

Stereotypes and Beliefs Regarding Intellectually Gifted Students:
Perceptions of Pre-Service School Counselors

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This study investigated the perceptions of 104 pre-service school counselors regarding students identified as intellectually gifted. Two instruments were used in the study: the *Adjective Checklist (ACL)* and the *Child Behavioral Checklist, Youth Self-Report (YSR)*. Participants were asked to complete the *ACL* by endorsing the words they considered most characteristic of a typical gifted student of high intelligence. Items most frequently endorsed indicated a predominantly positive perception (e.g., “ambitious,” “confident”). This finding was supported by a paired-samples *t* test that indicated a significantly greater score on the *ACL* favorability scale compared to the score on the *ACL* unfavorability scale. However, negative perceptions were also observed (e.g., “anxious,” “arrogant”). The *YSR* was used to explore the sample’s perception of the psychosocial adjustment of intellectually gifted students as compared to their non-gifted peers. By assuming the position of a student that was identified as either a male, gifted male, female, or gifted female, participants completed the 112-Likert items on the measure designed to assess adjustment in eight areas: anxiety/depression, withdrawn/depression, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems, attention problems, rule-breaking behavior, and aggressive behavior. A 2 x 2 MANOVA indicated significant differences between the groups by gender and by their classification (gifted

and non-gifted) but not their interaction. Post hoc ANOVAs and DISCRIMs identified several areas of difference between groups for each main effect. For gender, those in the role of a male indicated more rule-breaking and aggressive behaviors than those in the role of a female. For classification, those in the role of a gifted student rated themselves higher than those in the role of a non-gifted student on anxiety/depression and thought problems. Conversely, those in the role of a gifted student endorsed significantly less difficulty with attention problems, rule-breaking behaviors, and aggressive behaviors compared to those in the non-gifted student role. Results indicated the presence of stereotyped perceptions of gifted students as both maladjusted and better-adjusted in particular areas of psychosocial functioning. Findings suggest the need for experiences that allow pre-services school counselors to explore their perceptions and challenge the content of stereotyped beliefs about students identified as intellectually gifted.

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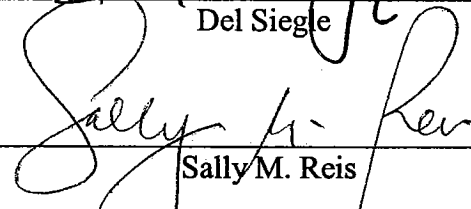
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Chapter I

Introduction

Intellectually gifted students are a diverse group possessing a wide variety of personal attributes and psychosocial characteristics (Robinson, 2002; Silverman, 1993). Unfortunately, recognition of this rich diversity may be hampered by the existence of long-standing stereotypes. In contradictory fashion, “giftedness” may be synonymous with two distinct and polarized images. The first, and that which maintains the longest history and predominance, is that intellectually gifted students are psychologically maladjusted and devoid of social competence. The second is that intellectually gifted students have a superior psychological disposition and social skills that far surpass those held by their non-gifted peers. On whole, neither is an accurate portrayal of this diverse group (Ziv, 1977).

This is a study of perceptions, based on the idea that the perceptions and corresponding beliefs a group of people has regarding another are important. This is particularly true if those beliefs are stereotypical. This study investigated the stereotypes and consensual beliefs of pre-service school counselors regarding students identified as intellectually gifted.

Statement of the Problem

An extensive literature search concerning pre-service school counselors’ experiences with, or perceptions of students identified as gifted yielded no articles. As pre-service school counselors will someday graduate to the role of practicing school counselors, the need to explore stereotypes that might impact service delivery to students identified as gifted is important. Graduate training is often the time when future school

counselors' beliefs regarding special populations are most challenged through coursework and field experiences aimed at developing the knowledge, awareness, and skills necessary for working with a diverse student body. Intellectually gifted students are a special population often left out of this process of discovery (Frantz & Prillaman, 1993). As such, there is a potential for pre-service trainees who later become practicing school counselors to bring unexamined stereotypes and beliefs regarding intellectually gifted students into their work.

Clinical studies on the impact of stereotypes and biased perceptions on counselor-counselee relationships gives support to the need to explore the stereotype content of pre-service school counselors. Particularly, multicultural counseling research has repeatedly shown that counselor held stereotypes have deleterious affects on the assessment, diagnosis, and treatment of individuals seeking counseling (Bieschke & Matthews, 1996; Casas, Brady, & Ponterotto, 1983; Cole & Pilisuk, 1976; Fisher, Matthews, Robinson-Kurpius & Burke, 2001; Lloyd & Moodley, 1992; Lopez & Nunez, 1987; Rudolph, 1988; Snowden & Cheung, 1990; Sue & Sue, 1987; Tomlinson-Clarke & Camilli, 1995; Westermeyer, 1987). In addition, the few studies that have looked at school counselors or related professionals and students identified as gifted have shown professionals in the counseling fields have little awareness of gifted students and often rely on stereotyped perceptions when interacting, or not interacting, with the population (Earle, 1998; Ford & Harris, 1995; Klausmeier, Mishra, & Maker, 1987).

Stereotypes can impact individuals in a number of negative ways. As such, the need to gather information about the content of stereotypes is important. Identifying perceptual bias and stereotype content is often considered the first step in developing

counselors who are sensitive to differences (Sue et al., 1998). A number of authors have suggested the role school counselors might play in providing for the educational and affective needs of students identified as gifted (Coleman & Cross, 2001; Gowan & Bruch, 1971; Gowan & Demos, 1964; Hickson, 1992; Jordan & Keith, 1971; Milgram, 1991; Rice, 1985; Strang, 1952; Witty, 1954; Zaffrann & Colangelo, 1977). Stereotypes of gifted students will, however, directly affect whether these services are implemented. For example, Earle (1998) found that many practicing school counselors reported few interactions with gifted students because they believed gifted students did not need their assistance (stereotype of better-adjustment). It is hoped the results of this study will call attention to the training needs of pre-service school counselors for working directly (e.g., individual counseling) and indirectly (e.g., providing in-service training, assisting parents) with students identified as intellectually gifted.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to identify the character traits that comprised the stereotyped image of intellectually gifted students as held by pre-service school counselors. In addition, this study was interested in probing the perceptions pre-service school counselors had of the psychosocial functioning of intellectually gifted students.

The following questions guided this study:

1. What character traits comprise the stereotype of an intellectually gifted student as held by pre-service school counselors?
2. Do pre-service school counselors perceive male and female students differently with respect to feelings of anxiety with depression, feelings of being withdrawn with depression, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems, attention problems, rule-breaking behavior, and aggressive behavior?

3. Do pre-service school counselors perceive intellectually gifted and non-gifted students differently with respect to feelings of anxiety with depression, feelings of being withdrawn with depression, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems, attention problems, rule-breaking behavior, and aggressive behavior?
4. Is there an interaction between the perceptions of pre-service school counselors of gender (male and female) and classification (gifted and non-gifted) with respect to feelings of anxiety with depression, feelings of being withdrawn with depression, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems, attention problems, rule-breaking behavior, and aggressive behavior?

Summary

This chapter provided a rationale for this study and identified the research questions that guided the investigation. Stereotyped images of gifted students, the negative impact stereotypes and biased perceptions have on counselor-counselee relations, and the lack of research on the beliefs pre-service school counselors have of gifted students were identified as contributing to the need for this study. The importance of identifying stereotype content regarding intellectually gifted students during the graduate training years, when pre-service school counselors are most likely to have experiences that assist them in gaining the knowledge, awareness, and skills necessary for working with diverse student populations, was noted.

CHAPTER II

Review of Literature

This chapter provides a review of literature germane to this study. It is presented in the following sections: the nature of stereotypes, stereotypes of gifted students, studies on the psychosocial adjustment of gifted students, and school counseling and gifted students.

The Nature of Stereotypes

“What matters is the character of the stereotypes, and the gullibility with which we employ them.”

- Lippmann (1922, p. 90)

In 1922, political columnist and writer Walter Lippmann introduced the term ‘stereotype’ into the social sciences (Harding, 1968; Pickering, 2001). In his seminal work *Public Opinion* (1922) Lippmann was interested in how individuals react to people from other countries and other races. He reasoned that the world was too big and complex for humans to have a thorough understanding of people and events in the environment. As such, he believed people create simplified pictures of what they believe to be true and act in accordance with these imagined beliefs. He referred to stereotypes as “pictures in our heads” (p. 3) and provided the following elementary understanding of the stereotyping process:

For the most part we do not first see, and then define, we define first and then see. In the great blooming, buzzing confusion of the outer world we pick out what our culture has already defined for us, and we tend to perceive that which we have picked out in the form stereotyped for us by our culture. (Lippmann, 1922, p. 81)

Contemporary definitions of ‘stereotype’ still capture Lippmann’s ideas.

Stereotypes can be thought of as the characteristics that are mentally associated with a

social category label in memory (Stangor & Lange, 1994). More simply put, stereotypes are “beliefs about the characteristics of groups of individuals” (Stangor, 2000, p. 1).

Hinton (2000) outlined the key features of a stereotype and sketched the stereotyping process as follows:

1. A group of people are identified by a specific *characteristic*...What this identification does is to separate from an undifferentiated set of people a particular identified group on the chosen characteristic. By identifying the group on this characteristic we are able to distinguish them from other groups on this characteristic...
2. We then attribute a set of additional characteristics to the group as a whole...these characteristics are usually personality characteristics, but they need not be...The important feature of a stereotype is the attribution of these additional characteristics to all members of the group...
3. Finally, on identifying a person as having the identifying meaningful characteristic, we then attribute the stereotypical characteristics to them. (pp. 7-8)

In general, the act of stereotyping is regarded as a shared but flawed component of human cognition. Flawed because stereotypes fail to recognize the variability that exists within categories and groups of people. As such, they are usually inaccurate and may often contribute to negative and prejudicial evaluations and actions. That being said, the ubiquitous nature of stereotypes does indicate that they are functional and serve a purpose. As mentioned earlier in the account of Lippmann’s work, stereotypes aid individuals in information processing. They are complexity-reducing devices employed to assist processing of the enormous amounts of information with which individuals are confronted. When time does not permit individuals to take in the unique characteristics of people, individuals can evoke the stereotype of their category membership (e.g., teenager equals angst, rebellious) and suddenly one has a range of expectations and assumptions

about them (Hinton, 2000). Treating individuals as a category within a particular group membership saves time and energy by getting rid of the need to process all the diverse and detailed information that is associated with the individual (McGarty, Yzerbyt, & Spears, 2002).

There is consensus among researchers that stereotypes can be rather resistant to change because of their functional role in human cognition. However, researchers interested in this area have also indicated that the task is possible (Bar-Tal, 1989, 1997; Hewstone, 1996; Johnston & Macroe, 1994). In general, such changes may come about through creating positive perceptions of the stereotyped group, providing information about the variability that exists within the stereotyped group, and reducing the tendency for individuals to use stereotypes when judging particular groups (Stangor, 2000). By assisting individuals in identifying the nature of their stereotypes and providing them with information that suggests their stereotypes are false, change is possible. Means for doing this include exposing individuals directly to members of the stereotyped group (contact hypothesis) or through educating individuals outside of contact about the characteristics and variability of and within the stereotyped group.

It is important to make a distinction between individuals' knowledge of stereotypes of a particular group and their personal beliefs regarding the particular group. Through the socialization process, individuals acquire stereotype knowledge though they do not necessarily acquire personal beliefs that parallel this stereotype knowledge to the point of endorsement (Devine, 1989). Perhaps the most fitting illustration of this point is the large number of experts in the field of gifted education who dedicate portions of their publications to identifying the common stereotypes of gifted students while warning

against the negative and prejudicial aspects of employing them (Clark, 2002; Coleman & Cross, 2001; Davis & Rimm, 1998; Silverman, 1993).

Stereotypes of Gifted Students

“Over the years, the social perception of the gifted child has, like a swinging pendulum, alternated from one extreme to the other. Traditionally, the gifted child was seen as lonely, isolated, maladjusted, and often unhappy. In recent years, by contrast, the gifted child has been shown as healthier, better adjusted and more popular than the average child...we believe that a more complete picture of the gifted would reveal both the positive and negative elements of the gifted child’s characteristics.”

- Ziv (1977, p. 52)

The public image of gifted students is contradictory. Pejorative images and every day utterances (e.g., “nerd”) depict gifted students as being psychosocially, as well as physically disadvantaged. The belief being that enhanced cognitive ability places gifted students at odds with their surroundings or that a natural process of compensation is at work whereby gifted students’ advanced intellectual and related abilities need to be balanced by deficiencies in other areas. Contrasting this image is that of gifted students possessing near “...Herculean qualities” (Kaufmann, Castellanos, & Rotatori, 1986, p. 236) as enhanced cognitive abilities serve as a prophylactic to psychosocial difficulties. What follows is a recapitulation of the development and discussion surrounding these dichotomized stereotypes - what will be referred to as the ‘gifted as maladjusted stereotype’ and the ‘gifted as better adjusted stereotype.’

