Module 3

Early Childhood

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Production Information and Credits

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Welcome!

You are about to start a Professional Development Course which will help you identify the gifted and talented students in your class or your school, and differentiate the curriculum to respond to their individual learning needs. You'll also be able to decide which of your students may benefit from various forms of ability or interest grouping and which may possibly be candidates for one or more of the many forms of academic acceleration.

About the Package

The course consists of six Modules

Each Module consists of three levels: Core, Extension and Specialisation. The Core levels of the six Modules are the heart of this course. The Core Modules contain essential information and practical advice and strategies to assist you to identify and respond to your gifted and talented students.

We strongly suggest that you complete the Core level of each Module.

Pre-tests

We are aware that teachers and school administrators will enter this course with a wide range of existing knowledge of gifted and talented education. To accommodate this range of knowledge and experience, we have started each Core Module, from Module 2 onwards, with a pre-test. We encourage you to take these pre-tests and, if you ‘test out’ on any Module at Core level, simply move on to the next Module. For example, if you ‘test out’ of Core Module 2 you will pass over that Module and move on to Core Module 3.

Extension and Specialisation Levels

Extension and Specialisation levels for each Module. Material covered in the Extension and Specialisation levels builds on the knowledge you will have gained from the Core level in each Module. Key issues are examined in greater depth and participants explore a wider range of issues in the cognitive and social-emotional development of gifted students. New identification, curriculum differentiation and program development techniques are introduced.

The Extension and Specialisation levels require teachers, counsellors and administrators to undertake further reading and practical activities to reflect on classroom practice, school practice and policy. They encourage participants to focus on their specific role in the school and prepare a brief action plan to demonstrate application or mastery of outcomes.

Schools may decide that completion of the course at Specialisation level would be a useful prerequisite for becoming the school’s Gifted Education Coordinator.
What will you learn in this course?

The course consists of six Modules:

**Module One: Understanding Giftedness**

Understanding the nature of giftedness and talent; what the terms mean; levels and types of giftedness. Cognitive and affective characteristics of gifted and talented students; ways in which these students may differ from their classmates - even if at first we don’t observe this.

**Module Two: The Identification of Gifted Students**

A range of practical identification procedures, with particular attention to procedures which are effective in identifying gifted students from culturally diverse and disadvantaged groups. We’ll be emphasising the use of a combination of approaches rather than a single measure such as IQ testing or teacher nomination used in isolation.

**Module Three: Social and Emotional Development of Gifted Students**

Understanding the social and emotional characteristics and needs of gifted students. Ways in which gifted students may differ somewhat from their classmates in their social and emotional development. Supporting gifted students and their parents. Teaching strategies and class structures which foster the development of positive social attitudes and supportive peer relationships in gifted students.

**Module Four: Understanding Underachievement in Gifted Students**

Understanding the causes of underachievement in gifted students. Identifying gifted underachievers and planning interventions designed to prevent and reverse cycles of underachievement.

**Module Five: Curriculum Differentiation for Gifted Students**

Teaching strategies and methods of curriculum differentiation which enhance the learning of gifted students in the regular classroom. Appropriate use of different enrichment models that international research has found to be effective with gifted and talented students. Practical applications of pre-testing, curriculum compacting and individualised programming.

**Module Six: Developing Programs and Provisions for Gifted Students**

Practical strategies for the establishment and monitoring of ability, achievement or interest grouping, and the many forms of accelerated progression. Particular attention will be paid to the effects of various strategies on students’ academic and social development.
Using the package

Much of the material is suitable across teaching and learning contexts. This content is not specifically marked. However, content that may be applicable to your particular context is identified as follows:

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Follow these symbols through the content to customise your learning path.

Each Module comes in two parts, each concluding with a practical exercise. We suggest that you complete the first and second parts a few days apart - unless this is not workable in your particular learning context. This will give you a chance to digest the information in Part 1 and work through the Reflective/Practical component.
# Core Module 3:
Social and Emotional Development of Gifted Students

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Welcome to the third Module in this Professional Development Course.
(1) At what age do students generally begin to make social comparisons?
   (a) 5   (b) 7   (c) 9   (d) 11   (e) 13

(2) The ‘forced-choice dilemma’ is a conflict between:
   (a) identity and intimacy
   (b) achievement and empathy
   (c) intimacy and achievement
   (d) identity and achievement

(3) If a student has an ego-involved motivational orientation what is likely to be her main source of pleasure in learning?

