. He cites five basic needs which can only be addressed in a social setting. These are the need for relatedness, rootedness, identity, transcendence and frame of orientation (Ruch, 1967). According to Erikson, an individual passes through eight periods of crisis. Many of these crises could be viewed as correlates or components in the development of one's self-concept. During adolescence, for example, the individual must resolve the "identity vs self-diffusion" crisis. It was contemporaries of Erikson, however, who delineated the currently held theory of self-concept.

These theorists agree that individuals are subject to inner drives, the most important one being the realization of an individual's inherent potential. To do so, they insist an appropriate environment is necessary. The importance of interaction with the environment in the development of self was recognized as early as the 1930s by

George Mead. However, the self was not generally studied between 1930 and 1950 because behavioral psychologists did not feel it was appropriate to study consciousness (Purkey, 1968).

By 1950, however, the self was under active consideration by organismic theorists such as Carl Rogers. To Rogers (1951) the self represented

an organized configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness. It is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities; the percepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; the goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive or negative valence. (p. 501)

This self, according to Rogers, is the central aspect of one's personality. Purkey (1968) in explaining Rogers' view, stated that Rogers theorized "the basic drive of the organism is the maintenance and enhancement of the Self, and that enhancement of the perceived Self may take precedence over the physiological organism" (p. 4).

The self is dynamic. One's experiences interact with the present state of self and are either incorporated, rejected, or ignored. How the self deals with the experience is determined by two factors: (1) the present state of the individual's self-concept, and (2) the nature of the experience. If the experience is seen as consistent with the present system of concepts, it will be incorporated. If

the experience is seen as irrelevant, having no perceived relationship to the self, it is ignored. If it is perceived as inconsistent, the organism attempts to deny its existence or incorporates it, but in a distorted view (Rogers, 1951).

Agreeing with Rogers that the self is central to an individual's personality and adjustment to the environment, Combs, Avila and Purkey (1971) state that "the more important the aspect of self in the economy of the individual, the more experience will be required to establish it and the more difficult it will be to change it" (p. 51). One's self-concept does change, however, theorizes Combs. One change agent is the group of persons the individual believes to be significant others, those persons who are viewed by the individual as important. The interpersonal relationship one maintains with such persons has a great effect on the individual's development of the self-concept.

Ludwig (1967) found that negative as well as positive verbalizations from a significant other can lead to changes in self-concept. When such verbalizations are of a negative nature they can lead to less favorable self-concept in both the area of endeavor and in the generalized self-concept of the individual. While there was a regression to the mean over a period of time, Ludwig found that after three weeks there was still a discernible difference in self-concept scores between the group which received positive feedback

and the group which received negative comments. He also found that the "disapproval treatment was less predictable than approval" (p. 467).

The accumulations of perceptions to which one refers when using the word "I" are termed one's self-concept. It is composed of the social interactions which occur from birth and is a learned phenomenon. Even basic accomplishments such as toilet training, walking, and talking contribute to the sense of competency and self-accomplishment of the young child (Mattocks, 1974). By the time children enter school they have already learned a concept of self. Yet, as the self is dynamic as well as learned, the individual continues to learn about new aspects of self. Purkey (1968) states, "The school dispenses reward and punishment on a grand scale. The student must play a new role at school with greater or lesser success, and his Self is directly involved in the process" (p. 10).

Combs et al. (1971) defined self-concept as "that organization of perceptions about self which seems to the individual to be who he is. It is composed of thousands of perceptions varying in clarity, precision, and importance in the person's peculiar economy" (p. 39). This perceived concept of self is an "abstraction of the phenomenal self" (Snygg & Combs, 1949, p. 112) and is particularly important in motivating the individual.

Combs and Soper (1957) suggested that this be represented visually through a series of three concentric circles. The largest, Circle A, represents the individual's perceptual field. Within the field of total perceptions would lie a smaller circle, B, which would include all the perceptions an individual holds about himself regardless of their importance or clarity. Circle B, then, would represent the phenomenal self. Finally, the smallest circle, C, would lie within this phenomenal self and would represent the self-concept comprising only those aspects which are important and vital to the individual.

Maintaining that "what people do at every moment of their lives is a product of how they see themselves and the situations that they are in" (1971, p. 39), Combs et al. explain that the self-concept acts as "a screen" through which all perceptions are processed.

Not only does the self-concept form a screen for incoming perceptions, it also has a great deal of control over behavior (Combs et al., 1971; Mattocks, 1974; Purkey, 1967). Whether an individual will attempt a new task or believes that he/she can competently compete in a present situation is often influenced by the self-concept (Brandt, 1958).

If the self-concept is the system of personal perceptions an individual holds about him- or herself, self-esteem is the value judgment the individual attaches

these perceptions (McCandless, 1973). Coopersmith (1959) theorizes that the self-esteem exists as "an attitude of approval or disapproval, and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy" (p. 4). He found that by middle childhood (fifth grade) this general appraisal of self-concept and the attendant feeling of self-esteem had stabilized and would remain relatively so over a period of years.

Davidson's 1960 study of elementary-aged children brings into focus many of the facets of self-concept and self-esteem. Davidson was investigating children's self-perception, how they thought the teacher perceived them, and how this perception was related to pupil achievement and behavior. Two hundred and three children completed an adjective checklist twice. With the first administration the children were instructed to complete the form as the teacher would characterize the child. On the second completion they were told to answer as they saw themselves. Teachers were asked to rate each child on behavior and achievement. Davidson found there was significant and positive correlation between the children's self-perception and their perception of how the teachers viewed them. "The child with the more favorable self-image was the one who more likely than not perceived his teacher's feelings toward him [as being] more favorable" (p. 116). Davidson

also found that the more positive the children perceived their teachers to feel about them, the better was their academic achievement and classroom behavior as rated by the teachers.

The self-concept, then, is seen by many modern theorists and researchers as a vital aspect of a person's being, a controller of his actions, and yet controlled to a large extent by his social interactions. An individual's self-concept begins to develop from birth, has become fairly stable by age ten, and has tremendous influence on how one views him/herself and the world. Such an important psychological construct is certainly worthy of our careful investigation and study.

Self-Concept vs Self-Report

Combs et al. (1971) believe that part of the discrepancy in the findings of studies of self-concept occur because what researchers are calling "self-concept" is in reality "self-report." A somewhat different variable, self-report, according to Combs, is "what a person is willing or able to divulge, or what he can be tricked into saying about himself when asked to do so" (p. 52). Combs concedes, however, that many of his colleagues disagree with him and in an earlier article reports that many of them see the self-report as "a valid indication of the self-concept" (Combs, Soper & Courson, 1963, p. 493). He and Soper also wrote that while they did not believe that the self-concept

and self-report were synonymous, one's self-report may be valuable as a means of exploring self-concept" (Combs & Soper, 1957, p. 138).

Wylie (1974) also cautioned about interpreting self-reports and warned that responses to questions concerning self-concept may be influenced by the:

- a. subject's intent to select what he wishes to reveal to the examiner,
- b. subject's intent to say that he has attitudes or perceptions which he doesn't have,
- c. subject's response habits, particularly those involving introspections and the use of language and
- d. host of situational and methodological factors which may not only induce variations of (a), (b), and (c) but may exert other more superficial influences on the response obtained. (p. 24)

Combs would substitute analysis of behavior for verbal or written responses, but then the issue becomes one of interpreting and standardizing another set of data involving the additional element of subjectivity in observers' scoring.

In building their case that self-concept and self-report are different, Combs, Soper, and Courson (1963) constructed a scale, The Self Concept-Self Report Scale (SC-SR), to measure youngsters' self-report. Each child completed a copy of The Self Concept-Self Report Scale and then four trained observers completed a copy of the SC-SR scale on each child. To determine the relationship between the children and observers' scores Pearson product

moment correlation coefficients were computed for each of the eighteen items on the scale. These correlation coefficients ranged from $-.199$ to $+.336$. Converting the coefficients to z-scores and averaging gave a mean r of $-.114$.

However, Combs et al. (1963) used an instrument on which no reliability or validity data were gathered:

The statements of the children were accepted as reliable per se. The question of this research is to determine if children's statements about self are comparable to inferred self-concept ratings. If children's self-reports are not reliable, then this, or any other research on the topic is futile. (p. 497)

Michael, Ploss, and Lee (1973) conducted a similar study. They, however, used the Self-Esteem Inventory on which there are reliability and validity data. In Michael's study 30 sixth graders completed the SEI while two teachers also completed the SEI on each child. They found while there was a significant difference in the two scores on the social self scoring, there were no significant differences amongst the means of the self and observed reports relative to the constructs of mental health, personal self and academic self.

Strong and Fedder (1961) state "every evaluative statement that a person makes concerning himself can be considered a sample of his self-concept, from which inferences may then be made about the various properties of that self-concept" (p. 170).

Piers (1969) concluded that an individual's self-report should be viewed as an indication of the subject's public self-concept and McCandless and Evans (1973) stated that "one important dimension of self-concept development is the extent to which an individual can describe himself objectively and accurately" (p. 389).

Patterson (1961) concedes that an individual's statements may be inaccurate, but he believes that there is "no other approach to determining the self-concept, since by definition it is the perception of the self by the individual and no one else can report upon it or describe it" (p. 10).

The present study is based on Strong and Fedder's conclusions and offers the children's responses as one "sample of self-concept."

Definition and Identification of Gifted Children

Prior to any discussion of gifted children, the term "gifted" must be defined. This proves to be no mean task since the concept of giftedness is "culture bound" (Gallagher, 1975, p. 10), and therefore changes both across time and across communities.

Gowan (1964), in tracing the changing concept of giftedness, explains that until a few years ago it was simple to define giftedness. It was believed that intelligence was a unitary factor, and so giftedness was defined

in relation to a score obtained on a verbal intelligence test, traditionally the Stanford-Binet.

Even so researchers did not always agree as to exactly what the lower IQ limits should be. Stedman began a class for gifted children in 1918 using a cutoff of 125 on the Binet, although she later revised it to 140. Originally Terman used a Binet IQ of 130, but in his longitudinal study the children had Binet IQs of 135 and above (Newland, 1976).

After World War II educational theorists began to re-examine the nature of intelligence. As early as 1904, Spearman had suggested a two-factor theory of intelligence, which included both a general ("g") intelligence and specific ("s") factors relative to the task. But it was J. P. Guilford who, building upon the ideas of Spearman and the work of Kelley and Thurstone, devised the structure of the intellect. A veritable, three-dimensional periodic chart of intellectual functioning, it incorporated three major dimensions--contents, operations, and products. Through the statistical technique of factor analysis, Guilford was able to isolate 120 possible cognitive abilities. Guilford's theory, revolutionary as it is, served to permanently undermine the concept of a unitary intelligence and therefore a unitary giftedness.

Using Guilford's model, Torrance (1970) found that if one defined the gifted population as the upper 20% as

determined by an intelligence test alone, "he would miss 70% of those who would be identified in the upper 20% as gifted by a test of creative thinking" (p. 199).

Newland (1976) explains a second occurrence which led to a broadening of the definition and criteria of giftedness. Many individuals who had or who were making outstanding contributions to society through painting, singing, acting, and providing leadership would not be classified as gifted using the Binet IQ criterion. Recognizing the incongruity, theorists and practitioners began re-examining the concept of giftedness, its attributes and boundaries.

Many persons, in an attempt to resolve the matter, simply substituted a list of characteristics for the definition (Cornish, 1967). Others, particularly those responsible for identification, began defining giftedness as the upper "x" percent academically of a given population. Tongue and Sperling (1976) reported that the designated percentages ranged from California defining the upper 2% as gifted; to Georgia, the upper 3%; Connecticut, the upper 5%; to North Carolina where the 1975 definition designates as gifted the upper 10%.

Newland (1976) writes that this use of the upper "x" percent began as a response to the social agitation of the late 1950s and early 1960s and "came more from a temporary sense of social need than from psychological and educational understanding" (pp. 348-349).

Martinson (1974) both argues against the use of a rigid upper percentage and gives her own definition of giftedness when she writes:

The temptation to include large segments of the population should be resisted because it results in diminished attention to those who need special provisions most. The gifted child, in other words can be served poorly in a curriculum designed for the average of the upper 20%. For this reason and others, the gifted are defined as a group so advanced that they require special attention beyond the usual school provisions. (pp. 4-5)

Into the void created by the lessening in importance of the intelligence test as a criterion for giftedness and the expanding notion of what giftedness is, various new definitions emerged between 1964 and 1976. The following definitions give evidence of the philosophical diversity which has come to characterize the field.

Gowan (1964) based his definition of giftedness on a developmental basis. "An able or gifted child is one whose rate of development, with respect to time, on some personality variable of agreed value is significantly larger than the generality" (p. 7).

Taylor (1973, 1974) devised a multi-talent definition dubbed "Taylor's Talent Totem Trees." He reports that when children are rated on the characteristics of academics, creativity, planning, communication, forecasting, and decision-making approximately 90% will be above average on at least one characteristic and almost all the others will be nearly average on at least one of them. Therefore,

according to Taylor, potentially all children are gifted. Obviously, a school system's program based on this definition would be very different from one based on Martinson's!