Gifted as Maladjusted Stereotype

“There is no great genius without a tincture of madness.”

- Seneca (c. 3 B.C. – A.D. 65)

The widely held stereotype that there is a relationship between giftedness and psychosocial maladjustment is grounded in the early suggestion that genius and psychopathology go hand-in-hand. This idea, which dates back to antiquity, still runs deep in society and is at the core of the stereotype that equates giftedness with social and mental deficiency.

Aristotle is said to have claimed, “Those who have become eminent in philosophy, politics, poetry, and the arts have all had tendencies toward melancholia” (Simonton, 1999, pp. 94-95). A relatively more contemporary linking of genius and maladjustment developed in the mid-nineteenth century. In 1857 French sociologist and noted expert in the area of mental disorder, Moreau de Tours, began the theoretical and empirical discussion of the theory of degeneration. Degeneration theory of disease postulated the inheritability of congenital or acquired morbid physical or mental traits (e.g., syphilis, alcoholism, psychoses, idiocy), sometimes seen as a result of defective moral behavior. Genius was considered to be one of these diseased outcomes:

Those dispositions of mind which act so that a man becomes distinguished from others by the originality of his thought, by his conceits, by his eccentricity, by the energy of affective state or by his transcendent intelligence, stem from the same organic causes as various moral troubles, of which madness and idiocy are the fullest expression. (Moreau, 1859 in Kessel, 1989, p. 200)

Prominent psychiatrists and behavioral scientists of the time echoed the degenerative views of genius (Nisbet, 1891; Nordau, 1895). Cesare Lombroso’s *The Man of Genius* (1891) is the most notable of empirical works on the topic. Extensively studying historical figures of eminence (e.g., Newton, Jesus), the Italian criminologist and professor of forensics and psychiatry concluded genius was, “...a true degenerative psychosis” (p. 333). Physical abnormalities of reduced physical stature, rickets, atypical

skull capacity, cranial abnormalities and brain lesions, sterility, and left-handedness, among others were documented. Being inclined to vagabondage, leanings toward double personality, excessive and perverted sensibility, forgetfulness and distraction, and other mental traits were also noted. Regarding the mad-genius association he wrote:

Between the physiology of the man of genius, therefore, and the pathology of the insane, there are many points of coincidence; there is even actual continuity. This fact explains the frequent occurrence of madmen of genius, and men of genius who have become insane... (Lombroso, 1891, p. 359)

The final paragraph of Lombroso's work reads:

In short, by these analogies, and coincidences between the phenomena of genius and mental aberration, it seems as though nature had intended to teach us respect for the supreme misfortunes of insanity; and also to preserve us from being dazzled by the brilliancy of those men of genius who might well be compared, not to the planets which keep their appointed orbits, but to falling stars, lost and dispersed over the crust of the earth. (Lombroso, 1891, p. 361)

Lombroso's work reverberated and was read by many interested in the study of genius at the time. In the preface to the second printing of *Hereditary Genius* (1892), Galton, whose work represents a seminal and important milestone in the study of giftedness, responded to Lombroso's work with these words:

The relation between genius in its technical sense (whatever its precise definition may be) and insanity, has been much insisted upon by Lombroso and others...I cannot go nearly so far as they, nor accept a moiety of their data, on which the connection between ability of a very high order and insanity is supposed to be established. Still, there is a large residuum of evidence which points to a painfully closer relation between the two, and I must add that my own later observations have tended the same direction... Those who are over eager and extremely active in mind must often possess brains that are more excitable and peculiar than is consistent with soundness. (p. ix)

As a more thorough understanding of the mechanisms of inheritance was acquired, theories of degeneration passed. However, the link between genius and mental

disturbance continued and lists of famous intellects and creators who have shown signs of mental aberration continued to fill the literature, many still being published today (Becker, 1978; Ellis, 1927; Kretschmer, 1931/1970; Ludwig, 1995; Simonton, 1999).

With the turn of the century and development in the area of intelligence testing (Terman, 1916), combined with the need of schools to accommodate the individual differences in learners, attention was drawn to students of advanced cognitive ability. In 1920, 'gifted' became the official designation of students of "supernormal ability" (Henry, p. 9). As their precocity and intellectual capabilities resembled those of the genius, stereotypes of deviance were inherited. In particular, gifted students were thought of as being physically weak, mentally unstable, socially inept, and tending toward being odd (Sellin & Birch, 1980). In greater or lesser extent this picture of gifted students is still prevailing.

Gifted as Better-Adjusted Stereotype

"The results provide a striking contrast to the popular stereotype of the child prodigy so commonly depicted as a pathetic creature, overserious and undersized, sickly, hollow-chested, stoop-shouldered, clumsy, nervously tense, and bespectacled. There are gifted children who bear some resemblance to this stereotype, but the truth is that almost every element in the picture, except the last, is less characteristic of the gifted child than of the mentally average."

- Terman and Oden (1947, p. 24)

In the 1920's a research agenda aimed at assessing the adjustment of individuals identified as gifted commenced. The pioneering work of Terman and his associates (Burks, Jensen, & Terman, 1930; Cox, 1926; Terman, 1925; Terman & Oden, 1947, 1959), Hollingworth (1926, 1931, 1942), and a small band of others (Juda, 1949; Lewis, 1943; Sumption, 1941; Witty, 1930) concluded that individuals of advanced cognitive

ability were superior to the average in nearly every respect of physical, social, and psychological adjustment. Their work not only debunked the stereotype of maladjustment but replaced it with its antithesis – the gifted as better-adjusted stereotype.

Lewis Terman's *Genetic Studies of Genius* (published in five volumes between 1926 and 1959) remains the dominant work on the characteristics and developmental trajectory of gifted individuals. Despite questionable sampling procedures, it is a monumental longitudinal study that produced results well beyond its inception (Sears, 1977; Tomlinson-Keasey & Little, 1990) and whose data set still provides opportunity for analysis (Holahan, Holahan, & Wonacott, 2001; Rogers, 1999; Zuo & Tao, 2001).

Terman was interested in exploring the validity of the claim that gifted individuals shared the characteristics of the abnormal. Perplexed by the literature of the late nineteenth century that equated giftedness with pathology, he comprehensively studied the physical, mental, and personality traits of 1,528 intellectually superior children (Stanford-Binet IQ of 140+) as they moved through life. In the first installment of the study (Terman, 1925) the sample of gifted children were found to be superior to those in the normal range of intelligence in health, physique, social adjustment, and educational mastery as taken on a number of indices. When measured again at mid-life this pattern of superiority continued. Among other things, compared to normative samples, the gifted group had a lower mortality rate, lower rates of serious maladjustment with psychosis, and lower incidents of nervous disorders and delinquency. They were more likely to be married, had greater representation in stasured professions, earning more, attended and graduated from college at a greater frequency, and were more inclined to obtain advanced degrees (Terman & Oden, 1947).

Terman's voluminous data sets and subsequent lengthy publications on the characteristics of the gifted were presented with unequivocal confidence. In response to the claim that gifted students were more prone to maladjustment, Terman and his colleague wrote:

One can find within the group examples of almost every type of personality defect, social maladjustment, behavior problems and physical handicap; the only difference is that among gifted children the incidence of these deviations is, in varying degrees, lower than in the general population. (Terman & Oden, 1947, p. 25)

Gallagher (1965) referred to Terman's contributions to the study of giftedness as having a "permanence that resists time" (p. 4). The scope and care that went into the *Genetic Studies of Genius* and the positive, albeit grandiose, image of gifted individuals that resulted caused a major shift in the attitudes and perceptions of individuals toward those identified as gifted. At the same time Terman was publishing his results, Leta Stetter Hollingworth (1926, 1931, 1942) was following a similar line of inquiry.

Hollingworth is known as a champion and earliest guardian of the gifted as her work contributed much to the understanding of the educational and psychosocial aspects and needs of the population (Klein, 2000, 2002). She was most concerned with educational provisions for gifted students and advocated for educational environments and opportunities that appropriately promoted both cognitive and affective development. Like Terman, she also worked to dispel the stereotype of maladjustment. Through her assessment and instruction of gifted students she developed a deeper understanding of their nature. Her research generally supported the findings of Terman as she too saw gifted individuals superior in a variety of physical, mental, and psychosocial areas:

The child who tests above 130 IQ is *typically* (though of course not invariably) large and strong for his age, healthier than the average, contributes far less than his quota to juvenile misbehavior as socially defined, and is emotionally stable in superior degree. (Hollingworth, 1942, p. 267)

Hollingworth suggested there was an optimal range of intelligence that contributed to gifted students experiencing superior adjustment. Her clinical experience and research suggested the range fell roughly between 125 and 155 IQ points:

Children and adolescents in this area are enough more intelligent than the average to win the confidence of large numbers of their fellows, which brings about leadership, and to manage their own lives with superior efficiency. (Hollingworth, 1942, p. 265).

Beyond this range, however, she believed there was potential for adjustment problems as the gifted student would be cognitively unmatched and with much difficulty in finding congenial companions - an IQ of 170+ appears but once or twice in a million. Terman found few reliable differences between those with a 170 + IQ and the remainder of his sample (Strang, 1963). Opining on the aberrations of the few subjects in his sample who scored in this range and did show some signs of adjustment difficulty, Terman insisted on the superiority of the group and the benefits of advanced cognitive ability:

...although children of this type are faced by difficult problems of adjustment, they have very superior intelligence with which to meet them. (Terman & Oden, 1947, p. 288)

The researchers working to dispel the stereotype of gifted individuals as maladjusted during this period of time (1920s to 1950s) were very successful. In the case of Terman, some might say too successful. The enormity of the *Genetic Studies of Genius* and the finality of the study's results produced what Whitmore (1980) referred to as the "Terman myth" (p. 13). In educational and psychological settings, gifted students were

received as if their giftedness inoculated them from the need for support. For many, this perspective still holds.

Gifted Student Stereotype Endorsement

Despite ubiquitous references to the content of stereotypes of gifted students, research in this area is sparse. Solano (1977) measured the perception of gifted students by high school peers and school personnel. Gifted students were perceived as being intellectually competent (e.g., described as “clever,” “clear-thinking,” “dependable”) but also possessing personality flaws (e.g., described as “aloof,” “conceited,” “opinionated”). Ten years later, the same author (Solano, 1987) was motivated to see if the “Terman stereotype” had changed the widely held perception of gifted students as social failures destined for early burnout. She provided descriptions of hypothetical students with varying levels of ability to college students in an introductory psychology class and asked them to respond to questions regarding the fictitious students’ social success and predicted future successes down the road. The hypothetical gifted students were viewed as suffering from social problems; however, the sample failed to see giftedness as equaling early burnout in adulthood.

In one of the few studies that addressed school counselors and their work (interventions used) with gifted students, Earle (1998) found that one half of the questionnaires returned to her that were determined unusable for her study based on their vagueness included hostile complaints about students identified as gifted. Of those questionnaires that were used, many school counselors commented on being surprised at the time they were assisting a gifted student that he or she needed such support. She concluded:

It is also clear from this research that Lewis Terman's influence is pervasive and still present. The most common misconception about gifted children expressed by the school guidance counselors [in this study] was that these were children who did not need their services. (Earle, 1998, p. 150)

Others have explored the image of gifted individuals in popular cinema and literature. In her analysis of the movie industry's portrayal of the gifted, Cox (2000) found stereotypic images of gifted individuals as "turmoiled geniuses" and "geeky sidekicks" (p. 18). Murphy's (1987) analysis of school-age children's literature concluded, "although giftedness received a positive portrayal in most of the stories, this literature is not totally devoid of the 'nerd' stereotype" (p. 68).

Much of what is known regarding the held stereotypes on giftedness can only be inferred from studies on the attitudes of various groups (e.g., teachers, counselors) toward gifted students or the idea of giftedness. In 1983, Colangelo and Kelly had parents and teachers rank programs and school activities by means of importance. Gifted programs received a low prioritization. Cornell (1984) found one-third of his sample of parents viewed giftedness with negativity. This was based on their perception of giftedness being associated with social or emotional maladjustment. Investigating pre-service and in-service teachers' attitudes toward students of high ability, Cramond and Martin (1987) identified a trend toward negative perception by teachers especially when the student was characterized as studious but nonathletic. One aberration to these findings came from Busse, Dahme, Wagner, and Wiczerkowski (1986) who found favorable views of gifted students in both German and United States teachers. However, it is important to note the teachers in the study were asked to select a gifted student and write about him or her.