(4) Why may some gifted students be wrongly diagnosed as having ADD (Attention Deficit Disorder) or ADHD (Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder)?
(1) b

(2) c

(3) She is likely to be mainly focussed on being recognised as being brighter or more successful than the other students.

(4) They may be exhibiting psychomotor overexcitabilities.

If you were not correct in your answers to these four questions you should benefit from at least some of the information that follows in this Module.

If your answers to all four questions were correct you may not need to complete this Module, though we advise that you still skim-read it to check whether it offers you anything new.

The Extension level Module provides further information for you to consider on these and other issues in the socio-affective development of gifted and talented students.

**Outcomes**

At the completion of this Module you will be able to:

- recognise ways in which intellectually gifted children differ from their age-peers in their affective development.
- identify behaviours which may suggest that bright students are masking their abilities for peer acceptance.
- recognise ‘over-excitabilities’ which may be indicative of high abilities.
Some affective characteristics of young gifted children

In Module 1, we briefly reviewed some of the affective (social and emotional) characteristics of gifted and talented young children. Let’s call some of these to mind.

- An unusually well-developed sense of justice and ‘fairness’. They may become upset if they feel that one child has been unfair to another - or if they feel a teacher or other adult has been unfair to a classmate.
- Emotional intensity. Gifted children tend to experience emotional reactions at a deeper level than their age-peers.
- They often have play interests that are more like those of older children. They begin to enjoy structured, ‘rules-based’ games at earlier ages than their age-peers.
- They tend to prefer the companionship of children a little older, or sometimes some years older.
- They may have rather different conceptions and expectations of friendship from those of their age-peers.
- An enhanced capacity to empathise with the feelings of others - even with older children or adults.
- They can sometimes become very frustrated when their fine motor coordination won’t allow them to produce art work or writing at the level they can envisage in their imaginations.
- A more mature sense of humour than age-peers - for example, a liking for verbal rather than visual humour.

Emotional maturity

Teachers generally accept that academically gifted students are more mature, in their cognitive development, than the majority of their classmates. However, they often expect that the social and emotional development of academically gifted students will be on a par with their age-peers - and this is not necessarily the case.

The intellectual and emotional development of most students is appropriate to their chronological age. However, children who differ significantly from their age-peers in terms of their intellectual development also differ somewhat in their emotional maturity.

As briefly outlined in Module 1, students whose capacity to learn is developmentally delayed tend also to be somewhat less mature, socially and emotionally, than their classmates of average ability. Social-emotional development tends to be rather more closely linked to intellectual development than to chronological age.
In the same way, students who are more developmentally advanced in their capacity to learn than their age-peers - academically gifted students - also tend to be somewhat more mature, emotionally and socially, than their classmates.

However, for a range of reasons which we'll explore in this Module, this advancement may not be readily visible. Some gifted students learn, surprisingly early in their school careers, that to display abilities and opinions that are different from those of the majority of their classmates can lead to mockery or even ostracism.

How early can this begin?

It is important to understand how early the process of ‘dumbing down’ for peer acceptance can start - and therefore for how many years some gifted students may have been doing this before you encounter them!

The onset of social comparisons

People make social comparisons as a process of self-evaluation. Comparing our progress against that of peers gives us evaluative feedback on our own performance. In general, we choose to compare ourselves to people whose ability or experience roughly approximates our own (Festinger, 1954). The weekend golfer doesn’t measure himself against the club professional. The club pro doesn’t measure himself against Tiger Woods.

In general, young children don’t make social comparisons. In the pre-school years and the early years of school, they tend to be rather ‘self’-centred. So when a young child wants to evaluate her progress she compares what she can do today with what she could do earlier, and assesses how much she has improved.