Newland (1976) describes a definition which, while tied to an intelligence test criterion, is based on what he describes as social need. He believes that five or six percent of adults are employed in occupations which require a high level of ability to deal with abstractions and generalizations. To this group of 5-6% he would add a 2-3% margin for "error" and define this as the group which would need special educational provisions to carry on the functional needs of society in areas such as the sciences, education, architecture and the like.

Incorporating the ideas of Taylor, Torrance, Newland, Gowan and others, Marland (1971) gives the U. S. Office of Education's definition as:

Gifted and talented children are those identified by professionally qualified persons who, by virtue of outstanding abilities, are capable of high performance. These are children who require differentiated educational programs and/or services beyond those normally provided by the regular school program in order to realize their contribution to self and society.

Children capable of high performance included those with demonstrated achievement and/or potential ability in any of the following areas, singularly or in combination: general intellectual ability, specific academic aptitude, creative or productive thinking, leadership ability, ability in visual and performing arts and psychomotor ability. (p. ix)

As a case in point, a study of North Carolina's changing definition of giftedness shows the evolution of

theory from the traditional concept embraced by the early researchers to the present concept which stresses not only achievement but potential achievement.

According to the 1961 definition, the State of North Carolina determined that:

- The term 'exceptionally talented child' means a pupil in the public school system of North Carolina who possesses the following qualifications:
- a. A group intelligence quotient of 120 or higher
 - b. A majority of marks of A and B
 - c. Emotional adjustment that is average or better
 - d. Achievement at least two grades above the state norm, or in the upper 10% of local norms of the administrative unit, and
 - e. Shall be recommended by the pupil's teacher or principal. (Tongue, Note 1, p. 1)

In 1971 the State Board of Education changed item (d) to read: "A standardized academic achievement test score of average or above" and dropped the phrase concerning the "upper 10% of local norms." The 1971 definition also deleted any reference to emotional adjustment and added that the child might "possess other characteristics of giftedness and talents to the extent that they need and can profit from programs for the gifted and talented" (Tongue, Note 1, p. 1).

This definition addressed, at least in part, Torrance's 1970 concern "that only well-adjusted, high achieving children have been included. Children exhibiting behavior problems, children who excel in one or two fields but are not well-rounded, children from disadvantaged backgrounds, and children who learn a great deal on their own but do not

excel on those things that count on the grade books are usually excluded" (p. 206).

By 1975 specific references to an intelligence quotient or "majority of marks of A and B" had been deleted. Behavioral scales and checklists were included as indicators and the definition states:

A child who is gifted and talented is one who falls within the upper 10% of the total school district on intelligence tests, achievement tests, and/or scales that rate behavioral characteristics. This child has academic talent and generally performs above average in his classwork and/or may demonstrate a special talent in areas such as creativity, communication, leadership, decision making, forecasting, and planning as indicated by the use of behavioral scales and checklists. (Tongue, Note 1, p. 1)

As stated in Chapter One, it is this North Carolina definition which will govern the present study.

Even if there were one nationwide, explicit definition of giftedness, Freehill (1961) explains that identifying the appropriate children would be made difficult because "brightness is much less obvious than dullness" (p. 35). This is due in part, he continues, to the fact that gifted children are capable of average behavior and achievement and because many gifted children are found in situations which neither foster nor elicit distinctive responses and behavior characteristic of these children.

Historically, most identification procedures began with nomination of children by their teachers (Gear, 1976; Jacobs, 1970, 1971; Terman, 1926). Oftentimes, however, teachers were not given a definition or any external criteria

to guide their selections. Without a set of uniform guidelines, many average, but enthusiastic students were nominated and many gifted, but nonconforming students were overlooked (Gallagher, 1966; Gear, 1976; Jacobs, 1970; Torrance, 1970). Gowan (1964) also concluded that teachers often confused achievement and intelligence, and Terman (1926) suggested one would have as much success locating the gifted child by asking the teacher who the youngest child in the class was as in asking her to identify the gifted child.

Giving teachers a definition, list of characteristics or questionnaire to complete provides commonality and structure, greatly increases accuracy (Gear, 1976; Gowan, 1964), and makes this process a valuable component of several suggested identification procedures (Gowan, 1964; Martinson, 1966; Renzulli & Smith, 1977; Tongue & Sperling, 1976).

One other traditional component of most identification systems has been the intelligence tests. Early researchers relied on individually administered tests, but with the advent of the group-testing phenomenon the scores from these tests were often substituted as identification criteria.

Several new problems were introduced to the identification process when group tests were substituted for individual ones. First, many of the tests were standardized on white, middle class, suburban subjects (Tongue & Sperling, 1976)

This procedure led to the establishment of norms which do not truly relate to many ethnic and socioeconomic groups.

Secondly, the group tests--both intelligence and achievement--do not provide an adequately stable score for gifted students (Martinson, 1974). "Because of the limited numbers of advanced items, pupils must have nearly total success to be designated as gifted" (p. 40). Because of this test construction it is not unusual for a gifted child's scores on a group and individually administered IQ test to vary as much as 30 points (Table 1).

Table 1
Differences in Scores Between Group and
Individual Tests at Various IQ Levels

IQ Range	Number of Pupils	Algebraic Difference*
160-169	6	33.833
150-159	11	18.273
140-149	11	13.909
130-139	28	10.607

*In favor of the Binet test
Data courtesy of California Test Bureau. Reprinted by permission.
(Martinson, 1974, p. 41)

Gallagher (1975), Gowan (1964), and Torrance (1970)
all report another weakness of both individual and group

tests--their failure to measure the divergent reasoning and evaluation components of intelligence.

Since it is expensive for some communities to test many children individually, several studies have been done to examine the relative effectiveness and efficiency of various other screening instruments and procedures. Most of the studies used the Binet IQ scores as the criterion.

Gowan (1964) defines effectiveness of a screening procedure as "the percentage of the able which any one method locates" and its efficiency as "the percent of the gifted in the whole group tested by the procedure" (p. 274).

Pegnato and Birch (1959) studied methods available to identify junior high gifted students. They found that the single most effective method was to use an Otis-Beta IQ score of 115 (effectiveness = 92%); but this method was not very efficient (19%), selecting over five times as many children as the program could accommodate. Group achievement tests were the second most effective (80%) measure. Teacher judgment was only 45% effective and 27% efficient.

Cornish (1968) also found that a group intelligence test was the most effective screening method for elementary age children. Using as a reference criterion an IQ of 130+ on a group test or the WISC-R (132+ on the Stanford-Binet) or the upper 3% on a group achievement test, Cornish determined that a total of sixteen children should have been identified. He found (Table 2) that the group intelligence

test correctly identified nine children (56%) and teachers identified five children (31%).

Table 2
Number of Pupils Designated as "Gifted"
by the Various Predictors

Predictor	Total Nominated	Correctly Identified	Did Not Identify	Nominated-- but Were Not in "Gifted" Category
Teachers	12	5 (31%)	11 (69%)	7
Pupils	5	2 (12%)	14 (88%)	3
Parents	4	2 (12%)	14 (88%)	2
Group Intelligence	16	9 (56%)	7 (44%)	7
Group Achievement	3	1 (6%)	15 (94%)	2

Gear (1976) found that having teachers participate in a training session could raise their effectiveness in identifying gifted children from 50% to 86%. In reviewing previous studies of teacher judgment in screening, Gear reports that Walton (1961) found that "teachers [on the kindergarten level], while not generally accurate [effectiveness = 46.2%] were able to identify highly gifted (IQ of 160 or above, Stanford-Binet) children" (p. 481). Jacobs (1971) found kindergarten teachers to only have an effectiveness rating of 9.5%.

While Marland (1971) reports that the three most widely used identification procedures are teacher observation and nomination followed by group achievement and intelligence tests, the leaders in education of the gifted recommend the use of (in rank order) individual intelligence tests, previously demonstrated accomplishments, and teacher observation and nomination.

Many persons, recognizing that the expanding concept of giftedness would require a corresponding shift in identification, have suggested major departures from the teacher and/or test criteria.

Tongue and Sperling (1976) taking into account the various types of giftedness recognized by the U. S. Office of Education (academic, artistic, leadership, creativity, and kinesthetic) and the need for multidimensional identification criteria devised an identification matrix (Figure 1). The matrix allows for the use of test, performance, and developmental data. Local education agencies are to use the matrix as a guide, choosing components from each section.

Gowan (1964) suggested an identification procedure based on a reservoir system. Children who scored in the top one tenth of the top 5% on group intelligence tests would be automatically identified as gifted, all other children would become part of the reservoir via group test scores, teacher nomination and achievement test scores. Other children who are school leaders, very able minority students,

X--The Mainstreamed Gifted Student

O--Culturally Different Gifted Student

Talent Categories	Test Data						Performance Data						Developmental Data	
										Nominations Checklists Scales				
	Intelligence	Achievement	Creativity-Divergent Thinking	Aptitude	Divergent Feelings	Biographical Inventory	Culture Free	Grades	Demonstration of Skills	Teacher and/or Other School Personnel	Peer	Parent	Self	Case studies, anecdotes, biographical data and interviews
Academic/ intellectual	X	X	O	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Artistic/ expressive			X	O	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Leadership/ psychosocial				X		X		X	X	X		X	O	X
Divergent production/ process			X	O	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Kinesthetic				X				X	X	X	X	X	X	X

(Courtesy Cornelia Tongue and Charmain Sperling)

Reprinted by permission

Figure 1. An identification matrix.

believed to be bright but having reading difficulties or emotional problems would also be added to the pool. Children are then ranked and chosen by the number of times their names were entered.

Both Martinson (1966) and Renzulli and Smith (1977) recommend the use of case studies to identify gifted children. Renzulli and Smith compared the use of group and individual tests with that of a case study approach on the variables of time and money efficiency and effectiveness of identification. They found that the case study approach (which used currently available aptitude and achievement scores, teacher ratings, past performances, and ratings by parents and students) was more quickly accomplished and cheaper than the administration of an individual intelligence test. It was also found to be more effective. While classroom teachers from both approaches said 85% of the selected children should definitely be in the program, project teachers using the case study approach responded thusly for 92% of the children as compared to only 79% of the children selected using the traditional identification procedures.

The identification procedures which will be used in this study followed a case study format and will be explained in detail in Chapter Three.

Self-Concept of Gifted Children

While the term "self-concept" does not appear in the early literature concerning gifted children, Terman,

Witty, and others did analyze such related characteristics as emotional stability and maturity.

Hildreth's (1966) review of the Terman studies reports:

Dr. Terman ascertained the personal traits and qualities of gifted children in California through a series of questionnaires and checklists. He found the gifted children as a whole to be above their age level in all traits studied. The gifted nine year olds were rated as equivalent to children of fourteen in character development; they showed a better spirit of cooperation than other children, were neither domineering nor egotistical, showed respect for authority and intellectual discipline, were less easily influenced by suggestion than their age-mates, and proved to have a sense of humor. They rated high in earnestness, trustworthiness, honesty and emotional stability, as well as in the capacity for objective self-appraisal. (p. 95)

Hildreth also reports that in Witty's 1930 study of 100 gifted children he found these children's emotional maturity "to be equal to the general population" (p. 95).

In more recent studies, summarizations of which follow, the findings have been less conclusive. Either no significant results can be reported, or different findings seem to contradict each other. Part of this difficulty can be attributed to the lack of commonality among the definitions of giftedness and other correlates, and lack of agreement on how to measure traits.

Wittek (1973) used a 20-item, open-ended questionnaire to assess self-perception of gifted children in grades five through seven. The results indicated characteristics of high motivation, recognition of pride in special status, high

competition for school honors, and strong reactions to parental pressure for high achievement.

Schauer (1975) compared the self-report of fifth and sixth graders who tested at or above 125 IQ, with children identified as gifted by school personnel but who scored below 125 IQ, and children not identified as gifted. The results showed that children with IQ's above 125 had significantly more positive self-report scores than the other two groups.

Trowbridge (1974) investigating the relationship between self-concept and intelligence found, however, that children at both the high and low end of the intelligence continuum had lower scores on Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory (CSEI) than those in the average range. His statistical analysis allowed him to conclude that the relationship was significant but non-linear.

"One explanation," for the lower scores obtained by the gifted students according to Trowbridge (p. 47),

may lie in the high IQ child's perception that adults (both parents and teachers) expect too much from him. About 10% of the CSEI items are in some way related to adult expectations, and on all of them the high IQ self-concept scores are low. Moreover, the high IQ child seems to have internalized these aspiration levels and expects much higher performance of himself.

Whereas Trowbridge defined a high IQ child as one scoring at the 90th percentile or higher on the Otis Lennon Mental Ability or Lorge Thorndike test, Anastasiow (1964) studied the "very gifted" children scoring at 145+ IQ on

the Binet. She expected to find a positive relationship between self-concept as measured by a variation of the Sears Test and academic achievement scores on the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress (STEP). Two sets of correlation coefficients were computed, one for mathematics achievement and self-concept and one for reading achievement and self-concept. While no significant relationship was obtained between high (99%ile) and low (0-98%ile) gifted achievers in mathematics and self-concept measures, the results were significant when the relationship was drawn between reading achievement and self-concept measures of physical ability, social relations and total self-concept. She therefore concluded (p. 178) that "self-concept is related to achievement." However the interpretation of "low" achievement as all STEP percentiles except the 99th is questionable and clouds the validity of this study.