The conclusion that can be drawn from the few direct and indirect measures of the existence of stereotypes of gifted individuals is that they are an active part of peoples' perception of those identified as gifted. The longevity of the stereotype of maladjustment may be a product of the simple notion of compensation; that areas of advanced ability need to be balanced by areas of deficiency. The gifted student's advanced cognitive ability is balanced by inferior physical characteristics and social skills. Others have discussed a climate of anti-intellectualism in which gifted students experience hostility from those of more common cognitive capacity (Freehill, 1961). The stereotype of maladjustment may be a form of such hostility. The maintenance of the stereotype of better adjustment is most likely due to the misguided belief that individuals with high IQs are destined to succeed in all areas of functioning (Schneider, 1987). Such a belief complicates the experience of many gifted students, in particular those who do not fit this mold (i.e., gifted students with learning disorders).

The Psychosocial Adjustment of Gifted Students

“Stereotypes have almost nothing to do with facts.”

- Terman and Oden (1947, p. 24)

In recognition of the polarized views of gifted students and with the purpose of setting the record straight regarding the nature of the psychosocial functioning of the gifted population, the president of the National Association for Gifted Children (NAGC) convened a task force in the fall of 2001 to review the last five decades of relevant research on a number of specific areas of social and emotional functioning. In the final chapter of the subsequently released service publication, findings were summarized as follows:

There is no evidence that gifted children or youth – as a group – are inherently any more vulnerable or flawed in adjustment than any other group. We failed to discover evidence of social or emotional vulnerabilities or flaws unique to intellectually gifted learners or those with high creative potential...indices of serious maladjustment, such as suicide, delinquency, and severe behavior disorders, appear no more (or less) frequently in this group than the general population. (Robinson, Reis, Neihart, & Moon, 2002, p. 268)

Prior to this publication, comprehensive reviews of empirical work in this area had drawn similar conclusions (Fiedler, 1999; Janos & Robinson, 1985; Neihart, 1998; Robinson & Noble, 1991). What made this work unique was its mass production as a general read for school personnel working with gifted students, parents of gifted children, and others. It was a formal announcement to the public that gifted students are not as their stereotypes depict them to be.

In addition to dispelling stereotypes regarding the adjustment of gifted students, the NAGC report identified particular risk factors and psychosocial difficulties that some gifted students might experience. If gifted students are to have difficulties, they seem to be less general and more specific in nature and arise from gifted students' asynchronous development, unique attributes associated with giftedness (e.g., intensity), ill-fitting learning and social environments, and holding membership in special populations (e.g., learning disabled). A discussion of these specific areas and how they might be experienced by some gifted students will appear later in this chapter. For now, it is worthwhile to review a select few of the empirical findings on specific dimensions of psychosocial functioning that have supported the idea of gifted students being far from maladjusted and more similar to their peers than is commonly thought.

Global Emotional Functioning

Gifted students generally interact with the complexities of the world through a relatively good set of coping skills that equate to positive adjustment. This has been documented through a number of studies (Franklin & Cornell, 1997; Gair, 1944; Gallagher & Crowder, 1957; Gallucci, 1988; Grossberg & Cornell, 1988; Howard-Hamilton & Franks, 1995; Jacobs, 1971; Karnes & Wherry, 1983; Lessinger & Martinson, 1961; Ludwig & Cullinan, 1984).

Parker (1996) used the *Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI)* to assess emotional adjustment in early adolescents identified as gifted in mathematics. Results indicated the group was significantly more adjusted than the normative group for the instrument. Gallucci, Middleton, and Kline (1999) had parents of gifted adolescents complete the *Child Behavioral Check List (CBCL)*. The group scored within the national norms indicating the absence of any behavioral disorders. Nail and Evans (1997) compared gifted and non-gifted high school students using the *Self-Report of Personality*. Both groups scored within the norm for the instrument with the gifted group displaying fewer indicators of maladjustment. Using a more novel approach, and arguably a better means for assessing the true status of gifted students' emotional adjustment, Jarosewich and Stocking (2003) used the medical forms for over 1,900 gifted adolescents participating in a summer enrichment program and obtained rates of diagnosed psychological disorders, psychotropic medication prescriptions, and participation in counseling. In general, the sample reported low rates in each of these areas and found that the students sought counseling for a variety of what could be considered "normal" adolescent problems (e.g., family issues) considered not associated with the students' giftedness.

Depression and Suicide

The overall conclusion of comparative studies on gifted students and depression is that gifted students manifest the same level of depression as their non-gifted peers (Demoss, Milich, & DeMers, 1993; Metha & McWhirter, 1997; Parker, 1996). Baker (1995) compared adolescents classified as exceptionally gifted, academically gifted, and academically average and concluded “no significant differences were detected among the three groups in level, severity, or nature of distress experienced” (p. 218). Bartell and Reynolds (1986) compared gifted fourth and fifth grade students to a control group of the same grade. The groups showed no difference on standardized measures of depression and the gifted group was viewed as less depressed on teacher rating forms of global depression. Metha and McWhirter (1997) found a sample of gifted junior high school students experienced similar levels of depression as a comparison group of non-gifted students of the same age.

It has been suggested that gifted students are at greater risk for suicide (Delisle, 1986, 1990; Fleith, 1998; Jackson & Peterson, 2003; Lajoie & Shore, 1981). Identified risk factors include perfectionism (Blatt, 1995; Fleith, 1998; Parker, 2000; Parker & Mills, 1996; Schuler, 2000), social isolation (Jackson, 1998; Kaiser & Berndt, 1985), and enhanced emotional experiencing (Delisle, 1990; Silverman, 1993). As the research on suicidal behavior of gifted students is sparse (Cross, 1996; Cross, Cook, & Dixon, 1996), the aforementioned is conjectural. The conclusion drawn from the few empirical studies that have been conducted is that gifted students are as equal to their non-gifted peers in manifesting suicidal behavior. Harkavy and Asnis (1985) surveyed 382 gifted students from a specialized school and found 9% had made at least one suicidal attempt, 48% of

which were brought to the attention of mental health professionals. In a study mentioned earlier, Metha and McWhirter (1997) found adolescent gifted and non-gifted groups to be equal, and not clinically significant, on measured suicidal behavior.

Self-Concept and Self-Esteem

Studies measuring the general self-concept and self-esteem of gifted students compared to national norms or control groups of non-gifted students give indication that gifted students exhibit a degree of self-concept and self-esteem that is equal to and often better than that of their non-gifted peers (Bracken, 1980; Brody & Benbow, 1986; Coleman & Fults, 1982; Hoge & McSheffrey, 1991; Hoge & Renzulli, 1991; Karnes & Wherry, 1981; Ketcham & Snyder, 1977; Lehman & Erdwins, 1981; Tidwell, 1980).

VanTassel-Baska, Olszewski-Kubliius, and Kulieke (1994) assessed the self-esteem of gifted junior high school students of varying ethnicities and social economic statuses using a standardized measure and its normative sample as the control group. The researchers concluded, “among gifted students regardless of ethnicity, gender, or class, self-esteem tends to be high” (p. 189). Coleman and Fults (1982) compared the self-concept scores of adolescent gifted students on the *Piers-Harris Children’s Self-Concept Scale* and found the sample scoring 12 points higher than the normative sample. They also found students classified as high gifted (IQ 135+) scored significantly higher than those classified as low gifted (IQ 135-).

A few studies have presented more mixed but still favorable results. Comparing 25 matched pairs of gifted and non-gifted siblings, Colangelo and Brower (1987) found gifted students exhibiting higher academic self-concept while the groups were similar in general self-esteem. Within Tidwell’s (1980) sample of 1,593 gifted high school students,

the group scored higher than the normative average on a measure of self-concept and within the normal range of the normative sample on a measure of general self-esteem. Maddax, Scheiber, and Bass (1982) found a sample of gifted 5th graders scored within the normal range on a measure of self-concept and a sample of gifted 6th graders scored significantly higher. Several studies have also simultaneously investigated the academic and social self-concepts of gifted students. Ross and Parker (1980) reported early adolescent gifted students as scoring significantly higher on academic than social self-concepts. Colangelo, Kelly, and Schrepfer (1987) found a gifted sample of adolescents to be superior to control groups comprised of academically average and special needs on both academic and social self-concepts.

Anxiety and Stress

The suggestion that many gifted students experience heightened levels of anxiety and stress (Blackburn & Erickson, 1986; Dirkes, 1983; Genshaft, Greenbaum, & Borovsky, 1995) is inconsistent with the majority of research in this area (Davis & Connell, 1985; Reynolds & Bradley, 1983; Zeidner & Schleyer, 1999).

Reynolds and Bradley (1983) compared a large sample of gifted and non-gifted students in grades 2 through 12 on measures of anxiety. The gifted group consistently displayed levels of anxiety lower than the control group. Scholwinski and Reynolds (1985) found a large sample of gifted students ranging in age from 6 to 19 scored significantly lower than the normative sample on the manifest anxiety instrument used in the study. Similarly, Davis and Connell (1985) measured school-related anxiety in a sample of gifted and non-gifted 4th through 6th graders and found the gifted group exhibited less anxiety about school-related events.

A number of authors have stated perfectionism, as it relates to increasing stress, is a frequently occurring phenomenon in the gifted student population (Galbriath, 1985; Silverman, 1993). Much of this conversation is based on clinical and anecdotal reports and not on empirical investigation. LoCicero and Ashby (1999) compared gifted middle school students to a control group of non-gifted students on a measure of ‘adaptive’ and ‘maladaptive’ perfectionism. The gifted group scored significantly higher on ‘adaptive perfectionism’ and significantly lower on ‘maladaptive perfectionism.’ Parker and Mills (1996) compared scores on a measure of perfectionism of academically talented and a general cohort of a nationally gathered sample. The groups did not differ on their level of perfectionism. The researchers concluded, “These findings suggest that the frequent anecdotal reports of greater perfectionism among the gifted may be a product of differential labeling patterns of similar behaviors when demonstrated by gifted students and the general cohort” (Parker & Mills, 1966, p. 194).

Social Competencies

In general, studies on the social competence of gifted students have shown the population to benefit from a high degree of social acceptance and social popularity (Barnett & Fiscella, 1985; Czeschlik & Rost, 1994; Dauber & Benbow, 1990; Gallagher, 1958; Gallagher & Crowder, 1957; Galloway & Porath, 1997; Grace & Booth, 1958; Ingersoll & Cornell, 1995; Janos, Marwood, & Robinson, 1985; Luftig & Nicols, 1990, 1991; Miller, 1956; Sayler & Brookshire, 1993; Terman, 1925; Wright, 1990).

In an early study, Gallagher and Crowder (1957) studied the social popularity of gifted elementary students by analyzing responses to a sociometric test completed by their peers. Compared with ratings of randomly selected classmates, the gifted group

demonstrated significantly more popularity than the control group. Merrell and Gill (1992) found teacher ratings on scales of social competence and antisocial behavior more favorable for gifted elementary students when compared with those of a non-gifted control group. Luftig and Nichols (1991) used the peers of gifted students enrolled in a “pull-out” program to assess the social status of program participants. Responding to questions of interaction preference, gifted students received favorable ratings more than those not identified as such. Gifted boys were judged as the most popular. Sayler and Brookshire (1993) measured the social adjustment of adolescent students accelerated in their schooling, students enrolled in gifted programs, and students in regular educational programs. They used data from two national educational databases. Both the accelerated and gifted students reported more favorable status and peer acceptance than the students in regular programs. Lupkowski (1989) gave parents of gifted and non-gifted preschoolers a measure of social competence and a social observation form to document the presence of social behaviors. Analysis of responses showed the groups equally adjusted in social abilities and skills.

School Counseling and Gifted Students

“Do counselors have any special responsibility for the gifted?”

- Strang (1952, p. 26)

The favorable conclusion drawn from the empirical literature on the psychosocial adjustment of gifted students should not be interpreted as meaning the population is without the need for counseling services. Gifted students are a well-adjusted group, but they are also a group that has its unique guidance and counseling needs. The earlier mentioned NAGC task force that assembled to report on the social and emotional lives of

gifted students identified and cautioned that aspects of gifted students' lives may serve as risk factors for adjustment difficulties, particularly when gifted students' educational and psychosocial needs are not met (Neihart et al., 2002).

Guidance and Counseling Needs of Gifted Students

In general, the guidance and counseling needs of gifted students do not differ markedly from those of non-gifted students. However, the nature and characteristics of giftedness may lead to particular psychosocial difficulties for some gifted students. Both external (e.g., school, family) and internal or difficulties that arise from gifted characteristics, have been identified as potential psychosocial risk factors for students identified as gifted (Webb, 1993).

The importance of a "goodness-of-fit" between gifted students and their environment has been highlighted by research and commentary on the school, social, and family experiences of gifted students. When educational environments do not fit the often advanced academic needs of gifted students, psychosocial difficulties may appear (Webb, 1993; Webb, Meckstroth, & Tolan, 1993). Inappropriate educational and curricular experiences that do not accommodate differences in learning rate or style may even contribute to underachievement in gifted students (Whitmore, 1980). The social milieu of gifted students has also been identified as a potential risk factor for psychosocial difficulty (Coleman & Cross, 2001). As asynchronous development complicates the ability for some gifted students to relate to same age peers, gifted students may be at risk for adjustment difficulties (Edwards & Kleine, 1986; Janos, Fung, & Robinson, 1985; Manaster & Powerll, 1983). Family relations also play a role in the psychosocial adjustment of gifted students. Research on the reactions of family members to gifted

siblings, sons or daughters indicates the complexity of family dynamics when a family member is identified as gifted (Ballering & Koch, 1984; Cornell, 1983; Cornell & Grossberg, 1986, 1989; Fisher, 1981; Grenier, 1985; Pfouts, 1980).