‘I can do 6 hops without having to put my foot down,’ thinks Jenny. ‘Last time I tried I could only do 4!’ Her reference point is her own previous experience. She’s not particularly interested in what other kids can do.
However, as she gets a bit older she becomes aware of ways in which she resembles and differs from other children. She starts to norm-reference - making social comparisons of her own progress in terms of what the other kids can do. She may discover she's not as physically adept as she had thought, or she may find that only a few of her age-peers match her abilities.

Children generally move from self-referencing to norm-referencing at around age 7, but this is linked to the individual child’s capacity to make evaluative comparisons. Some children take quite a bit longer to reach this stage. Intellectually gifted children tend to reach it earlier. Many gifted young children are norm-referencing before they enter school.

As discussed in Module 1, it’s not unusual for gifted children to enter school already reading, writing and counting. The gifted child who is norm-referencing may become aware within the first few days that the other children have not yet developed these skills. Unless the teacher becomes aware of the gifted child’s advancement and shows pleasure in it, the child may become acutely aware that she is different, and may moderate or even stop the behaviour that is setting her apart from her classmates.

An Australian study of 60 children who entered school already reading found that more than 40 of them significantly moderated their reading performance, or deliberately stopped reading in class, within two weeks (Gross, 2004). The children who continued to read were those whose teachers accepted and facilitated it.

It is important that we recognise how disturbingly early gifted students can begin to mask their abilities for peer acceptance.

**An aid to identifying gifted young students**

Psychologists have known, for many years, the relationship between high ability and early norm-referencing. A classic study conducted almost 40 years ago, with several classes of five- and six-year-olds, illustrated the skill with which many gifted young children learn to adapt to, and mirror, the behaviours of the group in which they are placed (Gordon & Thomas, 1967).

In this study, the researchers asked the children’s teachers to describe each child’s behaviour when faced with a new activity or social situation, and to classify the child under one of four descriptors:

- **Plungers**: Children who plunged into new activities or situations quickly and positively.
- **Go-alongers**: Children who ‘went along’ with the group in a generally positive manner but who rarely took the initiative or adopted a leadership role.
- **Sideliners**: Children who preferred to wait for a bit until a new activity was established and then gradually became involved.
- **Nonparticipators**: Children who remained negative to new situations for weeks or months, or even indefinitely.
The psychologists also asked the teachers to make a professional judgment of the general level of intelligence of each child. Interestingly, the teachers overwhelmingly asserted that the ‘plungers’ were of well above average intelligence.

However, when the psychologists actually tested the children, the gifted children appeared not among the ‘plungers’, but among the ‘sideliners’ and ‘go-alongers’. The gifted young children were already functioning from a norm-referenced perspective and had learned to stand back a little and check out the behaviours and conventions that were accepted by their classmates, before they committed themselves to an activity. Ironically, their teachers had confused motivation and self-confidence with high ability.

Watch for the student who waits a bit before joining in a new activity. This may be a gifted student who has realised that some of his ideas or attitudes are ‘different’ and who is checking out what behaviours his age-peers will accept.

**The forced-choice dilemma**

Even in the early childhood years, some academically gifted students may find themselves faced with a choice - fit in and be accepted or stand out and risk rejection.

It’s tempting to say, ‘Well, that’s not so in my class/my school/my region. We teach our students to value the individuality of each child.’ Certainly, valuing individuality and celebrating diversity are an important part of what makes Australia special. However, we are not a nation that readily honours our tall poppies - and some of our small poppies pick this up very quickly.

At home, Caitlin, aged 5, was reading more like an 8-year-old, but when she entered school her teacher placed her in a pre-reading group because she showed no signs, in class, of being able to read. The teacher and Caitlin’s mother later found that she was pretending, in class, to be a non-reader because her best friend was in this group. When she was subsequently placed with more advanced students, she happily worked at their level (Silverman, 1989).

Caitlin’s mother found that she was confusing being liked with being ‘like’. She had been convinced that if she did not behave ‘like’ the other children, they would not like her. She realised that she was different in her reading abilities, the games she liked playing and the way she felt about many things, and she quickly camouflaged the most obvious of these differences.
Children like Caitlin, who realise early in their school experience that they are different from their age-peers, can be placed in a ‘forced-choice’ dilemma where they have to choose between achievement - performing academically at their true level - and intimacy - being accepted by the peer group.