In a later study, Anastasiow (1967) studied "bright" elementary students (top 26% on the Cooperative School and College Ability Tests [SCAT]) and "less capable" elementary students (bottom 26% on SCAT). She found lower self-concept scores on the Sears Test for mental abilities and school subjects in the less capable boys' group. Less capable girls had lower scores in the areas of school subjects, mental abilities, work habits, happy qualities, physical appearance, social relations, and social virtues.

In summarizing his search of the literature, Yates (1975) found that the research concerning gifted elementary school children's self-concept and achievement was "sparse and inconclusive" (p. 34). He concluded that this was due in part to the practice of using teachers' grades as the criterion of achievement, a criterion lacking reliability and validity. In order to circumvent this problem with achievement criterion, Yates chose to use the Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT) as a measure of achievement and the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale as a measure of self-concept. Looking at 135 children in grades three through five, Yates found that achievers, regardless of sex or grade, obtained significantly higher self-concept scores.

This investigator agrees with Yates that research concerning self-concept of gifted elementary children is relatively sparse and at times inconclusive. However, most studies do support the fact that, as a group, gifted children display a positive self-concept.

More studies concerning self-concept of gifted students have been conducted on the secondary level. Many of these have tried to establish a relationship between academic underachievement and poor self-concept with most significant results being confined to high school studies.

Gallagher (1966) in summarizing six such studies concluded that "the underachieving child seems to have a

portrait of the world as unfriendly and unsympathetic. The school is a threatening place where the activities are unrelated to success and happiness and the kind of life he wants to lead" (p. 63).

Purkey (1967) in summarizing some of the works that preceded his 1966 study reported that in 1964 Combs found that underachieving but capable high school boys differed significantly from their achieving peers on the variables of perceptions of self, others, and in general and emotional efficiency. Purkey also reported that Brookover, Thomas and Patterson found in 1964 that even after partialing out IQ, grade point average and self-concept were significantly correlated in a positive manner.

In his own study, Purkey (1966) was trying to answer the question of whether highly intelligent high school students had better psychological adjustment than the average. He found that "while gifted students do have characteristics associated with above-average adjustment, they tend to see themselves as simply average in these qualities." He also concluded that "contrary to popular belief [gifted students] do not have greater insight into their own personality makeup" (p. 20).

McIntosh (1966) investigated the self-concept of gifted, honors and average college students using Bills Index of Adjustment and Values. He reported that the gifted

did not have significantly higher self-concepts than honors or average students.

In 1960 and again 1963, Shaw undertook studies of high school students. In each case he was interested in the relationship between underachievement and self-concept. In the 1960 study he found that male underachievers appear to have negative feelings about themselves more than male achievers, but female underachievers were more ambivalent with regard to feelings about themselves. These results were confirmed in his 1963 study and he found that "male underachievers reported themselves as being less accepting and attributed a similar lack of self-acceptance to their peers" (p. 402).

Dean's 1977 study of junior high gifted children looked at the "influence that feelings of self-worth play in a free recall and nonverbal paired association learning task" (p. 316). Using Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory, he divided first the boys and then the girls into high and low groups based on the SEI scores. He found generally that both the boys and girls with higher self-perceptions exhibited greater mastery of verbal and nonverbal learning tasks than their peers with the lower self-perception ratings.

He reported further that this group of children did not show sex differences in self-concept scores nor did they differ significantly from the group of average children with

whom Coopersmith conducted his standardization work on self-concept.

Gibby and Gibby (1967) working with "bright and academically superior" children found, as had Ludwig, that negative feedback has an unfavorable influence on self-concept and functioning. In this case negative feedback took the form of a failing grade on a test. After informing a child of this failure, they found that he "regards himself less highly, does not believe that he is highly regarded by other significant persons in his life . . . and shows a decrement in intellectual productivity" (p. 37).

In summary, several general conclusions can be made or reiterated:

1. Gifted children usually evidence self-concept scores equal to, if not higher than, their classmates of average ability.

2. Research on the self-concept of elementary children has been rather sparse perhaps partially due to a lack, until recently, of appropriate instruments with adequate reliability and validity.

3. Many studies of self-concept have looked at this trait in conjunction with achievement. On the elementary level this has led to some contradictory results, possibly due to the use of teachers' grades, a rather unstandardized measure, as the criterion of achievement.

4. Comparing studies of gifted children has been further complicated by the various operational definitions of giftedness which have been employed.

Validity and Reliability of the Piers-Harris
Children's Self-Concept Scale

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale entitled "The Way I Feel about Myself" is a group-administered form requiring approximately a third-grade reading knowledge. According to the accompanying manual, "The Scale was designed primarily for research on the development of children's self-attitudes and correlates of these attitudes" (p. 2).

The current scale consists of 80 simple declarative statements which were derived from an original pool of 164. The items are scored according to the judges' decision as to what constitutes favorable self-reaction. The items selected from the original pool met the following criteria:

1. They discriminated between subjects with high and low total scores.
2. They were answered in the expected direction by at least one half of the subjects with high total scores.
3. In most cases the yes-no split was balanced at 90:10.
4. The number of positive and negative statements were equal to avoid response set.

The results provide a total self-concept score and six subscores derived from cluster analysis. The sub-scores

are in the areas of behavior, happiness, satisfaction, intellectual and school status, physical appearance, anxiety and popularity. A high score on the Scale is defined as evidence of a favorable self-concept which in turn indicates positive self-esteem or self-regard.

The PHCSCS has received favorable evaluation from several test reviewers including Peter Bentler in Buros' Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook (1971). Although several suggestions for revision of the manual were included, Bentler concluded that the scale possessed "sufficient reliability and validity to be used in research" and is a "psychometrically adequate scale" (p. 306).

Wylie (1974) reviewed several self-concept instruments and, while having several suggestions for improvement, considered the PHCSCS to be very promising. Since publication of her book, several studies have been undertaken to clarify many of the questions she raised. Several of these topics are covered in the research monograph Piers (1977) wrote concerning the Scale including more studies which serve to better establish the convergent and discriminant validity of the Scale. In another recently completed study, Smith and Rogers (1977) studied the issue of low scores obtained on the PHCSCS. Wylie had questioned whether such scores should be considered reliable or whether they were the result of test-retest item instability. Following Wylie's suggested format, Smith and Rogers found that while

"children with high self-concept scores exhibited significantly less item instability than did children with either middle or low self-concept scores" (p. 553), children in the middle and low group did not differ on the item stability variable as had been feared.

Crandall compared 30 measures of self-concept/esteem in Robinson's (1973) Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes. In addition to reviewing each test, Crandall attempted to rank the measure in order of quality. The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Test was the top ranked test written for children and was ranked second in the composite list of self-concept measures.

Shreve (1973) evaluated four of the most widely known measures of self-concept. Using the criteria from Standards for Educational and Psychological Tests and Manuals, he concluded that the Piers-Harris scale was the most satisfactory test available.

In the 1977 monograph, Piers attempts to collate studies and research projects using the Children's Self-Concept Scale. Seven studies reported reliability data on the current 80-item scale. Results from these studies are reported in Table 3.

Convergent validity was assessed using the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, the Pictorial Self-Concept Scale, the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale and the Bills IAVA. Results are reported in Table 4 with highest correlations

Table 3
Reliability Data

Sample	Age or Grade	Sex	N	Index	Coefficient
Pennsylvania Public Schools (Piers)	grade 6	Girls	70	KR 20	.88
	grade 6	Boys	76	KR 20	.90
	grade 10	Girls	84	KR 20	.88
	grade 10	Boys	67	KR 20	.93
Ohio Public Schools (Yonder, Blixt, & Dinero, 1974)	grade 10	Both	206	Alpha	.90
Chronically Ill Children	Average 12 years	Both	94	3 week test-retest	.80
Normal Speaking Mild articulation disorders Mod. articulation disorders (Querry, 1970)	grade 3-4	Both	10	3 to 4 week	.86
	grade 3-4	Both	10	test-retest	.96
	grade 3-4	Both	10		.83
Miccosukee and Seminole Indians (Lefley, 1974)	7-14 yrs.	Both	53	Spearman- Brown	.91
Pennsylvania Private School (McLaughlin, 1970)	grade 5	Boys	67	5 month test-retest	.75
Academic deficiency resource classroom (Smith & Rogers 1976)	6-12 yrs.	Both	206	Alpha	.89
	6-12 yrs.	Both	89	7 month test-retest	.62

reported for the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory which most closely resembles the PHCSCS in format and age range.

Table 4
Convergent Validities

	Grade	N	Sex	Measure	Pearson r with P-H total score
Bolea, Felker, & Barnes (1971)	K-4	63	Both	Pictorial Self Concept Scale	.42
Yonker et al. (1974)	10	100	Males	Tennessee Self Concept Scale	.51
	10	108	Females	Tennessee Self Concept Scale	.61
	10	100	Males	Bills IAV	.42
	10	108	Females	Bills IAV	.40
Schauer (1975)	5-6	215	Both	Coopersmith	.85

All significant beyond .01 level

Several studies have examined the relationship between self-concept and measures of intelligence and achievement. Results of these studies are shown in Table 5 on the following page.

Basically the correlations of self-concept as measured by the PHCSCS and IQ tests have either been nonsignificant, or positive but low. When the relationship between Factor II of the PHCSCS (Intellectual and School Status) and intelligence is examined, higher correlations are usually reported.

Table 5

Correlation of the PHCSCS and Measures of Intelligence and Achievement

	Age or Grade	N	Sex	Measure	Pearson r
Querry (1970) normal and articulation problem children	3 & 4	25 normal	Both	Teacher Rating	.54**
		25 mild artic.	Both	Teacher Rating	.02
		25	Both	Teacher Rating	.26
Felker & Thomas (1971)	4	Approx. 66	Both	IAR+ ¹	.32*
		?	Girls	IAR+	.57**
		?	Boys	IAR-	.38*
Piers (in press)	6 & 10	297	Both	IAR+	.35**
				IAR-	-.04
			Girls	IAR total	.19**
				IAR+	.47**
				IAR-	.25**
Boys	IAR total	.27**			
	Girls	IAR+	.25**		
		IAR-	.27**		
Mettes	5	25	Both	Inferred Self Concept Scale (by teachers) total	.55**
				Items relating to school attitude	.64**
				Items relating to rela- tionship-peers	.03

Table 5 (continued)

	Age or Grade	N	Sex	Measure	Pearson r
Chapman English primary schools	10-11 yrs.	455	Both	Reading attainment	.52**
				Non-verbal attainment	.48**
				Academic Motivation Inventory	.48**
				Children's self-ratings of: relationship with teacher	.41**
				reading	.49**
				maths	.51**
				behavior	.40**
				Eysenck Junior Person- ality Questionnaire (new version)	
				Psychoticism	-.27**
				Extraversion	.41**
				Neuroticism	-.34**
Lie Scale	.11*				
Tavormina Chronically Ill Children	6-18 yrs.	94	Both	Nowicki Locus of Control	.35**
				Eysenck Jr. Pers. Quest. Neuroticism	-.47**
				Extraversion	.49**

¹IAR+ = Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (success)
IAR- = Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (failure)

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

This would indicate that while most children seem to appraise their mental ability rather realistically, this perception is only partially reported in their feelings of self-worth.

Correlations of achievement scores and self-concept have generally been higher, again with Factor II of the PHSCS showing a stronger correlation with achievement than that obtained using total self-concept scores.

While the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale has been used with children in many of the areas of exceptionalities, only two studies of elementary gifted children using the Scale have been published.

Schauer (1975) as reported previously, studied the self-concept of fifth and sixth graders. The groups were identified as children with IQ scores on the Stanford-Binet or WISC-R of 125 or higher, children identified as gifted by school personnel but who scored below 125, and children not identified as gifted. Significant differences in favor of the group of children with IQ scores of 125 or higher were found.

Yates (1975) used the PHSCS in his study of elementary gifted children's self-concept and their achievement. He found that academically achieving children had obtained significantly higher self-concept scores than those identified as underachievers.

CHAPTER III PROCEDURES

The present study investigated the self-concept of two groups of gifted fourth, fifth, and sixth graders. The first group consisted of those students whose identification data could be labeled "consistent" and the second group, those students with "inconsistent" identification data.

Sample

The children were all fourth, fifth, and sixth graders in Guilford County Public Schools. Guilford, one of the largest counties in North Carolina, is located in the Piedmont area and serves 26,000+ students from kindergarten through twelfth grade. Blacks, the largest minority group, comprise approximately 16% of the student population.

Enrollment has remained fairly constant in grades one through six during the last decade. State-supported kindergartens were begun in 1972 on a limited basis. Each year new classes were added until 1976 when services became available to all the State's five-year-olds.

Table 6 provides official fall membership data for grades kindergarten through sixth grade for several of the previous years.