A number of internal factors which may potentially contribute to some gifted students experiencing psychosocial difficulties have also been identified. These include the challenge of dealing with multi-potentiality as it relates to school and career choice (Rysiew, Shore, & Leeb, 1999; Sanborn, 1979), frustration that comes from uneven (asynchronous) development (Silverman, 1997, 2002), as well as self-criticism and perfectionist tendencies (Adderholdt-Elliott, 1991; Parker, 1997; Schuler, 2000, 2002). Internal overexcitability and enhanced sensitivity have also been discussed as factors that may compromise the adjustment of some gifted students (Lovecky, 1992; Piechowski, 1997; Silverman, 1993). Others have identified problems that might be associated with characteristic strengths of gifted students (Clark, 2002; Webb, 1993). For example, the high energy, alertness, and eagerness associated with some gifted students may lead these students to feel frustrated with inactivity. It may also lead others to consider them hyperactive.

In support of the claims made by specialists in the field of gifted education regarding the unique psychosocial needs of some gifted students, researchers have interviewed gifted students about their experiences in being identified as gifted as a way of identifying potential psychosocial difficulties (American Association for Gifted Children, 1978; Galbraith, 1985; Galbraith & Delisle, 1996). Galbraith's (1985) condensed survey information from 400 gifted students ranging in age from 7 to 18 provides a good idea of how school counselors might be of service to the population. The

main “gripes” the students identified in her study included feeling different, being bored with school endeavors, feeling pressure to be perfect, and struggling with their identity as gifted individuals.

In addition, select sub-populations of gifted students have been identified as potentially presenting with unique psychosocial concerns related to the interaction of their giftedness and other aspects of their physical and psychological makeup. These groups include gifted females (Callahan, Cunningham, & Plucker, 1994; Reis, 1987, 1995, 1998; Reis & Callahan, 1989), gifted minority students (Evans, 1997; Ford-Harris, Schuerger, & Harris, 1991; Ford & Harris, 1995; Lindstrom & Van Sant, 1986), gifted students who are gay (Friedrichs, 1997; Peterson & Rischar, 2000), gifted students with learning disabilities or attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (Baum, 1994; Brody & Mills, 1997; Leroux & Levitt-Perlman, 2000; Lind & Silverman, 1994; McEachern & Bornot, 2001; Reis & Colbert, 2004), as well as gifted students with physical disabilities (Maker, 1981; Vialle & Paterson, 1998; Yewchuk & Bibby, 1989). For these groups, it may be that the potential for psychosocial difficulties is amplified.

Suggested Guidance and Counseling Services

Several authors have identified unique ways in which gifted students might profit from their school’s counseling program and ways in which school counselors might best attend to the unique personal and educational needs that come with giftedness (Abraham, 1976; Coleman & Cross, 2001; Gowan & Bruch, 1971; Gowan & Demos, 1964; Hickson, 1992; Jordan & Keith, 1971; Landrum, 1987; Milgram, 1991; Rice, 1985; Strang, 1952; VanTassel-Baska, 1990; Witty, 1954; Zaffrann & Colangelo, 1977).

In an early publication on gifted student guidance and counseling needs, Witty (1954) outlined the following school counselor responsibility: (a) assisting in early identification; (b) working with teachers and administrators in planning stimulating curricula; (c) seeking appropriate scholarships and financial assistance; (d) directing students to appropriate reading material to plan careers; (e) working with parents and teachers in effort to understand the special problems of the gifted; and (f) directing the student to community resources that will enrich interests. Gowan and Demos (1965) called for continuous counseling services in the schools to help gifted students. They recognized the role of counseling across grade levels that addressed many of the aforementioned. In addition, they believed more formal programming should be provided to gifted students between 8th and 12th grades, believing this was a critical period marked by the need to make post-graduate plans.

Walker (1982) outlined functions of the school counselor in gifted education: identification of gifted students, consulting with teachers and others, counseling, group guidance and psychological education, working with parents, and coordinating of services that help gifted students learn. Aside from counseling and consulting skills, she believed school counselors should understand and interpret assessment, develop individualized educational plans, and be able to assist in integrating cognitive and affective areas into the curriculum. School counselors with such skills would be best suited for implementing a differentiated guidance service for gifted students. Others have offered guidelines and frameworks for implementing school counseling programs for gifted students that suggest the need for differential counseling procedures that acknowledge the uniqueness of giftedness (Hickson, 1992; Landrum, 1987).

School Counselor Preparation for Working with Gifted Students

Pre-service school counselors are taught that they will serve all students in the school. However, they are often not given the knowledge and skills to do so (Frantz & Prillaman, 1993; Wyne & Skjei, 1970). Unfortunately, there is little research on the training of counselors to work with students identified as gifted. Only a few studies have been conducted that have drawn attention to the limited knowledge professional school counselors and related professionals have of gifted students.

Ford and Harris (1995) studied the perceptions of counselors in university settings regarding gifted students. They provided 101 counselors with an instrument that measured knowledge and awareness of factors that affected the achievement of gifted students. Five statements on the instrument addressed special service needs for gifted students. The majority of the sample perceived gifted students would do well without special services. Likewise, Klausmeier, Mishra, and Maker (1987) found that most school counselors considered their training in recognizing gifted students to be below average. Dillard, Campbell, and Wilkins (1985) investigated the awareness of behavioral characteristics of gifted students in a sample of 441 school counselors in elementary and secondary settings. On a scale that measured behavioral descriptions and characteristics, the low mean score obtained by the sample was interpreted as suggesting “the counselors lack information about behavioral characteristics of gifted students” (Dillard, Campbell, & Wilkinson, 1985, p. 599).

Summary

This chapter reviewed scholarly literature related to the subject of this study. The nature of stereotypes, the history and content of stereotypes of gifted students, the

psychosocial adjustment of gifted students, and the connection between school counselors and gifted students were discussed.

There has been a long history of stereotyping gifted students as either more maladjusted or better adjusted than their non-gifted peers. These stereotypes have persisted despite the favorable picture that can be concluded from the empirical work that has been done in the area of gifted student psychosocial adjustment. This review highlighted the paucity of research on the training and preparation, as well as the awareness toward gifted students that pre-service and practicing school counselors or related professionals possess.

Chapter III

Methods and Procedures

This chapter outlines the methods and procedures carried out in the study. It is divided into the following sections: research design, participants, setting, measurement, procedures, and data treatment.

Research Design

This study used a descriptive research design that employed both descriptive and inferential statistics. Projective techniques were also used in the study. Projective techniques are incorporated into a research design when the researcher is interested in uncovering participants' attitudes, thoughts, and feelings in a structured-indirect way (Catterall & Ibbotson, 2000). Stereotype research is often made difficult because of participants' propensity to respond in a socially desirable way (McGarty, Yzerbyt, & Spears, 2002). To reduce this risk, researchers incorporate projective measures that characteristically present participants with an ambiguous stimulus that requires participants to *project* held attitudes, thoughts, and feelings onto the stimulus. In this study, third-person evaluations (rating a target population using a list of descriptive adjectives) and role-playing (completing an instrument the way one believes a member of a target population would) were used.

Participants

Participants for this study were 104 graduate students enrolled in master's level school counseling programs at four colleges and three universities in New England. Graduate school programs were selected based on the criteria that they offered a terminal degree in school guidance counseling which graduated its students eligible for respective

state certification. Table 3.1 provides information on the colleges and universities that participated in this study.

An original sample of 107 participants was reduced to the 104 used in the study after three participants were removed for not fully completing study related materials. The demographics of the sample were similar to those reported in previous studies with both pre-service and in-service school counselors and reflective of the demography of school counselors who hold membership in the American School Counselor Association (American School Counselor Association, personal communication, April 6, 2005). Participants were at various levels of training both academically and clinically (internship experience) and reported mixed experiences with gifted students, course work in gifted education, and personal giftedness (Table 3.2).

Setting

The study was conducted in group format at various classroom locations on the main campuses of each of the colleges/universities participants attended. Participants completed study related measures during a 30-minute timeframe that came at either the beginning or end of one of their classes. The exception to this was one administration that took place at the end of a program meeting in what could be described as a moderately sized function room. Classes visited for group administration of measures were typically seminars often related to students' internship experiences. In total, data were collected on 11 separate occasions at the college and university sites.

Table 3.1

Information on Colleges/Universities and Graduate Programs in School Counseling Included in the Study (N = 7)

School	College/ University (enrollment estimate) ^a	State	Program Enrollment ^b	# Students Participating in this Study	Degree Earned	Gifted Education Coursework Offered
1	College (3,182)	NH	100	29	M. Ed.	No
2	University (14,312)	MA	36	14	M. Ed.	No
3	University (15,751)	CT	55	22	M. A.	Yes ^c
4	College (2,750)	MA	37	9	M. Ed.	No
5	College (9,100)	RI	60	7	M. A.	No
6	College (1,969)	MA	75	21	M. Ed.	No
7	University (18,979)	MA	31	2	M. S.	No

^aInformation provided by admissions offices and includes full and part-time undergraduate and graduate students combined.

^bFull and part-time students included in figure.

^cSeparate program offering degrees in gifted education which school counseling students may take classes in.

Table 3.2

Participant Demographic and Experience with Gifted Information *N = 104*

Item	Frequency	Percent	Item	Frequency	Percent
Sex			Internship Experience ^a		
<i>Female</i>	89	85.6	<i>Not yet</i>	57	54.8
<i>Male</i>	15	14.4	<i>Elementary</i>	12	11.5
			<i>Middle</i>	20	19.2
Age			<i>High School</i>	20	19.2
21-25	42	40.4	Work experience with Gifted		
26-30	22	21.2	<i>No</i>	82	78.8
31-35	13	12.5	<i>Yes</i>	22 ^b	21.2
36-40	8	7.7	Coursework Related to Gifted		
41-45	7	6.7	<i>No</i>	99	95.2
46-50	7	6.7	<i>Yes</i>	5 ^c	4.8
51-55	5	4.8	Mention of Gifted in Courses		
Ethnicity			<i>No</i>	82	78.8
<i>Asian</i>	2	1.9	<i>Yes</i>	22 ^d	21.2
<i>Black</i>	5	4.8	Personally Identified as Gifted		
<i>Hispanic</i>	3	2.9	<i>No</i>	85	81.7
<i>White</i>	91	87.5	<i>Yes</i>	19 ^e	18.3
<i>Multi-racial</i>	2	1.9			
Enrollment Status					
<i>Beginning (first semester)</i>	45	43.3			
<i>Middle (neither first or last semester)</i>	29	27.9			
<i>End (last semester)</i>	30	28.8			

^aFigures do not sum to sample size of 104 or 100% based on some participants identifying more than one internship placement.

^bPrimarily classroom and related school settings (e.g., librarian identified library). Three in counseling setting. Three identified as parent of a gifted child.

^cPrimarily courses on exceptionality. One participant identified a course directly related to the social and emotional issues of gifted and talented students.

^dCourses frequently mentioned were related primarily to special education instruction and services. A smaller number mentioned a guidance/counseling course.

^eGrade of identification was equal across elementary, middle, and high school levels. Advanced placement was most commonly reported service.

Measurement

Two empirically based instruments and one demographic questionnaire were used in this study.

The Adjective Checklist (ACL; Gough & Heilbrun, 1983) is comprised of 300 alphabetically arranged adjectives (traits) such as “aggressive,” “intelligent,” and “talkative” that are used in everyday life (Appendix A). The items (adjectives) were selected based on theoretical frameworks of personality including the theories of Freud, Jung, Mead, and Murray. The *ACL* is frequently used by social scientists interested in stereotype measurement. A section describing its use as such is contained in the scoring manual (Gough & Heilbrun, 1983). Normally employed as a self-descriptive personality assessment procedure, the 300-item *ACL* is easily adapted for obtaining descriptions of stereotypes by simply changing the directions. For this study, the demographic questions (name, age, sex) and directions that appear on the front cover of the instrument were replaced with the following set of instructions:

This booklet contains a list of adjectives. Please read through the list quickly and put a check (✓) in the box beside each one you would consider to be characteristic of a **typical gifted student (high intelligence)**. Do not worry about duplications or contradictions. Work quickly and do not spend too much time on any one adjective. You may check as many of the words as you wish.