If they allow the other students to see the ways in which they differ in both their intellectual and emotional development, they place themselves at risk of peer rejection. However, if their need for social acceptance is greater than their drive for achievement, then they must conceal their advanced abilities, their sometimes unusual interests, and even their atypical play preferences, in a continuing effort to win peer approval (Gross, 1989).

Being allowed to work with a group of bright or more able students can go a long way to solving the ‘forced-choice dilemma’.

Miraca Gross’s article, ‘The pursuit of excellence or the search for intimacy: The forced-choice dilemma of gifted youth’, which comes as a resource paper with this Module, explores these issues further.

The Gagné model illustrates how important it is that gifted and talented students are encouraged to accept and value their gifts. As we discussed in Module 1, teachers sometimes confuse conceit, which we certainly want students to avoid, with a healthy pride in one’s abilities which is an essential constituent of self-esteem.

If students feel that their abilities set them apart from their age-peers, they are unlikely to want to develop their gifts into talents.

Gifted students may need our help and support to resolve the forced-choice dilemma, so that they no longer feel they have to choose between talent development and social acceptance.
Gifted young children in rural areas

The forced-choice dilemma can be particularly acute for gifted students in rural areas. The more children there are at a particular grade level, the more chance a gifted student has of finding an ability peer. In a school which has two or three classes at entry level, the teachers may decide to cluster the early readers together in one class. However, gifted young children in rural schools, or schools serving a smaller population, have more of a problem. If you are the only person in your class who is already reading, or writing, or counting, what do you do? If you want to work at your level, do you have to work on your own? If you want to work with other children, do you have to work at a level you have already passed through? And where do you find friends who share your interests if no one in your class has yet developed them?

In Module 5, we will look at ways of differentiating the curriculum so that it becomes more responsive to individual differences in learning, but we still have to be sensitive to the social factor. How do we respond to the gifted student whose interests and emotional development are more like those of someone older?

In a split grade or composite class, or in a one- or two-teacher school, the gifted student can be allowed to work, in her particular talent areas, with older students. In Module 6: Developing Programs and Provisions for Gifted Students we’ll discuss some of the forms of acceleration which allow students who are academically advanced and emotionally mature for their age, to work either full time, or for specific subjects, with an older grade. Acceleration has a wealth of research to support it (Rogers, 2002).

A class which has students at more than one grade level is ideally set up for a gifted student’s smooth transition to an older grade.
Re-read the section on ‘An aid to identifying gifted young students’. Note how Gordon and Thomas classified young children’s behaviours when faced with a new activity or social situation:

**Plungers:** Children who plunged into new activities or situations quickly and positively.

**Go-alongers:** Children who ‘went along’ with the group in a generally positive manner but who rarely took the initiative or adopted a leadership role.

**Sideliners:** Children who preferred to wait for a bit until a new activity was established and then gradually became involved.

**Nonparticipators:** Children who remained negative to new situations for weeks or months, or even indefinitely.

Which children in your own class would you classify under each heading? (Yes, some children might fit into two or more of the groups!)

In which groups did Gordon and Thomas tend to find the gifted students?

You may want to look a little closer at students whom you’ve classified in these groups. (Look at this information along with the information you’ve gathered on your students from Module 2.)

What behaviours or attitudes are seen as ‘cool’ by the students in your school? How might bright or gifted students in your school mask their behaviour to be accepted and why might they feel this is necessary?

Have you had a parent tell you, when she enrolled her child, that the child was reading, yet the class teacher affirmed that the child was not? Is it possible that the child was norm-referencing and stopped reading to be like the others? What Year is the child in now? What is the present teacher’s impression of his or her ability?
Gagné’s model shows clearly the influence of intrapersonal catalysts - aspects of the student’s social and emotional development - in facilitating or impeding the translation of giftedness into talent. Let’s look at some aspects of socio-affective development and their possible relationships to student achievement.