Table 6
Membership by Years

Grade	Year					
	1970-71	1972-73	1974-75	1975-76	1976-77 ^b	1977-78 ^b
K	224	223	799	1,131	1,637	1,550
1	1,855	1,845	1,806	1,954	2,151	2,073
2	1,907	1,808	1,851	1,804	1,950	2,107
3	2,006	1,942	1,874	1,885	1,832	1,938
4	2,042	2,021	1,919	1,924	1,930	1,810
5	1,926	2,142	2,091	1,993	1,957	1,954
6	2,002	2,187	2,111	2,106	2,027	1,998
Special Educ. ^a	322	200	129	82	59	54
	<u>12,284</u>	<u>12,368</u>	<u>12,580</u>	<u>12,879</u>	<u>13,543</u>	<u>13,484</u>

SOURCE: Guilford County School System, Self-Study Report for Continued Accreditation by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (Note 2, p.20)

^athe majority of the children in this category are mainstreamed.

^bdata supplied by Mrs. Janice Ressegger, Director of Guidance Services, Guilford County School System.

Children in grades three and six take tests of academic potential and achievement each spring. Scores from this testing are used for a variety of instructional as well as identification purposes. One such function of the testing is identification of gifted and talented children. Scores from this testing provide the standardized testing information used in the identification process.

The same tests, the Short Form Test of Academic Aptitude (SFTAA) and the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (CTBS) are given each spring at both grade levels.

Information (Table 7) provided from the 1974 and 1975 testing indicates that the children of Guilford County display the expected distribution of mental ability scores as determined by the administration of the Short Form Test of Academic Aptitude.

Table 7
SFTAA Testing Summary

IQ Range	Grade Level & Year				Total	
	1973-74 3rd	1974-75 3rd	1973-74 6th	1974-75 6th	Number	Percent
over 124	85	105	85	97	372	4.82
117-124	137	126	136	147	546	7.07
109-116	264	272	250	282	1,068	13.84
92-108	728	758	937	913	3,336	42.23
84- 91	287	277	312	321	1,197	15.51
76- 83	178	152	235	205	770	9.98
Below 76*	97	72	142	117	428	5.55
	<u>1,776</u>	<u>1,762</u>	<u>2,097</u>	<u>2,082</u>	<u>7,717</u>	<u>100.00</u>

*Identified educable mentally retarded students are not tested in the county-wide testing program.

Data are also collected each year on the occupational and educational status of the students' parents. Tables 8 and 9 present a summary of this information as it was presented in the spring of 1976 to the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools visiting team.

Table 8
Occupational Status in Percentages

Occupation	Father	Mother	Occupation	Father	Mother
Agricultural	2.88	.57	Semiskilled	21.58	10.70
Clerical	2.50	13.98	Service Occupations	7.67	2.97
Housewife	none	48.20	Skilled	24.24	6.53
Managerial	14.38	1.75	Unskilled	12.34	8.35
Military	.55	none	Unemployed	2.08	.75
Professional	8.68	5.19	Other (Self-employed & retired)	3.10	1.01

Self-Study, Note 2, p. 23)

Table 9
Educational Status in Percentages

Highest Level Completed	Percent
0-6 years	11.03
7-11 years	26.80
12th grade	40.43
1-3 years of college	9.28
college degree	8.52
advanced degree	2.15
Formal education beyond high school--but not college	4.34

(Self-Study, Note 2, p. 28)

Approximately one-third of the fathers of Guilford County students and 20% of the employed mothers are employed in professional or skilled jobs. This compares to 54% of the national adult population according to the 1977 statistics (U. S. Population Profile). Nationally, another 8% of the adult males and 3% of the adult females are employed as managers, administrators or are self-employed. Among Guilford County parents 17.01% of the fathers and about 2% of the working mothers are employed in such positions. Almost one-half of the working fathers in Guilford County are employed in unskilled or semi-skilled positions. On the national level, 3% of the men, 4% of the women are in sales; 11% of the men, 1% of the women are craftsmen, 9% of the men and 6% of the women are in transportation or operatives; and 4% of the men and 1% of the women are laborers.

Approximately 37.83% of the parents in Guilford County did not complete high school. On the national level in 1977, 34.5% of all men and 35% of all women over the age of 25 did not complete high school (1977 U. S. Population Profile). Forty percent of the parents completed high school. Nationally, the percentages were 32% of all men over 25 years old and 40% of all the females. While only 9.28% of the parents of Guilford County students attended 1-3 years of college, another 4.34% obtained formal education beyond high school in such institutions as technical schools.

National statistics do not discriminate between colleges and technical schools but list 14.25% of adult males and 13% of the women having had 1-3 years of college and 19.25% of the men, 12% of the women as college graduates. In Guilford County, 8.52% of the parents have college degrees and another 2.15% have advanced degrees.

Of the 29 elementary schools in Guilford County 22 serve grades four through six. Of these schools, nine are classified as "rural," eight as "urban," and five are located in "small communities."

During the fall of 1977, 314 children were identified as gifted and talented according to the 1975 North Carolina definition and Guilford County identification procedures. Of these children, seven (.02%) were minority children. There were 137 boys, 177 girls. Eighty-six (86) were current fourth graders, 95 were fifth graders, and 133 were sixth graders.

Identification was begun on the local level in the spring of 1977. Workshops were held for all 3-5th grade teachers and principals. At that time the purpose of the program was introduced, identification procedures explained, and teachers were informed that all children scoring above the 85%ile on either the SFTAA or CTBS tests must be referred. Teachers were also told that any additional children could be referred at the discretion of the principal, parent, or themselves.

Additional referrals were screened during the fall of 1977, parents notified, and permission secured prior to a child's participation in the program.

Each child's referral included the following:

- total IQ score from the SFTAA
- reading comprehension subtest score from the CTBS
- mathematics concept subtest score from the CTBS
- grades from the past two years converted through a local percentile procedure
- score from the Teacher Rating Form, a behavioral checklist written by Guilford County Exceptional Child Services' personnel.

Instrumentation

The Short Form Test of Academic Aptitude (SFTAA) and the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (CTBS)

The SFTAA and CTBS, both published by CTB/McGraw-Hill, are given each spring to all third and sixth grade students in Guilford County. Scores from these tests are used during the process of identifying gifted students.

For the purposes of this study, three of the percentile ranks obtained for each gifted student were converted to standard scores. These percentile ranks were those on the total IQ score of the SFTAA, the reading comprehension and the mathematics concepts subtests of the CTBS.

Information on means and standard deviations needed for the conversion of the CTBS scores are available in the Technical Bulletin #1 (McGraw-Hill, 1974, p. 31). Standard scores for the SFTAA are provided in the Examiner's Manual.

Guilford County Teacher Rating Form

The Guilford County Teacher Rating Form was compiled by the school system's Exceptional Child Services staff during the 1976-77 school year. The rating form consists of 25 phrases describing "behaviors associated with the gifted student" such as

- asks many provocative questions;
- curious about many things;
- is a high risk taker, adventuresome and speculative;
- is interested in intellectual activity and enjoys intellectual playfulness;
- can see relationships among unrelated facts.

Raw scores range from 0 to 25 which are then converted to percentiles.

Content for the checklist came from two types of sources. The first were lists of characteristics which differentiate the gifted from average child. One such list (Williams & Eberle, 1968, p. 38) lists nineteen "traits common to intellectually gifted students" which contains approximately 70-80% of the items included on the scale. Approximately one half of the checklist's remaining items came from the "Characteristics of Talents Not Disclosed by Standardized Tests," a list of 31 such characteristics written by William O. Cummings, Supervisor of the San Francisco Unified School District (Watson & Tongue, 1975, pp. 13-14). The remaining items were drawn from the list of characteristics given in Watson's and Tongue's introduction.

The other source consulted in development of the Guilford County Teacher Rating Form was the various checklists

already being used in North Carolina and across the nation.

Among the checklists examined were the:

Renzulli-Hartman Scale for Rating Behavioral Characteristics of Superior Students (Renzulli, Hartman, & Callahan, 1971).

Characteristics of Talented Pupils Checklist and "Checklist for Recommending Gifted and Creative Students" (Watson & Tongue, 1975).

Characteristics of Able Disadvantaged Pupils (Tongue & Sperling, 1976).

General criteria for admittance to the North Carolina Governor's School (1978 Criteria, Nominating Procedures, and Student Selection [Note 3]).

During the months of February and March, 1978, two studies were conducted to determine the reliability and the discriminant validity of the Teacher Rating Form. Once in February and again in March, copies of the Teacher Rating Form were sent to the homeroom teachers of 90 identified gifted children. In each instance teachers were asked to complete the form for each of their students.

While 100% of the forms were returned in February, only 89% of them were returned during the March administration. Five percent of the return rate decline was due to one homeroom teacher going on maternity leave at the end of February.

Using the forms returned for the 89% (80 children), a Pearson product moment correlation coefficient for test-retest reliability (five weeks) of .90 was found. Reliability data are summarized in Table 10.

Table 10
 Test-Retest (Five Week) Reliability for the
 Guilford County Teacher Rating Form

Subgroup	<u>N</u>	<u>r</u>
4th grade	23	.96
5th grade	25	.86
6th grade	32	.86
Boys	34	.95
Girls	46	.87

To establish whether scores on the Teacher Rating Form would discriminate between gifted and non-gifted/average students, teachers were asked to complete the forms on 90 children not identified as gifted. These children were randomly selected from the same homerooms as the gifted children on whom the test-retest study had been completed.

Using the same schools guaranteed that the same teachers who had provided the data on the gifted children for this study would also be supplying information on the nongifted children. Also, these average children would perhaps be more similar to the group of 90 gifted children since they all attend the same schools, live in the same neighborhoods, etc.

Of the 90 children selected to represent the non-gifted population, forms were returned on 85 (94%). Of these, six were discarded either due to questionable scoring (i.e., one was returned unmarked and the investigator was unable to determine if that represented a score of zero or an incomplete form) or because the children were either identified mentally retarded children or were pending placement in the gifted program and therefore could not be included in either the gifted or average/non-gifted group.

A z test for different means was used to examine the null hypothesis that $\bar{X}_1 = \bar{X}_2$ where \bar{X}_1 represents the mean score the gifted children received on the Teacher Rating Form and \bar{X}_2 the mean score of the average/non-gifted group. Information and results are given in Table 11, where it is evident that the form does in fact discriminate a gifted from a nongifted student.

Table 11

Discriminant Validity of the Teacher Rating Form

	Gifted	Average/Nongifted
<u>n</u>	80	79
<u>M</u>	21.24	6.772
<u>SD</u>	4.023	5.421
<u>z</u> = 19.02	<u>p</u> = .0000	

My Thoughts on School

The present study also tried to determine whether there was a relationship between students' perceptions of their teacher's evaluation of their ability and (1) the score the children obtained on the Teacher Rating Form and (2) the children's self-concept scores. A scale entitled "My Thoughts on School" was written by the investigator to help answer this question.

The scale contains 13 statements to which the children respond "usually," "sometimes," or "never." Only item #5 "My teacher thinks I am a good student" and item #12 "My teacher thinks I am intelligent" were scored, however, The maximum score of four would be obtained if a student answered "usually" to both items. Responding "sometimes" to an item was worth one point; a "never" response gave no points.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale

The PHCSCS, an 80-item paper and pencil inventory, was administered to all children in the two samples. The PHCSCS is constructed of simple declarative sentences. Six cluster scores are provided through factor analysis. These cluster scores concern the dimensions of behavior, intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attributes, anxiety, popularity, and happiness and satisfaction. A composite score is also provided for the

children and they were said to have a positive self-concept if they obtained a score above the norming group's mean.

Data Collection

In order to be sure that the Teacher Rating score reflected the current teacher's appraisal of the child, each teacher was contacted during the 1978 spring semester and asked to complete a form for each gifted child in her homeroom.

Column two of Table 12 gives the number of gifted children attending each of the county's elementary schools, identified here as being "urban," "rural," or "small community" school. In column 3 the number of children for whom forms were returned is reported and column four reports the return rate in percentages.

For each of the 272 students with complete data, a difference score was obtained by subtracting the standard score on the Teacher Rating Form from the average standard score of the SFTAA and CTBS tests.

The obtained differences were then ranked and two samples were generated as being ± 1 SD from the mean difference of 15.3756. Group I contained all students (n=49) whose difference score ≤ 4.1966 . Group II contained all students (n=49) whose difference score ≥ 26.5546 . Group I was said to have consistent identification data; Group II, inconsistent identification data.

Table 12
Return Rate for Teacher Rating Forms

School	Number of Children	Number of Forms Returned	Percentage Returned
Rural	8	8	100
Rural	36	24	68
Small Community	21	20	95
Urban	5	5	100
Small Community	17	17	100
Small Community	5	5	100
Rural	4	4	100
Rural	15	14	93
Rural	8	8	100
Urban	7	7	100
Urban	2	2	100
Urban	28	28	100
Small Community	12	12	100
Rural	2	(2) 1*	100
Urban	1	1	100
Rural	11	11	100
Rural	13	1	8
Urban	43	43	100
Rural	1	1	100
Urban	43	31	72
Urban	13	11	85
Small Community	<u>19</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>95</u>
Totals	314	272	87%

*Teacher new to class; therefore she did not know student well and asked that her rating not be used.