Embedded in the *ACL* are a number of scales that researchers may parcel out for analysis. Two of these scales, favorability and unfavorability, were used in this study. The favorability scale (number of favorable items checked) consists of 75 adjectives that reflect positive characteristics (e.g., “cooperative,” “energetic,” “good-natured,” “kind,” “reliable,” “warm”) (Appendix B). The unfavorability scale (number of unfavorable

items checked) consists of 75 adjectives that reflect negative characteristics (e.g., “arrogant,” “cynical,” “hostile,” “immature,” “moody,” “self-centered”) (Appendix C). Alpha reliability coefficients for these scales as reported in the scoring and administration manual for the measure are equal to and exceed .91 (Gough & Heilbrun, 1983). Satisfactory coefficient alphas were also obtained on these scales for this study’s sample (favorability, $\alpha = .95$; unfavorability, $\alpha = .97$).

The Child Behavioral Checklist - Youth Self-Report (YSR; Achenbach & Rescorla, 2001) is part of the tripartite *Achenbach System of Empirically Based Assessment (ASEBA)* frequently used in the multi-informant (parent, teacher, and student) assessment of child and adolescent adjustment. The *YSR* would normally be completed as a self-report by a youth being clinically evaluated. The final section of the instrument (pp. 3-4) includes 112-items that request ratings of behavioral, emotional, and social problems on a 3-point Likert scale (0 = Not True, 1 = Somewhat or Sometimes True, 2 = Very True or Often True). The items represent areas of adjustment that a cluster analysis divided into eight syndrome scales: anxious/depressed, withdrawn/depressed, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems, attention problems, rule-breaking behavior, and aggressive behavior. Test-retest reliabilities for the syndrome scales range from .67 to .88; Cronbach’s alphas range from .71 to .86. Internal consistency estimates for the syndrome scales for this study’s sample ranged from $\alpha = .75$ to $\alpha = .87$. A complete listing of *YSR* items (abbreviated stems) by scale can be found in Appendix D.

Participants were instructed to complete the 112-item portion of the *YSR* as they believed a particular type of student would. Participants were assigned one of four different types of adolescent student to role-play: male, gifted male, female, or gifted

female. The age range of adolescence was used because the *YSR* is a measure typically completed by students between the ages of 11 and 18. To facilitate the role assignments, the following directions appeared on a 3" x 4" sheet of paper attached to the front of each questionnaire:

This is a survey designed for students. So to complete it you need to adopt the mindset of a student and think about how this student would answer.

Take a moment to picture yourself as a **typical adolescent** _____. * Please complete this form the way you think you would in this role – as a **typical adolescent** _____.*

Please do not leave any items unanswered. Work quickly and do not spend too much time on any one item. Some items ask you to elaborate on your answer with the word “describe.” Ignore this command but be sure to circle a number for the item.

Note. * insert target of ‘**male**’, ‘**gifted male (high intelligence)**’, ‘**female**’, or ‘**gifted female (high intelligence)**’.

In addition to these measures, participants were asked to complete a short demographic questionnaire that included questions related to participants’ graduate program and experience with gifted students or their own giftedness (Appendix E).

Procedures

Program Recruitment. A list of graduate schools in New England that offered a master’s degree in school guidance counseling was obtained from an Internet site used to locate graduate programs throughout the world (Educational Directors Unlimited, 2004). The website identified 27 school counseling programs in the region. Two additional programs not listed but known to the researcher were also identified.

For the current investigation, the researcher was on-site to conduct the study. As such, programs were recruited from the obtained listing based on their geographic

proximity to the researcher's base. Program coordinators at 16 colleges/universities from the original list of 29 were contacted via e-mail and/or telephone and introduced to the study. Seven of these sixteen sites participated in the study. Reasons for non-participation fell into three categories: non-respondance, inability to coordinate schedules for conducting the study, and unwillingness to give up instructional time to carry out the study.

Participant Recruitment. Participants were recruited for this study just prior to data collection. Advanced notice was given to students in each of the programs visited informing them of the date and time the researcher would be arriving to recruit participants and subsequently conduct the study. On these dates and at these times, potential participants were introduced to the researcher, informed of what participation would entail, and given a study information sheet that explained their rights as a research participant should they choose to participate. Those who agreed to participate were included in the study. It is estimated that 90% of invited participants took part in the study.

Incentives. Program coordinators were provided with a copy of the National Association for Gifted Children's book *The Social and Emotional Development of Gifted Children: What do we Know?* (Neihart, Reis, Robinson, & Moon, 2002). In addition, program coordinators were given an open invitation to have this researcher present the results of this study or present on another topic related to the social and emotional aspects of giftedness at a future date. The 104 participants in this study were not offered an incentive to participate but upon completion of the study they were given a 10 oz. Hershey bar as an acknowledged very small token of appreciation.

Administering of Measures. Measures were administered to participants in group format. It was necessary to divide the sample into four groups for the purpose of addressing research questions 2 to 4. As mentioned previously in the section on the measures used in this study, there were four different direction sets accompanying the *YSR*. These four direction sets assigned the roles that participants were to assume when filling out the measure; namely, male, gifted male, female, or gifted female. This allowed for group comparisons. The sample was divided into these four groups by disseminating the *YSR* to participants in the following sequence: male, gifted male, female, gifted female, and repeat. This ordering was in place throughout the data collection process; when a new site was visited for data collection, this order was picked up where it had been left off at the previous data collection site. There were no separate groups established for completing the *ACL* or the demographic questionnaire.

In addition to manipulating the group that participants were assigned to, the sequence that the *YSR* and *ACL* were administered was altered based on whether participants were completing the *YSR* as a gifted ($n = 52$) or non-gifted ($n = 52$) student. Table 3.3 displays the sequence that measures were administered for each of the designated four groups (male, gifted male, female, gifted female). The decision to present the instruments in the order shown in Table 3.3 was based on the idea that whichever measure was completed by participants first could potentially have an influence on responses for the measures that followed. To make it possible for investigating this effect, the position of the *ACL* and *YSR* in the distribution sequence was altered for the gifted and non-gifted groups. Response patterns on the *ACL* were analyzed during and after data collection. Participants in each of the four groups showed a similar pattern of adjective

endorsement on the measure. This was seen as lending support to the chosen ordering of the measures. It may also have indicated that the order was not relevant. In any case, the order did not seem to influence how participants completed the measures. Each participant's measures were coded with the same number to link each participant to his or her responses.

Table 3.3

Sequence Measures Were Completed by Participants in Each Assigned Group

Group	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
Male (<i>n</i> = 26)	<i>ACL</i> (typical gifted)	<i>YSR</i> (male)	Demographics
Gifted Male (<i>n</i> = 26)	<i>YSR</i> (gifted male)	<i>ACL</i> (typical gifted)	Demographics
Female (<i>n</i> = 26)	<i>ACL</i> (typical gifted)	<i>YSR</i> (female)	Demographics
Gifted Female (<i>n</i> = 26)	<i>YSR</i> (gifted female)	<i>ACL</i> (typical gifted)	Demographics

Note. All participants completed *ACL* with the same instructions and target for rating (typical gifted student).

Data Treatment

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze overall responses on the *ACL*. The top 25 adjectives based on highest frequency of endorsement were delineated. Scores on the favorability and unfavorability scales of the *ACL* were compared using a paired-samples *t* test. The top 15 adjectives based on frequency of endorsement were also delineated for each of these scales.

Responses on the *YSR* were analyzed with a 2 X 2 MANOVA. The independent variables were researcher designated categories of gender (male and female) and classification (gifted and non-gifted). The dependent variables were the measures' eight syndrome scales: anxiety/depression, withdrawn/depression, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems, attention problems, rule-breaking behavior, and aggressive behavior. Post-hoc analyses were conducted with analyses of variance (ANOVA) and discriminant function analyses (DISCRIM).

Summary

This chapter outlined the methods and procedures used in the study. Included in this chapter was a description of the research design, sample characteristics, setting, measures, procedures, and data treatment.

Chapter IV

Results

This chapter presents the results of the study. The research questions under investigation were addressed through two discrete procedures and accompanying statistical methodologies. The presentation of results in this chapter will be divided accordingly. To assist the reader, a restatement of the research question(s) is included in each subsection of findings.

Research Questions 1

What character traits comprise the stereotype of an intellectually gifted student as held by pre-service school counselors?

Participants' descriptions of a typical gifted student (high intelligence) were calculated by summing responses for each of the 300-items on the *Adjective Checklist (ACL)* for the full sample of 104 participants. Table 4.1 provides a list of the top 25 adjectives endorsed by participants along with accompanying frequencies and percentiles. A complete listing of frequency counts and percentiles for the full 300-items of the *ACL* can be found in Appendix A.

A paired-samples *t* test was conducted to see if participants were more inclined to perceive a typical gifted student favorably or unfavorably. Responses to items that comprised the favorability (number of favorable items endorsed) and unfavorability (number of unfavorable items endorsed) scales of the *ACL* were used for the comparison. Coefficient alpha reliability statistics for each scale were computed and indicated satisfactory reliability (favorability scale = .95, unfavorability scale = .97). The results indicated that the mean for the favorability scale ($M = 32.88$, $SD = 16.49$) was significantly greater than the mean for the unfavorability scale ($M = 11.27$, $SD = 14.04$), *t*

(103) = 11.79, $p < .001$, $d = 1.1$. Table 4.2 provides a list of the top 15 adjectives endorsed by participants for each of the scales. A complete listing of adjectives comprising each of these scales and how participants endorsed them can be found in Appendix B and C.

Table 4.1

Top 25 Adjectives Selected to Describe a Typical Gifted Student (High Intelligence)

$N = 104$

Item	<i>f.</i>	%	Item	<i>f.</i>	%
Intelligent	94	90.4	Responsible	68	65.4
Ambitious	92	88.5	Active	67	64.4
Clever	84	80.8	Resourceful	67	64.4
Alert	82	78.8	Self-Confident	67	64.4
Capable	82	78.8	Adaptable	66	63.5
Determined	76	73.1	Artistic	66	63.5
Independent	76	73.1	Serious	65	62.5
Clear-thinking	75	72.1	Assertive	63	60.6
Confident	75	72.1	Conscientious	63	60.6
Organized	72	69.2	Imaginative	63	60.6
Curious	68	65.4	Persistent	61	58.7
Insightful	68	65.4	Dependable	60	57.7
Logical	68	65.4			

Note. Percentages rounded to nearest tenth. Alphabetical order used to list adjectives with same first letter and frequency.

Table 4.2

Top 15 ACL Favorability and Unfavorability Scale Items Selected to Describe a Typical Gifted Student (High Intelligence) N = 104

<u>Favorability Scale</u>			<u>Unfavorability Scale</u>		
Item	<i>f.</i>	%	Item	<i>f.</i>	%
Intelligent	94	90.4	Opinionated	54	51.9
Ambitious	92	88.5	Argumentative	44	42.3
Clever	84	80.8	Arrogant	44	42.3
Alert	82	78.8	Boastful	35	33.7
Capable	82	78.8	Impatient	35	33.7
Independent	76	73.1	Bossy	34	32.7
Clear-thinking	75	72.1	Egotistical	34	32.7
Confident	75	72.1	Self-Centered	33	31.7
Organized	72	69.2	Cynical	30	28.8
Curious	68	65.4	Affected	28	26.9
Insightful	68	65.4	Interests-Narrow	28	26.9
Logical	68	65.4	Aloof	27	26.0
Responsible	68	65.4	Moody	26	25.0
Active	67	64.4	Fault-Finding	25	24.0
Resourceful	67	64.4	Irritable	23	22.1

Note. Percentages rounded to nearest tenth. Alphabetical order used to list adjectives with same first letter and frequency.

Research Questions 2 to 4

Question 2. Do pre-service school counselors perceive male and female students differently (gender)...

Question 3. Do pre-service school counselors perceive intellectually gifted and non-gifted students differently (classification)...

Question 4. Is there an interaction between the perceptions of pre-service school counselors of gender (male and female) and classification (gifted and non-gifted)...

...with respect to feelings of anxiety with depression, feelings of being withdrawn with depression, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems, attention problems, rule-breaking behavior, and aggressive behavior?

A 2 x 2 between-subjects multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed on eight dependent variables: anxiety/depression, withdrawn/depression, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems, attention problems, rule-breaking behavior, and aggressive behavior. These variables comprise the eight scales of the *Youth Self-Report (YSR)*. As previously stated, Cronbach's alphas for the scales with this sample were all within the acceptable range. Independent variables were gender (male and female) and classification (gifted and non-gifted). SPSS 12.0 MANOVA was used for the analysis.

Wilks' lambda criterion was used to assess significance. The combined dependent variables were significantly affected by both gender, $F(8, 93) = 3.43, p = .002$, and classification, $F(8, 93) = 6.00, p < .001$, but not by their interaction, $F(8, 93) = 1.91, p = .068$. The results reflect a modest association for gender and the combined dependent variables, partial $\eta^2 = .23$. The association was larger between classification (gifted and non-gifted) and the dependent variables, partial $\eta^2 = .34$. To evaluate the significant main

effects of gender and classification found through the MANOVA procedure, univariate analyses of variance (ANOVA) were performed.