Principals of the 98 children in the two samples were contacted and a date arranged for the children to take the PHCSCS and the "My Thoughts on School" scale.

Parents were also notified. A letter was sent identifying the investigator and the study as a "research project concerning the self-concept and attitude towards school" of their children. Parents were informed that each child would be involved for about "30 minutes during one school day" and that "each child would only be identified by GRADE AND SEX." Each parent was also given the option of not allowing his/her child to participate. (Only one parent asked that his child not participate because he would miss classtime.)

Ninety-two children completed both instruments. Besides the one child whose parents refused permission, five children were absent from school on the day the study was conducted.

Prior to the administration of the scales, the investigator introduced herself by name. She told the children that she was a teacher, but did not specify of gifted children, and that she was also a student. A few minutes were spent discussing the children's summer plans. The author then told the children she would be in school this summer and asked their help with a "homework assignment."

Table 13
Identifying Characteristics of
Children in Sample

Group and Sex	Children Present on the Day of Testing			Children Absent on the Day of Testing		
	Grade Level			Grade Level		
	4th	5th	6th	4th	5th	6th
Consistent--Males	4	10	6	0	0	0
Females	6	5	17	0	0	1
Inconsistent--Males	5	4	7	0	1	0
Females	5	11	12	1	2	1
Totals	—	—	—	—	—	—
	20	30	42	1	3	2

As with the parents, children were guaranteed anonymity and asked if they would agree to complete the forms. All agreed to do so.

The directions explaining how to complete the form and encouraging honesty for each form were then read to the children. They were asked to respond "how they really felt" and allowed to read and complete the forms. This took an average of fifteen minutes.

Analysis of Data

To analyze the data and test hypothesis I, a 3 x 2 x 2 analysis of variance procedure was used. This analysis was

done to ascertain whether the total and/or factors of self-concept scores on the PHCSCS discriminate to a significant degree among the groupings. The level of significance was set at .05 for this statistical procedure.

Due to the limited range of partial scores on the "My Thoughts Towards School" scale, a correlation ratio was used to analyze the data and test hypotheses II and III with the partial scores converted to categorical data. The level of significance was set at $p \leq .05$ for these statistical procedures.

CHAPTER IV
ANALYSIS OF DATA

The data presented below have been analyzed in accordance with procedures outlined in Chapter III. Other related items are also considered.

Hypotheses Tested

The null hypotheses tested and the outcomes of analyses are as follows:

HO₁: There is no significant difference between the self-concept scores, as measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, of gifted students with consistent identification data and gifted students with inconsistent identification data.

Significant differences ($p < .05$) were found in the analysis of variance (ANOVA) when the mean total score of gifted children with consistent identification data was compared with that obtained by gifted children with inconsistent data. (Table 14) The null hypothesis was therefore rejected. A comparison of means revealed that the group of gifted children with inconsistent identification data obtained a higher total mean score ($\bar{M} = 68.636$) on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale than gifted children with consistent identification data ($\bar{M} = 63.688$). A full reporting of means can be found in Appendix A and a discussion of the significance of this finding is contained in Chapter V.

Table 14
ANOVA: Total PHCSCS Scores

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees Freedom	Mean Squares	F Value
Group	562.234	1	562.234	7.77*
Sex	169.929	1	169.929	2.35
Grade	130.961	2	65.481	.91
Group X Sex	13.096	1	13.096	.18
Group X Grade	20.880	2	10.44	.14
Sex X Grade	153.774	2	76.887	1.06
Group X Sex X Grade	225.25	2	112.625	1.56
Error	5786.569	80	72.332	
Total	7062.728	91		

*Statistically significant ($p < .05$)

The stipulated level of significance ($p < .05$) was only reached with the comparison of group means, however. Mean scores obtained by males and females; fourth, fifth, and sixth graders; and interaction of group, sex, and grade were also analyzed. None of these comparisons yielded statistically significant results.

In addition to a total self-concept score, it is possible to obtain scores from the PHCSCS on each of six self-concept factors. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed for each factor to determine what additional information, if any, this would provide.

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Factor I, "Behavior"; and Factor VI, "Happiness and Satisfaction"; did not yield any statistically significant results.

Factor II, "Intellectual and School Status," did significantly discriminate between groups and sex (Table 15). As with the comparison of total mean scores, gifted students with inconsistent identification data obtained a higher mean score ($\bar{M} = 16.432$) compared to gifted students with consistent identification data ($\bar{M} = 15.083$). Gifted females scored higher on Factor II ($\bar{M} = 16.214$) than gifted males ($\bar{M} = 14.972$).

Table 15
ANOVA: Factor II, Intellectual and School
Status, of PHSCS

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees Freedom	Mean Squares	F Value
Group	41.744	1	41.744	8.53*
Sex	29.939	1	29.939	6.12*
Grade	16.762	2	8.381	1.71
Group X Sex	2.881	1	2.881	.59
Group X Grade	6.524	2	3.262	.67
Sex X Grade	33.293	2	16.647	3.40*
Group X Sex X Grade	11.706	2	5.853	1.20
Error	391.358	80	4.892	
Total	534.207	91		

*Statistically significant ($p < .05$)

The analysis of variance for Factor II also indicated a statistically significant result was obtained for the interaction of sex and grade. As can be seen in Table 16 the range of means on Factor II, "Intellectual and School Status," was quite small with the actual difference between

the highest (obtained for sixth grade females, $\bar{M} = 16.862$) and the lowest (obtained for fifth grade males, $\bar{M} = 14.357$) being only 2.505 points.

Table 16

Factor II, Intellectual and School Status, Means

Group	Mean
Fourth Grade	
Females	15.182
Males	16.333
Fifth Grade	
Females	15.750
Males	14.357
Sixth Grade	
Females	16.862
Males	14.692

Figure 2 depicts the pattern of scores obtained in this study for Factor II. The scores for gifted females increased at each grade level. The mean score obtained for gifted males, however, dropped from a high of 16.33 at the fourth grade to 14.36 at the fifth grade and then rose slightly to 14.692 at the sixth grade.

To locate the simple effects of the interaction, grade level was first held constant in order to examine differences between males and females. Significant differences ($p \leq .05$) were only found in the analysis of variance for sixth graders (Table 17) with females ($\bar{M} = 16.862$) scoring significantly higher than males ($\bar{M} = 14.692$).

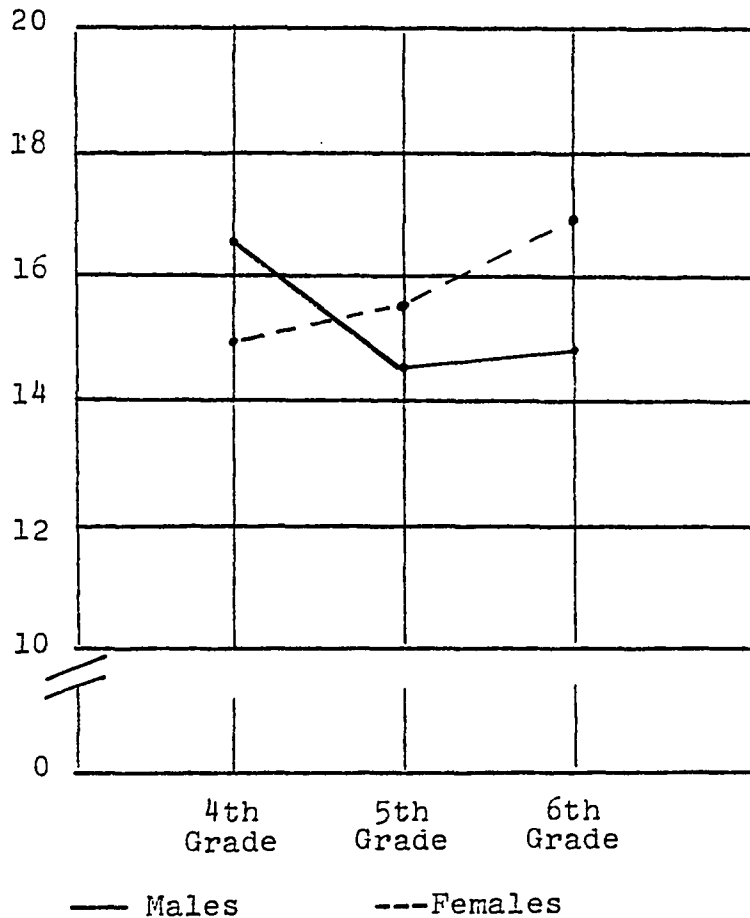


Figure 2. Comparison of mean scores for Factor II

Table 17
Analysis of Variance of Simple Effects
of Sex at Sixth Grade

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Method	1	42.259	42.259	9.7*
Error	80	391.358	4.892	

*Statistically significant ($p \leq .05$)

When sex was held constant in order to examine scores across grade levels, the analysis of variance for females produced significant results (Table 18).

Table 18
Analysis of Variance of Simple Effects
of Grade for Females

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>
Method	2	27.346	13.673	3.853*
Error	80	391.358	4.892	

*Statistically significant ($p \leq .10$)

Scheffé's test was used to locate the areas of significance. Although the difference between fourth grade females' mean score of 15.182 was found to differ significantly ($p \leq .10$) from that of the sixth grade females' score of 16.862, the F value of 3.853 was only marginally greater than the required critical value. No significant differences could be observed between fourth and fifth grade females or fifth and sixth grade females.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of mean scores for Factor III, "Physical Appearance and Attributes"; and Factor IV, "Anxiety"; produced statistically significant results only between groups (Tables 19 and 20). Again, gifted students with inconsistent identification data obtained the higher mean score. On Factor III their mean

score was 9.727 compared to gifted students with consistent data who obtained a mean of 8.563. On Factor IV students with inconsistent identification data scored 10.091, while students with consistent identification data scored 9.167.

Table 19
ANOVA: Factor III, Physical Appearance
and Attributes, of PHCSCS

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees Freedom	Mean Squares	F Value
Group	31.145	1	31.145	5.50*
Sex	.691	1	.691	.12
Grade	12.814	2	6.407	1.13
Group X Sex	2.093	1	2.093	.37
Group X Grade	1.225	2	.613	.11
Sex X Grade	21.671	2	10.836	1.92
Group X Sex X Grade	25.417	2	12.709	2.25
Error	452.629	80	5.5658	
Total	547.685	91		

*Statistically significant ($p < .05$)

And finally, analysis of variance (ANOVA) of mean scores for Factor V, "Popularity," produced statistically significant results for both groups and sex (Table 21). Here again gifted students with inconsistent identification data obtained a higher mean score ($\underline{M} = 9.955$) than gifted students with consistent identification data ($\underline{M} = 8.917$) and gifted females scored higher ($\underline{M} = 9.929$) than gifted males ($\underline{M} = 8.611$).

Table 20

ANOVA: Factor IV, Anxiety, of PHCSCS

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees Freedom	Mean Squares	F Value
Group	19.610	1	19.610	4.12*
Sex	.812	1	.812	.17
Grade	13.276	2	6.638	1.40
Group X Sex	6.742	1	6.742	1.42
Group X Grade	3.859	2	1.930	.41
Sex X Grade	.607	2	.304	.06
Group X Sex X Grade	.349	2	.175	.04
Error	380.658	80	190.329	
Total	425.913	91		

*Statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Table 21

ANOVA: Factor V, Popularity, of PHCSCS

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees Freedom	Mean Squares	F Value
Group	24.729	1	24.729	5.24*
Sex	34.881	1	34.881	7.40*
Grade	8.046	2	4.023	.85
Group X Sex	.418	1	.418	.09
Group X Grade	8.342	2	4.171	.88
Sex X Grade	21.361	2	10.681	2.27
Group X Sex X Grade	9.304	2	4.652	.99
Error	377.225	80	4.715	
Total	484.304	91		

*Statistically significant ($p < .05$)

The second and third hypotheses dealt with the relationship of scores on the "My Thoughts on School"

scale and those on the PHCSCS and the Teacher Rating Form. The null hypotheses tested and outcomes of the analyses are as follows:

HO₂: There is no significant relationship between the self-concept scores of gifted students and the partial scores from the "My Thoughts on School" scale.

The correlation ratio of .14, although relatively low, was statistically significant ($p < .05$). Therefore the null hypothesis is rejected.

HO₃: There is no significant relationship between the scores of gifted students on the Teacher Rating Form and the partial scores from the "My Thoughts on School" scale.

The correlation ratio of .003 was not statistically significant. Therefore the null hypothesis is not rejected.

For both hypotheses, the number of pairs used in the comparison was 92.

Related Items

While various writers have postulated that gifted students and adults have a more positive self-concept than the population at large (Hildreth, 1966; Smith, 1962; Terman, 1926), the presentation of statistical data is often absent. Studies of the self-concept of gifted elementary-school children in particular are almost nonexistent.