For gender, significant differences were found on two of the *YSR* scales: rule-breaking behavior, $F(1, 102) = 5.86, p = .017$, partial $\eta^2 = .055$, and aggressive behavior, $F(1, 102) = 4.27, p = .041$, partial $\eta^2 = .041$. There were no significant differences found for the remaining *YSR* scales: anxiety/depression, $F(1, 102) = 2.54, p = .114$, partial $\eta^2 = .025$, withdrawn/depression, $F(1, 102) = .11, p = .742$, partial $\eta^2 = .001$, somatic problems, $F(1, 102) = .08, p = .78$, partial $\eta^2 = .001$, social problems, $F(1, 102) = 1.57, p = .214$, partial $\eta^2 = .015$, thought problems, $F(1, 102) = 1.63, p = .204$, partial $\eta^2 = .016$, and attention problems, $F(1, 102) = .47, p = .496$, partial $\eta^2 = .005$. Analysis of group mean differences for the significant scales indicated participants completing the instrument in the role of a male ($n = 52$) rated themselves higher than those in the role of a female ($n = 52$) on both rule-breaking behavior (male, $M = .636, SD = .044$; female $M = .484, SD = .044$), and aggressive behavior (male, $M = .688, SD = .046$; female, $M = .553, SD = .046$).

For classification, significant differences were found for five of the *YSR* scales: anxiety/depression, $F(1, 102) = 5.04, p = .027$, partial $\eta^2 = .048$, thought problems, $F(1, 102) = 4.15, p = .044$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$, attention problems, $F(1, 102) = 12.44, p = .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .111$, rule-breaking behavior, $F(1, 102) = 16.29, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .14$, and aggressive behavior, $F(1, 102) = 6.51, p = .012$, partial $\eta^2 = .061$. There were no significant differences found for the remaining *YSR* scales: withdrawn/depression, $F(1, 102) = 2.52, p = .116$, partial $\eta^2 = .025$, somatic problems, $F(1, 102) = .849, p = .359$, partial $\eta^2 = .008$, and social problems, $F(1, 102) = 3.03, p = .085$, partial $\eta^2 = .029$.

Analysis of group mean differences for the significant scales indicated participants completing the instrument in the role of a gifted student ($n = 52$) rated themselves higher than those in the role of a non-gifted student ($n = 52$) on anxiety/depression (gifted, $M = .784$, $SD = .055$; non-gifted $M = .611$, $SD = .055$), and thought problems (gifted, $M = .611$, $SD = .048$; non-gifted, $M = .473$, $SD = .048$). Conversely, those in the role of a gifted student rated themselves lower than those in the role of a non-gifted student on attention problems (gifted $M = .628$, $SD = .055$; non-gifted, $M = .904$, $SD = .055$), rule-breaking behavior (gifted, $M = .434$, $SD = .044$; non-gifted, $M = .687$, $SD = .044$) and aggressive behavior (gifted $M = .537$, $SD = .046$; non-gifted, $M = .704$, $SD = .046$).

Two direct discriminant function analyses (DISCRIM) were conducted to determine whether the eight dependent variables (*YSR* scales) could predict gender and classification (gifted and non-gifted).

For the gender factor, the overall Wilks' lambda was significant, $\Delta = .79$, $\chi^2(8, N = 104) = 23.24$, $p = .003$, $\eta^2 = .21$, indicating that overall the predictors did differentiate the male and female groups. Table 4.3 presents the within groups correlations between the predictors and the discriminant function (structure matrix). These correlations represent the relative contribution of each dependent variable to group separation. With a cutoff point of 0.33 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) between the eight predictors and the discriminant function, these coefficients indicate rule-breaking behavior and aggressive behavior were the two main predictors useful for distinguishing between male and female groups. This function was used to try to predict gender group membership for the sample in this study. It was able to classify correctly 72% of the participants in the sample into categories by gender (Table 4.4).

Table 4.3

*Correlations of Predictor Variables with the Discriminant**Function for the Gender Factor* *N = 104*

Predictor Variables	Correlation Coefficients
Rule-breaking behavior	.43 ^a
Aggressive behavior	.39 ^a
Anxiety/depression	-.29
Thought problems	.24
Social problems	.24
Attention problems	.13
Withdrawn/depression	.06
Somatic complaints	-.05

^aMain predictors for distinguishing between male and female groups.

Table 4.4

Classification Results for Discriminant Function and Gender Factor *N = 104*

		<u>Predicted Group Membership</u>		
		Male	Female	Total
Count	Male	36	16	52
	Female	13	39	52
Percent	Male	69.2	30.8	100
	Female	25.0	75.0	100

Note. 72.1% of original grouped cases correctly classified.

For the classification factor, the overall Wilks' lambda was also significant, $\Delta = .67, \chi^2(8, N = 104) = 23.24, p < .001, \eta^2 = .33$, indicating that overall the predictors did differentiate the gifted and non-gifted groups. Table 4.5 presents the with-in groups correlations between the predictors and the discriminant function (structure matrix). Using the same cutoff point of 0.33 between the eight predictors and the discriminant function, these coefficients indicated rule-breaking behavior, attention problems, and aggressive behavior were the three main predictors useful for distinguishing between gifted and non-gifted groups. This function was used to try to predict gifted and non-gifted group membership. It was successful 76% of the time (Table 4.6).

Table 4.5

*Correlations of Predictor Variables with the Discriminant Function
for the Classification Factor (Gifted and Non-Gifted) N = 104*

Predictor Variables	Correlation Coefficients
Rule-breaking behavior	.56 ^a
Attention problems	.50 ^a
Aggressive behavior	.36 ^a
Anxiety/depression	-.31
Thought problems	-.29
Social problems	-.25
Withdrawn/depression	-.22
Somatic complaints	-.13

^aMain predictors for distinguishing between gifted and non-gifted groups.

Table 4.6

*Classification Results for Discriminant Function and Classification Factor**(Gifted and Non-Gifted) N = 104*

		<u>Predicted Group Membership</u>		
		Gifted	Non-Gifted	Total
Count	Gifted	41	11	52
	Non-Gifted	14	38	52
Percent	Gifted	78.8	21.2	100
	Non-Gifted	26.9	73.1	100

Note. 76% of original grouped cases correctly classified.

Summary

This chapter presented the results of the study. Analysis of responses on the *ACL* indicated pre-service school counselors in this study held a favorable perception of gifted students. Frequencies and percentages of items endorsed on the measure indicated predominantly positive adjectives being selected to describe the typical intellectually gifted student (e.g., “ambitious,” “capable,” “confident”). This finding was supported by a paired-samples *t* test that indicated a significantly greater score on the favorability scale compared to the score on the unfavorability scale for the sample. MANOVA procedures used to analyze responses on the *YSR* indicated significance for independent variables gender and classification (gifted and non-gifted) but not their interaction. Post hoc ANOVAs and DISCRIMs identified several areas of difference between groups for each main effect.

Chapter V

Discussion

This chapter provides a commentary on and a discussion of the study's findings. A general summary of the findings will be followed by a discussion of the results for each research question independently. An acknowledgment of the study's limitations as well as its implications and suggestions for future research will also be included.

Summary of Findings

This study was undertaken to explore the stereotypes and beliefs pre-service school counselors held of students identified as intellectually gifted. Gifted students have often been characterized as either psychosocially maladjusted (Sellin & Birch, 1980) or as psychosocially robust and enjoying a healthier disposition than their non-gifted peers (Terman & Oden, 1947). This study was interested in seeing where pre-service school counselors perceived intellectually gifted students along this continuum.

Responses to an adjective checklist (*ACL*) with participants endorsing the words they believed were most characteristic of a *typical gifted student (high intelligence)* were largely favorable (e.g., "ambitious," "confident," "self-confident"). Participants seemed to perceive an intellectually gifted student with correlates of intelligence (e.g., "logical") and other positive descriptors (e.g., "conscientious"). This trend was supported by the significantly higher score on the favorability scale of the *ACL* compared to the unfavorability scale. On average, participants selected more favorable adjectives than unfavorable adjectives to characterize a typical intellectually gifted student. However, to a lesser extent but still present, negative perceptions were also observed (e.g., "anxious," "arrogant," "awkward").

This study was also interested in exploring pre-service school counselors' perceptions of the psychosocial adjustment of intellectually gifted students in comparison to their non-gifted peers. By assuming the position of a student that was identified as either a male, gifted male, female, or gifted female, participants completed an instrument (*YSR*) designed as a self-report measure to assess adjustment in eight areas: anxiety with depression, withdrawn with depression, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems, attention problems, rule-breaking behavior, and aggressive behavior. A 2 x 2 multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) indicated significant differences between the groups by gender and by their classification as either gifted or non-gifted (significant main effects). The interaction of gender and classification was not found to be significant (non-significant interaction effect). Post hoc analyses of the significant main effect for gender and classification (gifted and non-gifted) were conducted with univariate analyses of variance (ANOVAs) and direct discriminant function analyses (DISCRIMs). Bonferroni adjustments were not used to set critical levels based on theoretical arguments against their utility in determining significance (Nakagawa, 2004; Perneger, 1998; Rothman, 1990).

Results showed those in the role of a male indicated more rule-breaking and aggressive behaviors than those in the role of a female. Based on the structure matrix of the discriminant function for gender, with a conventional correlation cutoff value of 0.33 for each predictor and the discriminant function (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001), differences in these two areas of adjustment were the most effective in distinguishing the two groups from one another. Classification results of the DISCRIM properly classified 72% of the 104 participants by gender.

For classification, those in the role of a gifted student rated themselves higher than those in the role of a non-gifted student on the *YSR* scales that measured anxiety with depression and thought problems. Conversely, those in the role of a gifted student endorsed significantly less difficulty with attention problems, rule-breaking behaviors, and aggressive behaviors compared to those in the non-gifted role. For gifted and non-gifted groups, a 76% classification rate was achieved through the discriminant function procedure. This was largely due to gifted and non-gifted score difference on rule-breaking behavior, attention problems, and aggressive behaviors. Anxiety with depression and thought problems made lesser contributions after adjusting the critical value for the correlations in the structure matrix downward.

Research Questions 1

What character traits comprise the stereotype of an intellectually gifted student as held by pre-service school counselors?

Despite their limited experience with gifted students or course work in this area, participants in this study showed agreement with the experts in the field of gifted education regarding many of the commonly identified attributes of intellectually gifted students (Davis & Rimm, 1998; Silverman, 1993; and others). Many of the *ACL* words most frequently endorsed by the participants can be found atop lists of identifying characteristics of gifted students and on screening measures used to identify giftedness (e.g., “independent,” “curious,” “imaginative”). The words most frequently selected to describe a typical gifted student of high intelligence were favorable and presented an overall positive image. These were words that received 50% or greater endorsement by the sample. The one exception to this was the word “opinionated” ($n = 54$, 52%). While this word generally carries negative connotation, many, this researcher included, are of

the “opinion” that such an attribute can be construed as an asset and not a deficit. If the student’s opinions are well formed and thoughtful, being “opinionated” might not be such a bad thing.

While the pre-service school counselors in this study held an overall positive view of the individual characteristics of gifted students of high intelligence, a close look at the endorsement rates for the full 300-items on the *ACL* showed the responses of the sample were not entirely without some of the common stereotyped images noted in previous studies (Cox, 2000; Murphy, 1987; Solano, 1977, 1987). Between 40% and 50% of the participants described a typical intellectually gifted student as “complicated,” “headstrong,” “anxious,” “high-strung,” “argumentative,” and “arrogant.” Thirty-eight percent of the sample used the word “awkward” in their description. Nearly one-third of the sample saw gifted students as “boastful,” “egotistical,” and “self-centered.” Conversely, only 18% of the sample used “cool” to describe the population and only 14% checked “good-looking.” Albeit these attributes occurred secondarily to more positive ones, they do indicate the stereotype of maladjustment was present to some extent within this sample.

Robinson (2002) stated, “there is no more varied group of young people than the diverse group known as gifted children and adolescents” (p. xi). Intellectually gifted students are a diverse group possessing a multitude of personal attributes and characteristics. It is important for pre-service school counselors to be aware of this. When they assume the role of professional school counselors, they will experience intellectually gifted students who do not fit the most frequently endorsed and largely positive items in this study. For example, an underachieving gifted student will most likely not present as

“ambitious” (88% endorsement) or “responsible” (65% endorsement). Some gifted students with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (AD/HD) or a learning disability would never be described as “organized” (69%) or “self-confident” (64%). These unique student populations often run counter to the image portrayed by this sample’s adjective selections. It is hoped that the participants in this study will be sensitive to individual differences when encountering gifted students who do not fit the usual pattern of cognitive and affective attributes characteristic of most intellectually gifted students.

Research Questions 2

Do pre-service school counselors perceive male and female students differently (gender) with respect to feelings of anxiety with depression, feelings of being withdrawn with depression, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems, attention problems, rule-breaking behavior, and aggressive behavior?