Since 1970, however, two studies (Schauer, 1975; Yates, 1975) have examined the self-concept of identified elementary-school students and both used the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale as at least one of the research instruments. Table 22 presents a comparison of obtained mean

Table 22
 Self-Concept Scores for Gifted Children Using the PHSCS:
 A Comparison of Three Studies

	M	SD	Range	n
<u>Piers (1969)</u>				
Normative group	51.84	13.87	18-76	1138
<u>Schauer (1975)</u>				
Gifted Children--IQ above 125	63.16	10.79	37-78	86
Gifted Children--IQ below 125 and not enrolled in program	55.58	13.72	15-79	43
Children who are not gifted	52.69	14.21	18-77	86
<u>Yates (1975)</u>				
Total gifted group	61.6	10.8	32-79	153
Females	61.4	10.3	32-78	70
Males	61.8	11.2	33-79	83
Achievers	66.1	9.2	44-79	80
Females	67.1	9.5	44-78	37
Males	65.3	9.5	45-79	43
Underachievers	56.7	10.3	32-79	73
<u>Present Study</u>				
Total gifted group	66.05	8.8	41-80	92
Females	67.25	7.3	50-78	56
Males	64.19	10.6	41-80	36
Consistent data	63.69	9.5	41-78	48
Inconsistent data	68.64	7.3	43-80	44
4th graders	66.50	6.8	55-75	20
5th graders	64.27	9.4	41-80	30
6th graders	67.12	9.2	42-78	42

scores from these two previous studies and the results of this investigator's findings.

Since it would be impossible to assure that either the entire population of gifted children was included or adequately represented in each study or that the procedures for identifying children in each group would have been equitable, the data presented have not been statistically analyzed. Examination of Table 22, however, does reveal that, with the exception of gifted underachievers (Yates, 1975), gifted children in all three studies scored .7 to 1.2 SD above the norm group's mean of 51.84 as reported by Piers (1969). Scores of gifted children in the three studies also show a much smaller range of raw scores (32-80) and standard deviations (6.8-11.2) than the norm group's.

CHAPTER V
CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the self-concept of two groups of gifted fourth, fifth, and sixth grade public school students. The relationship between the child's self-concept and the child's perception of the teacher rating was also studied, as was the child's perception of the teacher rating compared to the actual scores from the Teacher Rating Form.

The sample consisted of 98 children in a piedmont North Carolina school system, 92 of whom completed both research instruments. The children had been previously identified as gifted through a multi-faceted identification procedure involving the examination of several sources of data. The collected data included standardized test scores, grades, and a teacher rating which had norms established for that particular population. Grades were not considered in the present study since a system-wide, absolute criterion of evaluation could not be insured. Children were assigned to one of the two research groups based on the consistency or inconsistency of the identification data. Operationally, these groups consisted of the students with difference scores greater than $\pm 1 S D$ from the group mean. Each student's difference score was derived by subtracting the Teacher Rating

standard score from the average of the standardized test scores. Self-concept was measured by the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. The student's perception of the teacher's opinion of the academic ability of the student was measured by the "My Thoughts on School" scale.

A 3X2X2 analysis of variance was used to test for differences in total self-concept scores by Grade/Sex/Group. Scheffé's test of pairwise comparisons for unequal N 's was used to determine the location of significant differences between means. Significant differences, found to exist through 3X2X2 analyses of variance of the six factors of self-concept, were also reported. Level of significance was set at $p \leq .05$.

A correlation ratio was computed to examine the relationship between self-concept and the students' perceptions, and between the teacher rating and students' perceptions. Again, the level of significance was set at $p \leq .05$

Summary of Results

Gifted children with inconsistent identification data were found to have a significantly higher total mean self-concept score ($\underline{M} = 68.64$) than gifted children with consistent identification data ($\underline{M} = 63.69$). The required level of significance ($p < .05$) for differences was found only when comparing the total groups, however. No significant differences were found when comparing males to females

in the two groups. Nor were significant differences found when comparing fourth, fifth, and sixth graders in the two groups.

Four factors of the PHCSCS were found to significantly discriminate between Group I and II, and in each case gifted students with inconsistent identification data (Group II) obtained the higher mean score. The four factors were Factor II, "Intellectual and School Status"; Factor III, "Physical Appearance and Attributes"; Factor IV, "Anxiety"; and Factor V, "Popularity."

Results from Factor II, "Intellectual and School Status," were found to significantly discriminate between males (\underline{M} = 14.98) and females (\underline{M} = 16.21).

The interaction of sex and grade for Factor II also produced significant results on this factor of self-concept, with sixth grade females obtaining higher scores (\underline{M} = 16.862) than sixth grade males (\underline{M} = 14.692). Sixth grade females also scored significantly higher than fourth grade females (\underline{M} = 15.182).

Females (\underline{M} = 9.93) obtained a significantly higher mean score than males (\underline{M} = 8.61) on Factor V, "Popularity."

Two correlation ratios were computed to compare results from the "My Thoughts on School" scale. A statistically significant (p \leq .05), but low (r = .14), outcome was found for the comparison of the total score from the PHCSCS and the partial score of the "My Thoughts on School" scale.

The correlation ratio of .003 between the score each child received on the Teacher Rating Form and his/her partial score on the "My Thoughts on School" scale lacked significance.

Under related items, the total mean score obtained by the children in this investigation was compared to those reported in Piers' (1969) normative study and two previous studies of elementary-school gifted children (Schauer, 1975; Yates, 1975). All means for gifted children were found to lie between 56.7 and 68.64, while the mean for a normal population of elementary school children (Piers, 1969) was 51.84.

Discussion

The null hypothesis was that there would be no significant difference between the self-concept of gifted children with consistent identification data and gifted children with inconsistent identification data. This null hypothesis was rejected as the gifted children with inconsistent identification data did display a significantly higher score on the self-concept measure. The means for both groups, however, fell approximately one standard deviation above the mean of the normative study (Piers, 1969) and indicate a very positive self-concept existed for the entire sample. This finding is in agreement with previous studies of the self-concept of gifted children (Schauer, 1975; Yates, 1975)

which found a significantly higher self-concept when comparing gifted children to those identified as average.

That the group of children with inconsistent identification data had the more positive self-concept might seem at first contrary to expectations based on the self-concept theoretical literature. Purkey (1968) and Combs et al. (1971) stress the importance of one's interaction with the educational environment in the formation of a youngster's self-concept. Perceptions about one's ability in the academic and social realms are received, evaluated, and assimilated into the construct of self. If the reasoning that the existence of positive perceptions enhances self-concept is correct, why would children with inconsistent identification data evidence a more positive self-concept?

A closer examination of the literature, the initial identification, and the present study's results yield four possible reasons as to why the inconsistency of the data did not adversely affect the child's self-concept.

First, it should be noted that while the difference between Group II's mean score of 68.64 and Group I's mean score of 63.69 is statistically significant, it is only a difference of 4.95 points. This is not a large difference in practical terms, particularly since both groups have mean scores so far above the mean of the normative group.

Second, a review of the initial data revealed that for every child with inconsistent data, the Teacher Rating

standard score was lower than the standard score obtained from the standardized test data. While this data might be evidence of the existence of negative evaluations of the children's abilities, perhaps it is not viewed as an important evaluation by the students. Perhaps then teachers are not "significant others" to gifted students and so a negative judgment does not affect the positive self-concept which already exists for such children.

A third explanation centers around the knowledge of the negative ratings. While the scores from the Teacher Rating were available to the children, this study did not attempt to prove that the beliefs expressed about the child on the Teacher Rating Form were in all cases known or understood by the children. The nonsignificance of the correlation of "My Thoughts on School" scores and the Teacher Rating Form scores would indicate that perhaps they were not aware of the negative rating. Also, a low score on a Teacher Rating Form may not have been translated into negative verbal or nonverbal feedback on the part of the teacher, which, according to Gibby and Gibby (1967) would have had an unfavorable influence on the student's self-concept.

And finally, it is possible that even if the teacher were viewed as a "significant other" and the student was aware of the poor rating, the teacher's rating was possibly viewed as inconsistent with other available

perceptions and, therefore, rejected. If a child receives mostly positive feedback about academic and social endeavors, then a negative evaluation from one source might be viewed as inaccurate and perhaps even inconsequential. In such an instance, Combs et al. (1971) and Purkey (1970) report that the child will resist accepting it.

The preceding discussion concerning the possibility that the teacher was not a significant other, or that the teacher's perception was not available or was rejected, all help to explain why the group of gifted children with inconsistent data did not have lower self-concept scores than the group with consistent data. But the inconsistent data group had higher self-concept scores. How can that finding be understood and explained?

Again, one must start with a re-examination of the initial identification data. The mean standardized test score for gifted children in Group I was 62.13, while that of Group II was 64.73 (Table 23). Use of a two-sample t test indicates that this difference is significant with Group II displaying higher mean test data. Children in Group II, then, scored significantly higher on the test of academic aptitude and/or tests of achievement. Perhaps, then, this was a case of an achievement variable being more central to the issue of self-concept than the inconsistency of identification data.

Table 23
 Comparison of Group Means from the Teacher Rating
 and Average Standardized Test Data

	Group I	Group II
Teacher Rating		
Mean	60.26	32.37
Standard Deviation	1.65	5.8
Standardized Test Data		
Mean	62.13	64.73
Standard Deviation	1.6	2.1

If that were true, the results of this investigation would be in agreement with findings from previous research (Anastasiow, 1964, 1967; Yates, 1975) into the relationship of achievement and self-concept when achievement is expressed as a function of standardized test scores. Yates (1975) used the Wide Range Achievement Test to determine the level of academic achievement and set a criterion for being an "achiever" as obtaining averaged academic achievement two years above grade level expectations. This level is a reasonable expectation according to recent literature (Gallagher, 1975). While probably all the children in this study would resemble those Yates called achievers, a difference in level of achievement can be determined in the present study. With the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale as the measure of self-concept, Yates (1975)

found a statistically significant and positive relationship ($p < .05$) between self-concept scores and averaged academic achievement. "It was found," reports Yates (p. 79), "that achievers, regardless of sex or grade, obtained significantly greater self-concept scores than underachievers." If this is a valid conclusion, it is logical to expect a difference in self-concept between groups displaying varying levels of achievement such as in the present study. This conclusion seems all the more reasonable when one remembers that while a significant difference in self-concept was found, the magnitude of the difference was relatively small.

The gifted children with inconsistent data not only scored higher on the total measure of self-concept, but also scored more positively than the consistent group on the factors of "Intellectual and School Status"; "Physical Appearance and Attributes"; "Anxiety"; and "Popularity." Does this information indicate that these children are receiving specific, positive feedback from peers and academic achievement, the integration of which sustains a positive self-concept? Perhaps future studies should focus on the relationship of such positive experiences with the use of outside data such as that provided by sociograms used for validation.

Also of interest is the question of whether these children are reacting to real or imagined attitudes of their

peers. Are they assessing their performance in academic areas correctly? Are the significant others for gifted fourth, fifth, and sixth graders their peers rather than their teachers? While research on the topic of peers as "significant others" has not been done involving only gifted children, the literature does support the contention that one's peers have a great deal of influence on children in general, particularly from fourth grade on through high school (Developmental Psychology Today, 1971; Lippitt & Gold, 1959; Morse & Wingo, 1962; Ruch, 1967).

Examination of the initial identification data for both groups yields one final observation. When a Pearson product moment correlation coefficient is computed for the relationship of Teacher Rating scores and mean test scores, the result is an $r = -.41$, which is significant at the $p .01$ level. Teachers rated the very brightest children, based on the mean test score, the most poorly. Yet the children in this group still had the higher mean self-concept score! Could this mean that, although the Teacher Rating Form has been proven (Table 11) to discriminate between gifted and average students, the more highly gifted are not recognized by their teachers? Or is a variable such as classroom performance clouding the issue? Do these gifted children either not participate or cooperate because they are bored? Does their level of intelligence frighten teachers who then react negatively? Whatever the reason, this would

seem to be an area of concern to educators; one that needs to be further investigated.

No sex difference was found in comparing the total self-concept score of the two groups. This is not in agreement with Yates (1975) who found more positive self-concept scores for females, but it is in agreement with Schauer (1975), and supports the statement by Piers (1969) that no consistent sex differences had been demonstrated on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. Although neither Yates nor Schauer reported scores from the six factors, females in the present study did score significantly higher on Factor II, "Intellectual and School Status" and on Factor V, "Popularity."

In the present investigation, no significant difference in self-concept was found between fourth ($\bar{M} = 66.5$), fifth ($\bar{M} = 64.27$), and sixth graders ($\bar{M} = 67.12$). While this is in agreement with Piers (1969), it is not in agreement with either Schauer (1975) or Yates (1975).

Schauer found that gifted fifth graders had a statistically significant and more positive self-concept than sixth graders. He speculated (p. 54) that this might be because "the sixth graders, being in the final elementary school grade . . ., foresee themselves in the near future with apprehension." This present investigation was undertaken during the final academic quarter, however, and the

sixth graders in this sample had the highest, if nonsignificantly different, self-concept scores.

The present study, while not finding a significant difference in self-concept of the fourth, fifth, and sixth graders, does mirror Yates' (1975) finding relative to grade level. Yates reports a significantly lower score for fifth graders as compared to third and fourth graders. The present investigation does show a drop in scores from fourth ($M = 66.5$) to fifth grade ($M = 64.3$), but it is not a significant drop.