Higher scores were given for males compared to females for the rule-breaking and aggressive behavior scales of the *YSR*. Literature on gender differences in psychosocial adjustment has repeatedly indicated that school age males present more anti-social behaviors than do school age females (Giodano & Cernkovich, 1997; Offord, Boyle, & Racine, 1991). Males are more inclined to juvenile delinquency and exhibit more aggressive behaviors (Ramirez, 2003). The findings in this study are in line with this large body of research; the pre-service school counselors in this study role-played the genders on rule-breaking and aggressive behaviors rather accurately.

It is interesting that there were no significant differences between the groups on any of the other measures of adjustment difficulties: anxiety/depression, withdrawn/depression, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems, and attention problems. Gender differences have been noted for these areas (Seeman, 1995;

Winstead & Sanchez, 2005). Of particular interest is the finding of no significant difference between those completing the *YSR* as a male student and as a female student on the attention problems scale. This finding runs counter to epistemological studies that report higher male to female ratios for attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (AD/HD). Such studies have sometimes approached a gender ratio as high as 9:1 (males: females) (Pennington, 2002).

Research Questions 3

Do pre-service school counselors perceive intellectually gifted and non-gifted students differently (classification) with respect to feelings of anxiety with depression, feelings of being withdrawn with depression, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems, attention problems, rule-breaking behavior, and aggressive behavior?

Conclusions drawn from extensive reviews of the literature on the adjustment of gifted students have repeatedly concluded that gifted students are no more or no less likely than their non-gifted peers to experience psychosocial difficulties (Fiedler, 1999; Janos & Robinson, 1985; Neihart, 1998; Robinson & Noble, 1991; Neihart, Reis, Robinson, & Moon, 2002). The pre-service school counselors in this study, however, gave responses to *YSR* items that indicated gifted and non-gifted students did differ in their level of psychosocial adjustment in a number of areas.

The stereotype of intellectually gifted students being imputed with healthier adjustment than their non-gifted peers (Terman, 1925; Terman & Oden, 1947) was present for a number of *YSR* indices of adjustment. Those completing the instrument in the role of a gifted student indicated significantly less difficulty with attention problems, rule-breaking behavior, and aggressive behavior than those in the role of a non-gifted student. This perception corresponded with that found through the checklist technique

used to address the first research question. The most frequent responses on the ACL were largely positive and included strong endorsement for descriptive words like “alert,” “organized,” “responsible,” “dependable,” “cooperative,” and “self-controlled.” These words are antonyms to those that would be used to describe individuals with problems of attention, rule-breaking behavior, and aggressive behavior. It appears the pre-service school counselors in this study saw giftedness as a shield protecting intellectually gifted students from experiencing difficulties in these three areas.

To a lesser extent, the participants in this study also perceived intellectually gifted students experiencing more adjustment difficulties than non-gifted students in a few distinct areas. The gifted group indicated significantly more problems than the non-gifted group on *YSR* scales of anxiety with depression and thought problems. These differences were observed outright through the post hoc univariate analysis of variance tests. They were not identified on the discriminant analysis until the traditional cutoff for inclusion was reduced – an acceptable procedure in interpreting loadings (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Again, responses on the *ACL* provide insight into this finding, particularly for the elevated score on the anxiety/depression scale. Between 33% and 42% of participants used “nervous,” “worrying,” “anxious,” and “high-strung” to describe the typical high intelligent gifted student. The pre-service school counselors in this study had a tendency to perceive gifted students of high intelligence as being prone to anxiety and stress. This is a position that has been advocated by a number of experts in the field of gifted education (Blackburn & Erickson, 1986; Dirkes, 1983; Genshaft, Greenbaum, & Borovsky, 1995) but rarely empirically found in comparison studies (Davis & Connell, 1985; Reynolds & Bradley, 1983; Zeidner & Schleyer, 1999).

Much has been stated about the experienced social difficulties of students identified as gifted (Delisle, 1987; Galbraith, 1985; Sanborn, 1979; Sands & Howard-Hamilton, 1995; Silverman, 1997). The pre-service school counselors in this study did not indicate any more or any less social difficulty based on classification as gifted or non-gifted on the *YSR* social problems scale. This fits with empirical findings that have shown gifted students to enjoy social acceptance and social popularity (Gallagher & Crowder, 1957; Galloway & Porath, 1997; Merrill & Gill, 1992; Saylor & Brookshire, 1993).

Research Question 4

Is there an interaction between the perceptions of pre-service school counselors of gender (male and female) and classification (gifted and non-gifted) with respect to feelings of anxiety with depression, feelings of being withdrawn with depression, somatic complaints, social problems, thought problems, attention problems, rule-breaking behavior, and aggressive behavior?

This study failed to find a significant interaction between gender and classification (gifted and non-gifted). Male and female students were scored differently on a number of *YSR* scales as were gifted and non-gifted students but unique combinations of these factors were not evident. It is believed that this was largely due to the sample's size. A trend toward a significant interaction was noted for both anxiety/depression and withdrawn/depression. The classification of *gifted* increased the score on these scales for male students but decreased it for female students. Gifted males scored higher than all groups on these scales. However, in the presence of a non-significant finding, caution should be taken in interpreting these trends. It could be that regardless of sample size, the pattern of responses would remain the same.

Limitations

This study has limitations. The sample of pre-service school counselors that took part in this study attended colleges and universities that were selected out of convenience. As such, they are not representative of all pre-service counselors and generalization beyond the participants and programs in this study is limited. In addition, the measures and procedures used in the study need to be considered when evaluating the study's findings.

The 300-adjectives that comprise the *ACL* were selected by the instrument's developers based on theoretical frameworks of personality and rigorous experimentation (Gough & Heilbrun, 1983). Nevertheless, they are but a fraction of words that can be used to describe the character traits of a group of people. It is possible that if other adjectives were used, a different picture of the typical intellectually gifted student would have emerged. In addition, there was evidence that participants did not fully attend to the adjective selection task. Despite the characteristic of *high intelligence* being provided to participants in the instructions for completing the measure - "...you would consider to be characteristic of a typical gifted student (high intelligence)" – not every participant endorsed the word "intelligent" as it appeared on the measure. Only 94 of the 104 (90%) selected this item. In addition, 3 participants selected "unintelligent." The only explanation for this is that participants were not fully attending to the task.

In addition, there is no way of knowing that all participants responded honestly on the *ACL*. The propensity to respond in a socially desirable manner has been noted in stereotype research (Ehrlich & Rinehart, 1965; McCauley, Stitt, & Segal, 1980; McGarty, Yzerbyt, & Spears, 2002). The same holds for how participants may have responded to

the items on the *YSR*. There is also no way of knowing if participants were able to assume the role of a typical male, gifted male, female, or gifted female student when completing the *YSR*. This requires perspective taking and the ability to empathize; not everyone has these advanced emotional skills. Others may not have been able to stay in role when completing the measure. One participant was even removed from the study after she completed the instrument as herself; she didn't read the directions.

Finally, it is possible that the ordering of the instruments influenced participants' manner of response. While there was a high frequency of similar *ACL* word endorsement among the four groups, it is possible that the sequencing played a part in creating these similarities. These similarities were considered evidence that the ordering did not impact the groups; however, the opposite is possible.

Implications and Future Research Directions

This study has identified possible training needs of pre-service school counselors for working with students identified as intellectually gifted – and perhaps any form of giftedness. Counselor educators should provide curricular and field experiences that assist pre-service school counselors in exploring perceptions and challenging stereotyped notions of students identified as intellectually gifted. The more pre-service school counselors are exposed to *giftedness* during their training, the more likely they will be able to provide direct (e.g., individual counseling) and indirect (e.g., working with parents) school guidance services to gifted students when they practice in the field professionally.

There are a number of ways school counseling programs and counselor educators may prepare future school counselors for working with intellectually gifted students.

Curricular experiences that emphasize an accurate description of the characteristics and experiences of intellectually gifted students and the empirically supported fact that gifted students are as likely as non-gifted students to experience psychosocial difficulties would be helpful in reducing stereotyped images of gifted students as maladjusted and better-adjusted (for the latter, if gifted students are like non-gifted students in their level of psychosocial adjustment, and other students have occasional need for school guidance services, so too will gifted students). Seminars, guest speakers, and other venues that provide pre-service school counselors with an opportunity to examine the content of their beliefs about intellectually gifted students would be beneficial. In particular, field and internship experiences that provide access to students identified as intellectually gifted are paramount.

Future research endeavors to build upon this study might include looking at pre-service school counselors' perceptions of other forms of giftedness, identifying barriers that might impede pre-service school counselors' thoughts about working with gifted students, and identifying graduate program curriculum and training experiences that best increase pre-service school counselors' awareness of students identified as gifted. Research on interventions to reduce stereotyping and perceptual bias in pre-service school counselors would also make an immense contribute to this area of focus.

In addition, Strang (1952) asked, "Do school counselors have any special responsibility for the gifted?" (p. 26). Since raising this question, a number of think pieces and commentaries have been written offering "guidance" to school counselors for their work with students identified as gifted (Abraham, 1976; Gowan & Bruch, 1971; Gowan & Demos, 1964; Hickson, 1992; Jordan & Keith, 1971; Landrum, 1987;

Milgram, 1991; Rice, 1985; VanTassel-Baska, 1990; Witty, 1954). However, empirical methods in the service of answering the question have rarely been undertaken. Any research that begins to acknowledge the role practicing school counselors play in the lives of gifted students would be noteworthy.

Conclusion

This study empirically investigated the perceptions of pre-service school counselors regarding students identified as intellectually gifted. Underlying this study was an attempt to contribute to an area of research concerning pre-service school counselors and gifted students that has been literally ignored. To this end, it is hoped that this investigation has made its contribution. In sum, this study found the composite perception of intellectually gifted students by this sample of pre-service school counselors largely favorable. However, constituents of the stereotype of maladjustment, and to a lesser extent better-adjustment, were present.

APPENDIX A

***Adjective Checklist (ACL) Items and Their Endorsement* N = 104**

Item	<i>f.</i>	%	Item	<i>f.</i>	%	Item	<i>f.</i>	%
1 absent-minded	21	20	26 capable	82	79	51 cowardly	5	5
2 active	67	64	27 careless	7	7	52 cruel	5	5
3 adaptable	66	63	28 cautious	50	48	53 curious	68	65
4 adventurous	56	54	29 changeable	25	24	54 cynical	30	29
5 affected	28	27	30 charming	31	30	55 daring	25	24
6 affectionate	34	33	31 cheerful	26	25	56 deceitful	8	8
7 aggressive	29	28	32 civilized	45	43	57 defensive	18	17
8 alert	82	79	33 clear-thinking	75	72	58 deliberate	36	35
9 aloof	27	26	34 clever	84	81	59 demanding	42	40
10 ambitious	92	88	35 coarse	6	6	60 dependable	60	58
11 anxious	45	43	36 cold	12	12	61 dependent	16	15
12 apathetic	13	13	37 commonplace	5	5	62 despondent	10	10
13 appreciative	36	35	38 complaining	12	12	63 determined	76	73
14 argumentative	44	42	39 complicated	50	48	64 dignified	43	41
15 arrogant	44	42	40 conceited	23	22	65 discreet	10	10
16 artistic	66	63	41 confident	75	72	66 disorderly	11	11
17 assertive	63	61	42 confused	15	14	67 dissatisfied	16	15
18 attractive	21	21	43 conscientious	63	61	68 distractible	19	18
19 autocratic	15	14	44 conservative	33	32	69 distrustful	10	10
20 awkward	40	38	45 considerate	38	37	70 dominant	36	35
21 bitter	9	9	46 contented	18	17	71 dreamy	19	18
22 blustery	7	7	47 conventional	23	22	72 dull	12	12
23 boastful	35	34	48 cool	19	18	73 easy-going	24	23
24 bossy	34	33	49 cooperative	52	50	74 effeminate	4	4
25 calm	31	30	50 courageous	30	29	75 efficient	58	56

Note. Percentiles rounded to nearest whole number.

Item	<i>f.</i>	%	Item	<i>f.</i>	%	Item	<i>f.</i>	%			
76	egotistical	34	33	101	gloomy	14	13	126	infantile	10	10
77	emotional	33	32	102	good-looking	15	14	127	informal	5	5
78	energetic	54	52	103	good-natured	31	30	128	ingenious	41	39
79	enterprising	40	38	104	greedy	7	7	129	inhibited	23	22
80	enthusiastic	54	52	105	handsome	12	12	130	initiative	41	39
81	evasive	12	12	106	hard-headed	34	33	131	insightful	68	65
82	excitable	27	26	107	hard-hearted	10	10	132	intelligent	94	90
83	fair-minded	32	31	108	hasty	12	12	133	interests narrow	28	27
84	fault-finding	25	24	109	headstrong	49	47	134	interests wide	46	44
85	fearful	20	19	110	healthy	37	36	135	intolerant	22	21
86	feminine	8	8	111	helpful	43	41	136	inventive	56	54
87	fickle	9	9	112	high-strung	44	42	137	irresponsible	7	7
88	flirtatious	6	6	113	honest	42	40	138	irritable	23	22
89	foolish	5	5	114	hostile	12	12	139	jolly	11	11
90	forceful	21	20	115	humorous	24	23	140	kind	29	28
91	foresighted	28	27	116	hurried	18	17	141	lazy	9	9
92	forgetful	10	10	117	idealistic	44	42	142	leisurely	10	10
93	forgiving	15	14	118	imaginative	63	61	143	logical	68	65
94	formal	31	30	119	immature	13	13	144	loud	6	6
95	frank	38	37	120	impatient	35	34	145	loyal	25	24
96	friendly	39	38	121	impulsive	22	21	146	mannerly	32	31
97	frivolous	9	9	122	independent	76	73	147	masculine	6	6
98	fussy	18	17	123	indifferent	14	13	148	mature	49	47
99	generous	28	27	124	individualistic	54	52	149	meek	9	9
100	gentle	20	19	125	industrious	40	38	150	methodical	59	57

Note. Percentiles rounded to nearest whole number.

Item	<i>f.</i>	%	Item	<i>f.</i>	%	Item	<i>f.</i>	%
151 mild	11	11	176 planful	30	29	201 reliable	47	45
152 mischievous	18	17	177 pleasant	29	28	202 resentful	14	13
153 moderate	15	14	178 pleasure-seeking	22	21	203 reserved	36	35
154 modest	26	25	179 poised	26	25	204 resourceful	67	64
155 moody	26	25	180 polished	31	30	205 responsible	68	65
156 nagging	12	12	181 practical	49	47	206 restless	20	19
157 natural	22	21	182 praising	11	11	207 retiring	4	4
158 nervous	34	33	183 precise	53	51	208 rigid	23	22
159 noisy	5	5	184 prejudiced	10	10	209 robust	9	9
160 obliging	17	16	185 preoccupied	35	34	210 rude	15	14
161 obnoxious	20	19	186 progressive	35	34	211 sarcastic	19	18
162 opinionated	54	52	187 prudish	12	12	212 self-centered	33	32
163 opportunistic	47	45	188 quarrelsome	18	17	213 self-confident	67	64
164 optimistic	39	38	189 queer	4	4	214 self-controlled	48	46
165 organized	72	69	190 quick	34	33	215 self-denying	17	16
166 original	37	36	191 quiet	32	31	216 self-pitying	14	13
167 outgoing	33	32	192 quitting	3	3	217 self-punishing	29	28
168 outspoken	39	38	193 rational	54	52	218 self-seeking	35	34
169 painstaking	15	14	194 rattlebrained	6	6	219 selfish	18	17
170 patient	26	25	195 realistic	42	40	220 sensitive	34	33
171 peaceable	16	15	196 reasonable	48	46	221 sentimental	14	13
172 peculiar	23	22	197 rebellious	16	15	222 serious	65	63
173 persevering	38	37	198 reckless	12	12	223 severe	8	8
174 persistent	61	59	199 reflective	53	51	224 sexy	7	7
175 pessimistic	15	14	200 relaxed	17	16	225 shallow	6	6

Note. Percentiles rounded to nearest whole number.

Item	<i>f.</i>	%	Item	<i>f.</i>	%	Item	<i>f.</i>	%
226 sharp-witted	45	43	251 strong	40	38	276 unconventional	18	17
227 shiftless	7	7	252 stubborn	25	24	277 undependable	5	5
228 show-off	20	19	253 submissive	8	8	278 understanding	39	38
229 shrewd	19	18	254 suggestible	16	15	279 unemotional	8	8
230 shy	30	29	255 sulky	10	10	280 unexcitable	8	8
231 silent	24	23	256 superstitious	10	10	281 unfriendly	8	8
232 simple	14	13	257 suspicious	19	18	282 uninhibited	6	6
233 sincere	35	34	258 sympathetic	19	18	283 unintelligent	3	3
234 slipshod	3	3	259 tactful	32	31	284 unkind	6	6
235 slow	4	4	260 tactless	16	15	285 unrealistic	12	12
236 sly	8	8	261 talkative	27	26	286 unscrupulous	6	6
237 smug	16	15	262 temperamental	32	31	287 unselfish	11	11
238 snobbish	18	17	263 tense	25	24	288 unstable	11	11
239 sociable	24	23	264 thankless	9	9	289 vindictive	12	12
240 soft-hearted	7	7	265 thorough	56	54	290 versatile	35	34
241 sophisticated	39	38	266 thoughtful	38	37	291 warm	22	21
242 spendthrift	6	6	267 thrifty	11	11	292 wary	12	12
243 spineless	4	4	268 timid	16	15	293 weak	8	8
244 spontaneous	19	18	269 tolerant	22	21	294 whiny	19	18
245 spunky	8	8	270 touchy	17	16	295 wholesome	22	21
246 stable	31	30	271 tough	23	22	296 wise	50	48
247 steady	40	38	272 trusting	33	32	297 withdrawn	30	29
248 stern	13	13	273 unaffected	8	8	298 witty	31	30
249 stingy	10	10	274 unambitious	3	3	299 worrying	39	38
250 stolid	9	9	275 unassuming	10	10	300 zany	12	12

Note. Percentiles rounded to nearest whole number.

APPENDIX B

ACL Favorability Scale Items and Their Endorsement

N = 104

Item	<i>f.</i>	%	Item	<i>f.</i>	%	Item	<i>f.</i>	%
2 active	67	64	80 enthusiastic	54	52	157 natural	22	21
3 adaptable	66	63	83 fair-minded	12	12	164 optimistic	39	38
4 adventurous	56	54	91 foresighted	28	27	165 organized	72	69
6 affectionate	34	33	93 forgiving	15	14	166 original	37	36
8 alert	82	79	95 frank	38	37	170 patient	26	25
10 ambitious	92	88	96 friendly	39	38	177 pleasant	29	28
13 appreciative	36	35	99 generous	28	27	179 poised	26	25
16 artistic	66	63	100 gentle	20	19	193 rational	54	52
18 attractive	21	20	102 good-looking	15	14	195 realistic	42	40
25 calm	31	30	103 good-natured	31	30	196 reasonable	48	46
26 capable	82	79	110 healthy	37	36	201 reliable	47	45
30 charming	31	30	111 helpful	43	42	204 resourceful	67	64
31 cheerful	26	25	113 honest	42	40	205 responsible	68	65
33 clear-thinking	75	72	115 humorous	24	23	214 self-controlled	48	46
34 clever	84	81	118 imaginative	63	61	233 sincere	35	34
41 confident	75	72	122 independent	76	73	239 sociable	24	23
43 conscientious	63	61	125 industrious	40	38	246 stable	31	30
45 considerate	38	37	131 insightful	68	65	258 sympathetic	19	18
49 cooperative	52	50	132 intelligent	94	90	259 tactful	32	31
50 courageous	30	29	134 interests wide	46	44	266 thoughtful	38	37
53 curious	68	65	136 inventive	56	54	269 tolerant	22	21
60 dependable	60	58	140 kind	29	28	278 understanding	39	38
75 efficient	58	56	143 logical	68	65	290 versatile	35	34
78 energetic	54	52	145 loyal	25	24	291 warm	22	21
79 enterprising	40	38	148 mature	49	47	296 wise	50	48

Note. Percentiles rounded to nearest whole number.

APPENDIX C

ACL Unfavorability Scale Items and Their Endorsement

N = 104

Item	<i>f.</i>	%	Item	<i>f.</i>	%	Item	<i>f.</i>	%			
5	affected	28	27	97	frivolous	9	9	208	rigid	23	22
9	aloof	27	26	98	fussy	18	17	210	rude	15	14
12	apathetic	13	13	101	gloomy	14	13	211	sarcastic	19	18
14	argumentative	44	42	104	greedy	7	7	212	self-centered	33	32
15	arrogant	44	42	107	hard-hearted	10	10	216	self-pitying	14	13
21	bitter	9	9	114	hostile	12	12	219	selfish	18	17
23	boastful	35	34	119	immature	13	13	225	shallow	6	6
24	bossy	34	33	120	impatient	35	34	227	shiftless	7	7
27	careless	7	7	123	indifferent	14	13	228	show-off	20	19
35	coarse	6	6	126	infantile	10	10	234	slipshod	3	3
36	cold	12	12	133	interests narrow	28	27	238	snobbish	18	17
38	complaining	12	12	135	intolerant	22	21	243	spineless	4	4
40	conceited	23	22	137	irresponsible	7	7	249	stingy	10	10
51	cowardly	5	5	138	irritable	23	22	255	sulky	10	10
52	cruel	5	5	144	loud	6	6	260	tactless	16	15
54	cynical	30	29	155	moody	26	25	264	thankless	9	9
56	deceitful	8	8	156	nagging	12	12	270	touchy	17	16
66	disorderly	11	11	161	obnoxious	20	19	277	undependable	5	5
69	distrustful	10	10	162	opinionated	54	52	281	unfriendly	8	8
72	dull	12	12	184	prejudiced	10	10	283	unintelligent	3	3
76	egotistical	34	22	187	prudish	12	12	284	unkind	6	6
81	evasive	12	12	188	quarrelsome	18	17	286	unscrupulous	6	6
84	fault-finding	25	24	192	quitting	3	3	289	vindictive	12	12
87	fickle	9	9	194	rattlebrained	6	6	293	weak	8	8
89	foolish	5	5	202	resentful	14	13	294	whiny	19	18

Note. Percentiles rounded to nearest whole number.

APPENDIX D

Youth Self-Report (YSR) Scales and Abbreviated Item Stems

Withdrawn/Depressed

5. Enjoys little
42. Rather be alone
65. Won't talk
69. Secretive
75. Shy, timid
102. Lacks energy
103. Sad
111. Withdrawn

Attention Problems

1. Acts young
4. Fails to finish
8. Can't concentrate
10. Can't sit still
13. Confused
17. Daydreams
41. Impulsive
61. Poor schoolwork
78. Inattentive

Anxious/Depressed

14. Cries a lot
29. Fears
30. Fears school
31. Fears doing bad
32. Must be perfect
33. Feels unloved
35. Feels worthless
45. Nervous
50. Fearful
52. Feels too guilty
71. Self-conscious
91. Thinks of suicide
112. Worries

Thought Problems

9. Can't get mind off thoughts
18. Harms self
40. Hears things
46. Twitching
58. Picks skin
66. Repeats acts
70. Sees things
76. Sleeps less
83. Stores things
84. Strange behavior
85. Strange ideas
100. Trouble sleeping

Somatic Complaints

47. Nightmares
51. Feels dizzy
54. Overtired
56a. Aches
56b. Headaches
56c. Nausea
56d. Eye problems
56e. Skin problems
56f. Stomach
56g. Vomiting

Rule-Breaking Behavior

2. Drinks alcohol
26. Lacks guilt
28. Breaks rules
39. Bad friends
43. Lies, cheats
63. Prefers older kids
67. Runs away
72. Sets fires
81. Steals at home
82. Steals outside home
90. Swearing
96. Thins of sex too much
99. Uses tobacco
101. Truant
105. Uses drugs

Social Problems

11. Dependent
12. Lonely
25. Doesn't get along
27. Jealous
34. Others out to get him/her
36. Accident-prone

Aggressive Behavior

3. Argues a lot
16. Mean
19. Demands attention
20. Destroys own things
21. Destroys others things
22. Disobedient at home
23. Disobedient at school
37. Gets in fights
57. Attacks people
68. Screams a lot
86. Stubborn, sullen
87. Mood changes
89. Suspicious
94. Teases a lot
95. Temper
97. Threatens others
104. Loud

38. Gets teased
48. Not liked
62. Clumsy
64. Prefers younger kids
79. Speech problem

APPENDIX E

Demographic Questions, Questions Regarding Experience with Gifted Students or Personal Giftedness

- Age (circle one): 21-25 26-30 31-35 36-40 41-45 46-50 51-55 56+

- Sex: (circle one): Male or Female

- Race: ___ Asian ___ Black ___ Hispanic ___ White
 ___ Multi-Racial (define: _____) ___ Other (define: _____)

- Please estimate whether you are at the Beginning, Middle, or End of your program: _____
 Beginning = 1st semester Middle = Neither 1st or Last semester End = Final semester

- What grade level was your internship: ___ Not Yet ___ Middle
 ___ Elementary ___ High School
 ___ Other (please explain): _____

- Have you ever worked with gifted students before (circle one)? Yes No
 ~ If yes, explain nature of work: _____

- Have you ever taken a course in gifted education? Yes No
 ~ If Yes, what was the name of the course (please explain titles that are not self-explanatory)?

- In your graduate program, has any of your course work discussed gifted students?
 Yes No
 ~ If yes, what was the name of the course (please explain titles that are not self- explanatory)?

- Were you ever identified as a gifted student during your elementary or secondary years?
 Yes or No
 ~ If yes, when (e.g., age, school year)? _____
 ~ Did you receive any gifted education services? Describe: _____

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