One final observation from the data seems pertinent and reflects a similar finding in Schauer's (1975) study. While the gifted children in both studies show a very positive self-concept with the mean score in both studies approximately one standard deviation above the normative group mean, 5% of the children in each study scored below the normative mean of 51. (Yates [1975] does not report such information, but it can be assumed that he too had several children score below 51 since his lowest reported score was 32, much lower than the groups of gifted children reported by Schauer or the present investigator.)

These children, as Schauer suggests, should be the cause of concern to educators. Do these children really have a negative view of themselves, and if so, what are the possible reasons? Can programs for gifted children be planned which

will focus on the affective as well as the cognitive needs of gifted children?

Recommendations for Further Research

Research should be continued on the general subject of gifted elementary children and their self-concept. Although there is a wealth of research available concerning such students on the secondary level, surprisingly few studies have focused on the elementary child. This might have been due to a lack of an identified population, or as suggested earlier, because appropriate instruments were not available. Neither of these conditions would seem to exist at the present, and the need for reliable studies concerning this group is great.

The discerned incidence of relatively lower teacher ratings for the more highly gifted students found in the present study needs to be studied and replicated if possible. If in fact it is an actual occurrence, the reasons should be explored.

Also, as suggested earlier, if a segment of the gifted population does have a poor self-concept, this problem deserves investigation as to the reasons and possible intervention strategies.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Anastasiow, N. J. A report of self-concept of the very gifted. Gifted Child Quarterly, 1964, 8, 177-178, 189.
- Anastasiow, N. J. Sex differences in self-concept scores of high and low ability elementary students. Gifted Child Quarterly, 1967, 11, 112-116.
- Barrett, H. O. An intensive study of 32 gifted children. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1957, 36, 192-194.
- Bledsoe, J. C. Self-concepts of children and their intelligence, achievement, interests, and anxiety. Journal of Individual Psychology, 1964, 20(1), 55-58.
- Brandt, R. M. The accuracy of self-estimate: A measure of self-concept reality. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1958, 58, 55-99.
- Brookover, W. B., Patterson, A., & Thomas, T. S. Self-concept of ability and school achievement (U. S. Office of Education, Cooperative Research Project No. 845). East Lansing: Office of Research and Publications, Michigan State University, 1962.
- Bruck, M., & Bodwin, R. F. The relationship between self-concept and the presence and absence of scholastic underachievement. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1962, 18(2), 181-182.
- Bruck, M., & Bodwin, R. F. Age differences between SCS-DAP test results and gpa. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1963, 19(3), 315-316.
- Buros, O. K. (Ed.). Seventh mental measurements yearbook. Highland Park, N. J.: Gryphon Press, 1971.
- Combs, A. W., Avila, D. L., & Purkey, W. W. Helping relationships: Basic concepts for the helping professions. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1971.
- Combs, A. W., & Soper, D. W. The self, its derivative terms and research. Journal of Individual Psychology, 1957, 13, 134-145.

- Combs, A. W., Soper, D., & Courson, C. C. The measurement of self-concept and self-report. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1963, 23, 493-499.
- Coopersmith, S. A. A method for determining types of self-esteem. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1959, 59, 87-94.
- Coopersmith, S. A. The antecedents of self-esteem. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman, 1967.
- Cornish, R. F. Studies of gifted children completed by students at the University of Kansas. Lawrence: University of Kansas Publications, January, 1967.
- Cornish, R. L. Parents', teachers' and pupils' perceptions of the gifted child's ability. Gifted Child Quarterly, 1968, 12, 14-17.
- Davidson, H. H., & Lang, G. Children's perceptions of their teacher's feelings toward them related to self-perception, school achievement and behavior. Journal of Experimental Education, 1960, 29(2), 107-118.
- Dean, R. Effects of self-concept on learning with gifted children. The Journal of Educational Research, 1977, 70, 315-318.
- Developmental psychology today. Del Mar, Calif.: CRM Books, 1971.
- Division of State Budget and Management. North Carolina State Government: statistical abstract (3rd ed.). Raleigh: Author, 1976.
- Division of State Budget and Management. Profile North Carolina counties (5th ed.). Raleigh: Author, 1977.
- Doughtry, E. Test rankings and selection procedures for identifying gifted intermediate elementary children. Charleston: Eastern Illinois University, 1971. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 059246)
- Drews, E. M. The creative intellectual style in gifted adolescents, process and product: a reassessment of students and program. East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1966.
- Durr, W. K. Characteristics of gifted children: ten years of research. Gifted Child Quarterly, 1960, 4, 75-80.

- Dye, M. G. Attitudes of gifted children toward school. Educational Administration and Supervision, 1956, 42, 301-308.
- Educational attainment in the United States, March 1977 and 1976 (Series P-20 #31K). Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, December 1977.
- Freehill, M. F. Gifted children. New York: Macmillan, 1961.
- Gallagher, J. J. Research summary on gifted child education. Springfield, Ill.: Department of Program Development for Gifted Children, 1966. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED026753).
- Gallagher, J. J. Teaching the gifted child. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1975.
- Gear, G. H. Accuracy of teacher judgment in identifying intellectually gifted children: a review of the literature. Gifted Child Quarterly, 1976, 20, 478-489.
- Gibby, R. G., Sr., and Gibby, R. G., Jr. The effects of stress resulting from academic failure. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1967, 23, 35-37.
- Gowan, J. C., & Demos, G. D. The education and guidance of the ablest. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1964.
- Granzin, K. L., & Granzin, W. J. Peer group choice as a device for screening intellectually gifted children. Gifted Child Quarterly, 1969, 13, 189-194.
- Hildreth, G. H. Introduction to the gifted. New York: McGraw Hill, 1966.
- Jacobs, J. C. Are we being misled by fifty years of research on our gifted children? Gifted Child Quarterly, 1970, 14, 120-123.
- Jacobs, J. C. Effectiveness of teacher and parent identification of gifted children as a function of school level. Psychology in the Schools, 1971, 8, 140-142.
- Josephina, Sister. Teachers' reactions to gifted pupils. Gifted Child Quarterly, 1961, 5, 42-44.
- Kincaid, D. A study of highly gifted elementary pupils. Gifted Child Quarterly, 1969, 13(4), 264-267.

- Kohr, R. L. A longitudinal study of self-concept from grade 5 to grade 9. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council on Measurement in Education, Chicago, April 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED092566)
- Levinson, B. M. Rethinking the selection of intellectually gifted children. Psychological Reports, 1956, 2, 127-130.
- Lippitt, R., & Gold, M. Classroom social structure as a mental health problem. The Journal of Social Issues, 1959, 15, 40-49.
- Lowrance, D., & Anderson, H. Intercorrelation of the WISC-R and the Renzulli Hartman for determination of gifted placement. Paper presented at the meeting of Council on Exceptional Children, Atlanta, 1977. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED139140).
- Ludwig, D., & Maehr, M. Changes in self-concept and stated behavioral preferences. Child Development, 1967, 38, 453-468.
- Malone, C. E. Behavioral identification of gifted children. Gifted Child Quarterly, 1975, 19, 301-306.
- Mann, M. What does ability grouping do to the self-concept? Childhood Education, 1960, 36, 357-360.
- Marland, S. P., Jr. Education of the gifted and talented (2 vols.). Washington, D. C.: U. S. Printing Office, 1971. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED056243-244.)
- Martinson, R. A. Issues in the identification of the gifted. Exceptional Children, 1966, 33, 13-16.
- Martinson, R. A. The identification of the gifted and talented. Ventura, Calif.: Office of the Ventura County Superintendent of Schools, 1974.
- Mattocks, A. L., & Jew, C. C. The teacher's role in the development of a healthy self-concept in pupils. Education, 1974, 94, 200-204.
- McCandless, B. R., & Evans, E. D. Children and youth: psychosocial development. Hinsdale, Ill.: Dryden Press, 1973.

- McDaniel, E. Some relationships among teacher observation data and measures of self-concept and attitude toward school. Paper presented at annual meeting of American Psychological Association, Washington, D.C., September 1976. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED138887).
- McIntosh, D. K. Correlates of self-concept in gifted students (Doctoral dissertation, University of California at Los Angeles, 1966). Dissertation Abstracts, 1966, 27, 2403A. (University Microfilms No. 67-541).
- Michael, J. J., Ploss, A., & Lee, Y. B. A comparison of the self-report and the observed report in the measurement of the self-concept: Implications for construct validity. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1973, 33, 433-439.
- Morse, W. C., & Wingo, G. M. Psychology and teaching. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1962.
- Newland, T. E. The gifted in socioeducational perspective. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976.
- Parker, J. The relationship of self-report to inferred self-concept. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1966, 26, 691-700.
- Patterson, C. H. The self in recent Rogerian theory. Journal of Individual Psychology, 1961, 17, 5-11.
- Pegnato, C. W., & Birch, J. W. Locating gifted children in junior high schools: A comparison of methods. Exceptional Children, 1959, 30, 300-304.
- Perkins, H. V. Factors influencing change in children's self-concepts. Child Development, 1958, 29, 221-230.
- Perkins, H. V. Teachers' and peers' perceptions of children's self-concepts. Child Development, 1958, 29, 202-220.
- Piers, E. V. Manual for the Piers-Harris children's self-concept scale. Nashville, Tenn.: Counselor Recordings and Tests, 1969.
- Piers, E. V. The Piers-Harris children's self-concept scale Research Monograph #1. Nashville, Tenn.: Counselor Recordings and Tests, 1977.
- Piers, E. V., & Harris, D. B. Age and other correlates of self-concept in children. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1964, 55(2), 91-95.

- Population profile of the United States 1977 (Series P-20 #324). Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, April 1978.
- Purkey, W. W. Measured and professed personality characteristics of gifted high school students and an analysis of their congruence. Journal of Educational Research, 1966, 60, 99-104.
- Purkey, W. W. The self and academic achievement. Florida Educational Research and Development Council Research Bulletin, 1967, 3(1). (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EDO26681)
- Purkey, W. W. The search for self: Evaluating student self-concepts. Florida Educational Research and Development Council Bulletin, 1968, 4.
- Purkey, W. W. Self-concept and school achievement. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, 1970.
- Renzulli, J. S., Hartman, R. K., & Callahan, C. M. Identification of superior students. Exceptional Children, 1971, 38, 211-214, 243-248.
- Renzulli, J. S., & Smith, L. H. Two approaches to identification of gifted students. Exceptional Children, 1977, 43, 512-518.
- Robinson, J. P., & Shauer, P. R. Measures of social psychological attitudes (rev. ed.). Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research, 1973.
- Rogers, C. R. Client centered therapy. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951.
- Ruch, F. L. Psychology and life. Atlanta: Scott-Foresman, 1967.
- Schauer, G. H. An analysis of the self-report of fifth and sixth grade regular class children and gifted class children (Doctoral dissertation, Kent State University, 1975). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1976, 36, 6001A (University Microfilms No. 76-4943, 86).
- Shaw, M. C., & Alves, G. The self-concept of bright academic underachievers. Personnel and Guidance, 1963, 4, 401-403.
- Shaw, M. C., Edson, K., & Bell, H. M. The self-concept of bright underachieving high school students as revealed by an adjective check list. Personnel Guidance Journal, 1960, 39, 193-196.

- Shedd, M. R. The kinds of educational programs we need--now. In R. Saxe (Ed.), Opening the schools. Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1972.
- Shertzer, B. Working with superior children. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1960.
- Shreve, E. E. A critical analysis and evaluation of evidence regarding the reliability and validity of four selected measures of self-concept (Doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California, 1973). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1973, 34/02, 625 A. (University Microfilms No. 73-18, 841)
- Simmons, W. D. Honor program students: their academic attainments, personality traits and self-concept. Springfield, Ill.: Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1966.
- Smidchens, U., & Sellin, D. Attitudes towards mentally gifted learners. Gifted Child Quarterly, 1976, 20, 109-113.
- Smith, M. D., & Rogers, C. M. Item instability on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale for academic underachievers with high, middle and low self-concept: Implications for construct validity. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1977, 37, 553-558.
- Snygg, D., & Combs, A. W. Individual behavior. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949.
- Solano, C. H. Teacher and pupil stereotypes of gifted boys and girls. Paper presented at the annual meeting of American Psychological Association, Washington, D. C., September 1976. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED137667)
- State Department of Education. Educational programs for gifted pupils. Sacramento, Calif.: 1961.
- Strong, D. J., & Fedder, D. D. Measurement of the self-concept: A critique of the literature. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1961, 8, 170-178.
- Taylor, C. W. Developing effectively functioning people--the accountability of multiple talent teaching. Education, 1973, 94, 99-111.

- Taylor, C. W. Multiple talent teaching. Today's Education, March-April, 1974, pp. 71-74.
- Technical bulletin No. 1 (for the Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills form S, all levels). Del Monte Research Park, Monterey, CA: CTB/McGraw-Hill, 1974.
- Terman, L. M. (Ed.). Genetic studies of genius (Vol. 1). Stanford University: Stanford University Press, 1926.
- Thomas, G. I., & Crescimbeni, J. Guiding the gifted child. New York: Random House, 1966.
- Thomas, S. B. Neglecting the gifted causes them to hide their talents. Gifted Child Quarterly, 1973, 17, 193-197.
- Tongue, C., & Sperling, C. Gifted and talented: An identification model (Title V, Section 505 Project Grant #G00-7500679). Raleigh: Division for Exceptional Children, North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction, 1976.
- Torrance, E. P. Broadening concepts of giftedness in the 70's. Gifted Child Quarterly, 1970, 14, 199-208.
- Torrance, E. P. Identity: The gifted child's major problem. Gifted Child Quarterly, 1971, 15, 147-155.
- Trowbridge, N. T. Self-concept and IQ in elementary school children: Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory. California Journal of Educational Research, 1974, 25, 37-49.
- Walton, G. Identification of intellectually gifted children in the public school kindergarten. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California at Los Angeles, 1961.
- Watson, O. A., & Tongue, C. Suggestions for identification of gifted and talented students (Rev. ed.). Raleigh: North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction, 1975. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED111167)

- Wattenberg, W. W., & Clifford, C. Relationship of self-concept to beginning achievement in reading (U. S. Office of Education, Cooperative Research Project No. 377). Detroit: Wayne State University, 1962.
- Werblo, D., & Torrance, E. P. Experiences in historical research and changes in self-evaluations of gifted children. Exceptional Children, 1966, 33, 137-141.
- Whitmore, J. R. Thinking about my school: The development of an inventory to measure pupil perception of the elementary school environment.(Stanford Center for Research and Development. Memorandum #125), Stanford University, 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED100998)
- Williams, F. E., & Eberle, R. Content, process, practice; creative production in the classroom. Edwardsville, Ill.: Creative Concepts Unlimited, 1968.
- Wilson, C. Using test results and teacher evaluation in identifying gifted pupils. Personnel and Guidance, 1963, 4, 720-721.
- Wittek, M. J. Reflections of the gifted by the gifted on the gifted. Gifted Child Quarterly, 1973, 17, 250-253.
- Wylie, R. C. The self-concept. Lincoln: The University of Nebraska Press, 1974.
- Yates, P. R. The relationship between self-concept and academic achievement among gifted elementary school students (Doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1975). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1975, 36, 2655A (University Microfilms No. 75-23, 926,124).

Reference Notes

1. Tongue, C. Programs for the gifted and talented in North Carolina--15 years. Unpublished manuscript, Raleigh, North Carolina: State Department of Public Instruction, 1975.
2. Guilford County (N. C.) School System. Self-study report for continued accreditation by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. Unpublished manuscript, 1976
3. Criteria, nominating procedures, and student selection. Unpublished manuscript, 1978. (Available from the North Carolina Governor's School, Winston-Salem, North Carolina)

APPENDIX A

Means for Factor and Total Scores on the Piers-Harris
Children's Self-Concept Scale by
Research Group/Sex/Grade

Grouping	N	I	II	III	IV	V	VI*	Total
Consistent(I)	48	16.1	15.1	8.6	9.2	8.9	7.8	63.69
Inconsistent(V)	44	16.5	16.4	9.7	10.1	10.0	8.1	68.64
Males	36	16.0	15.0	9.0	9.7	8.6	8.0	64.19
Females	56	16.5	16.2	9.2	9.6	9.9	7.8	67.25
4th Graders	20	16.7	15.7	9.2	9.4	9.1	8.1	66.50
5th Graders	30	16.4	15.1	8.6	9.3	9.1	7.8	64.27
6th Graders	42	16.0	16.2	9.5	10.0	9.8	7.9	67.12

*Factor Definition

- I. Behavior
- II. Intellectual and School Status
- III. Physical Appearance and Attributes
- IV. Anxiety
- V. Popularity
- IV. Happiness and Satisfaction

APPENDIX B

GUILFORD COUNTY SCHOOLS
EXCEPTIONAL CHILD SERVICES ACADEMIC PROGRAM
REFERRAL

Student _____ Grade _____ Race _____

Address _____ Parent _____

_____ Telephone _____

Test Results

SFTAA: Date _____ Total Percentile _____

CTBS: Date _____ Reading Comprehensive Percentile _____

Math Concepts Percentile _____

Other Test Data

Test Name: _____ Date: _____ Scores: _____

Test Name: _____ Date: _____ Scores: _____

Using this formula, transform letter grades into numerical values for subjects requested and place sum as specified. Use 3rd & 4th reporting periods from immediate preceding school year and 1st & 2nd reporting periods of present school year.

working above grade	Reading
level or 0=4	Language
S=3	Spelling
I=2	Social Studies
IN=1	
U=0	Mathematics
	Science-Health

Total letter points =

Please check the areas in which the student shows unusual talent or interest:

Art _____	Creative Writing _____	Music _____	Science _____
Dance _____	Reading _____	Physical Ed. _____	Other _____
Drama _____	Poetry _____	Social Studies _____	

Teacher Comments

Other programs student is participating in _____

APPENDIX C

GUILFORD COUNTY SCHOOLS
EXCEPTIONAL CHILD SERVICES ACADEMIC PROGRAM
CHILD RATING FORM

STUDENT: _____ SCHOOL: _____
 TEACHER(s): _____ DATE: _____
 _____ RATING: _____

Listed below are behaviors associated with the gifted student. Check those items which you have observed in the student being referred. Place the total number of items checked in the space provided at the top of the page beside the word RATING.

BEHAVIORS ASSOCIATED WITH THE GIFTED STUDENT

- ___ asks many provocative questions
- ___ moves from concrete to abstract
- ___ curious about many things
- ___ generates a large number of solutions to problems and questions
- ___ is a high risk taker, adventuresome and speculative
- ___ displays a keen sense of humor and sees humor in situations that may not appear humorous to others
- ___ is individualistic and does not fear to be different
- ___ sees many aspects of one thing; fantasizes, imagines, manipulates idea, elaborates, is a divergent thinker (goes off on tangents)
- ___ needs little outside control, disciplines self
- ___ impatient or anxious to complete tasks
- ___ is eager to tell others about discoveries
- ___ often evaluates and judges events and things

- ___ is as interested in the question as the answer; likes to think of all the possibilities of a question and manipulate them
- ___ is skeptical of the value of drill and memory work
- ___ has an appreciation of novelty
- ___ takes pleasure in intellectual activity and enjoys intellectual playfulness
- ___ is interested in cause-effect relationships, is self-initiated, usually needs little help in knowing what to do
- ___ has persistent, goal-directed behavior
- ___ has a preference for complexity
- ___ is a good elaborator; produces a number of detailed steps; continually adds on to ideas; loves to embellish
- ___ is a good guesser
- ___ has the ability to see relationships among unrelated facts
- ___ is often concerned with adapting, improving and modifying institutions, objects, and systems
- ___ is not overly dependent on teacher approval
- ___ is easily bored with routine tasks

APPENDIX D

GUILFORD COUNTY SCHOOLS

TEACHER RATING FORM

(adapted for use in validation
of the instrument)

STUDENT _____ SCHOOL _____
TEACHERS _____ DATE _____
_____ RATING _____

Please check those items which you have observed in the student being rated. Place the total number of items checked in the space provided at the top of the page beside the word RATING

- ___ asks many provocative questions.
- ___ moves from concrete to abstract.
- ___ curious about many things.
- ___ generates a large number of solutions to problems and questions.
- ___ is a high risk taker, adventuresome and speculative.
- ___ is individualistic and does not fear being different.
- ___ displays a keen sense of humor and sees humor in situations that may not appear to be humorous to others.
- ___ sees many aspects of one thing; fantasizes, imagines, manipulates ideas, elaborates, is a divergent thinker (goes off in tangents).
- ___ needs little outside control, disciplines self.
- ___ impatient or anxious to complete tasks.
- ___ is eager to tell others about discoveries.
- ___ often evaluates and judges events and things.
- ___ is as interested in the question as the answer; like to think of all of the possibilities of the question, and to manipulate them.

- ___ is skeptical of the value of drill and memory work.
- ___ has an appreciation of novelty.
- ___ takes pleasure in intellectual activity and enjoys intellectual playfulness.
- ___ is interested in cause-effect relationships; is self-initiated; usually needs little help in knowing what to do.
- ___ has persistent goal-directed behavior.
- ___ has a preference for complexity.
- ___ is a good elaborator; produces a number of detailed steps; continually adds to ideas; loves to embellish.
- ___ is a good guesser.
- ___ can see relationships among unrelated facts.
- ___ is often concerned with adapting, improving and modifying institutions, objects, & systems.
- ___ is not overly dependent on you for approval.
- ___ is easily bored with routine.

APPENDIX E

IDENTIFICATION SUMMARY SHEET

Name _____ Grade _____
 School _____ Sex _____
 Race _____

TEST DATA

Test	Percentile	Raw Score	T Score	
SFTAA	_____	_____	_____	} (Avg. T Score)
Reading	_____	_____	_____	
Math	_____	_____	_____	
Grades	_____			
Checklist				
First	_____	_____	_____	
Second	_____	_____	_____	
			Difference Score	_____

Placement:
 Consistent _____
 Inconsistent _____
 Neither _____
 Piers-Harris Given _____
 Attitude Scale Given _____

APPENDIX F

Boy____ Girl____

Grade____

MY THOUGHTS ON SCHOOL

Check the word that best answers each question for how you feel.

	NEVER	SOMETIMES	USUALLY
1. I enjoy coming to school			
2. I am a good student			
3. I get along well with other students			
4. I have a good sense of humor			
5. My teacher thinks I am a good student			
6. I enjoy math			
7. My classmates think I am a good student			
8. I enjoy reading books			
9. I enjoy talking with my teacher			
10. I think I am an intelligent person			
11. I enjoy studying subjects that are difficult or challenging			
12. My teacher thinks I am intelligent			
13. I express my opinion in school--even if I think others will disagree			

APPENDIX G
PARENTAL INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

May 16, 1978

Dear Parents,

During the last three years I have worked with youngsters like your child _____ in resource programs here in Guilford County. Teaching these children has been both a delight and a challenge! They are always so eager to attempt new tasks, discuss new ideas, and to reach further towards their potential that it has been exciting just to know them.

In addition to working as a resource teacher, I am currently working on a research project concerning the self-concept and attitude towards school of these children. This project is under the auspices and direction of UNC-G and Guilford County Schools. Approximately 120 children in addition to your child have been selected for participation in this project.

This participation would involve about 30 minutes of their time during one school day. Children would be asked to complete two questionnaires which contain items such as:

- I am well behaved in school
- I am good at making things with my hands
- I enjoy reading books

Each child would only be identified by GRADE AND SEX as we are not interested in any individual child's self-concept, but rather the overall self-concept and attitude toward school of the entire group.

If for any reason you would be unwilling for your child to participate, would you contact me prior to _____? I hope, of course, that I can count on you and your child's cooperation as it is believed that the results from the

project would be very helpful in better understanding these children and improving our program for them.

Sincerely,

(Signed) Linda M. Weiss,

(Mrs.) Linda M. Weiss,
Resource Teacher
Guilford County Schools
Home address: 1915 Halifax Court
High Point, NC 27260
454-1731

School phones:
454-4618
454-1915
299-0972 (Millis Road)

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION



STATE OF NORTH CAROLINA

RALEIGH

January 4, 1978

Ms. Linda M. Weiss
Guilford County School System
120 Franklin Boulevard
P.O. Drawer B-2
Greensboro, NC 27402

Dear Linda:

The news about the progress you are making on your dissertation is most welcomed. Your request to use chart 4 in An Identification Model by Tongue and Sperling in your produce is freely given. We are pleased that it will be of help to you.

Best wishes for continued success in the exciting field of gifted child education.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Cornelia Tongue".

Cornelia Tongue, Chief Consultant
Program for the Gifted and Talented
Division for Exceptional Children

CT/bh

cc: Mrs. Charmian Sperling



DR. DOUGLAS P. MAGANN III, SUPERINTENDENT

GUILFORD COUNTY SCHOOL SYSTEM

120 FRANKLIN BOULEVARD
P.O. DRAWER B-2
GREENSBORO, NC 27402

272-0191

882-1822

January 2, 1979

Dr. Ruth A. Martinson
c/o Ventura County Superintendent of Schools Office
Ventura, California

Dear Dr. Martinson:

Your book, The Identification of the Gifted and Talented, has been quite helpful to me both in my role as coordinator of gifted programs for the Guilford County School System, and as a doctoral student at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Of course your work and writings on the identification of gifted students have played an important role in my review of the literature chapter in my dissertation. In addition to having quoted your work in several sections, I would like to include one table from your identification book. It is Table 1, "Differences in Scores Between Group and Individual Tests at Various IQ Levels" (p. 41). I have been told that in addition to giving you credit, I should write and obtain permission to use this table since I would like to include it in its entirety. Do you think that this would be possible?

Thanks very much for your help in this matter.

Sincerely,

Linda Weiss

Linda M. Weiss
Gifted & Talented Program

*Sorry to be so slow - I've been out of town
Permission is granted.*

Ruth Martinson

*I have no connection with the Ventura School
In case you need to contact me again:*