**Self-concept and self-esteem**

Self-concept has been succinctly defined as the collection of ideas that one has about oneself (Neihart, 1999). It is an important constituent of personality and it can certainly influence students’ attitudes and behaviours but its influence may have been exaggerated over the last few years. Nicholas Colangelo, a leading expert on counselling gifted students, comments wryly that almost everything ‘good’ in school life has been linked by pop psychologists to a positive self-concept and almost everything that sets students at any sort of risk has been linked to a negative self-concept (Colangelo, 2003). Yet it’s not as simple as that.

Firstly, self-concept is multi-faceted. A student may have a high academic self-concept, a low social self-concept, an average self-concept on issues bearing on family relationships and a very high physical self-concept. (And these are only some of the facets.) In addition, one can have a high academic self-concept in maths and a lower verbal self-concept. So what is a ‘positive’ or ‘negative’ self-concept?

Secondly, research has shown that students with relatively low academic self-concepts can achieve outstanding success in school while students with high academic self-concepts can perform quite poorly. Equally, students with high social self-concepts can engage in socially destructive behaviour. Self-concept is one’s view of oneself - it may not accurately reflect reality!

Self-esteem is the affective element of self-concept; how the student feels about her academic achievement, social acceptability, family relationships or perhaps physical attractiveness.

A mathematically gifted student may have a positive academic self-concept but lower academic self-esteem if peer pressure has caused her to undervalue her talent.

By contrast, a student of average ability who is achieving at levels commensurate with her ability and has learned to feel good about this may have modest academic self-concept but high academic self-esteem.

**Self-esteem and ability grouping**

Australian educators are traditionally wary of placing gifted students in ability grouped settings, believing that grouping provides little academic advantage and may even damage the gifted students’ self-esteem. However, research provides a very different picture. As we will discuss in Module 6: *Developing Programs and Provisions for Gifted Students*, gifted students who enter ability-grouped settings tend to perform substantially better on later measures of school achievement (measures of ‘value added’) than do equally bright students in mixed-ability classes.
Some studies have found no difference or little difference in the self-concept or self-esteem of academically gifted students and students of average ability while others have found differences favouring gifted students.

What happens to the self-esteem of students who are ability grouped? Some studies have found no effect of grouping on self-esteem or self-concept. Others have found that the academic self-esteem of gifted students takes a slight dip on entry to ability grouped programs - although long-term studies suggest that this is usually temporary.

One large scale Australian study of 1500 New South Wales students moving from primary to secondary school found a dip in academic self-esteem over the first few months of high school. However, the academic self-esteem of students entering Selective High Schools for gifted students remained higher than that of their age-peers entering comprehensive high schools and their social self-esteem was likewise higher (Gross, 1997).

You may like to look further at issues of self-esteem and grouping in the Extension and Specialisation levels of this Module.

**Motivation**

Most gifted students love learning. They get enormous pleasure out of gaining more and more knowledge and acquiring higher and higher levels of skill. Remember the little boy in Module 1 whose father described him as having a rage to learn?

In the early childhood years most children are intrinsically motivated to learn. The urge to learn comes from within them. They enjoy learning simply for learning’s sake.

However, as children move through school, things become a little more complex. Some children remain intrinsically motivated. For others, motivation gradually becomes more extrinsic - powered by factors other than the pure desire to increase skills and knowledge.

**Mastery goals and task involvement**

Children who want to learn for learning’s sake tend to have a pretty realistic attitude to learning. They recognise that sometimes learning doesn’t come easily; you have to practise and work at what you are doing if you want to improve. In general, students who adopt mastery goals focus on mastering the work and improving their performance.

Gifted students with a mastery orientation prefer tasks that are challenging and require them to strive for success, and they tend to use more effective learning strategies (Dweck, 1986). They are not concerned with being best in the class - if that happens, it happens, and it’s probably quite nice, but it’s not their primary goal in learning.

Psychologist John Nicholls (1983) described students with a mastery orientation as ‘task involved’.
Performance goals and ego-involvement

Other students may be powered by performance goals. For these students, doing well, and being recognised and praised for it, are more important than increasing their skills or knowledge. They tend to measure their ability by whether or not they succeed at a task rather than by the strategies they use to achieve success.

Gifted students with a performance orientation may prefer tasks that they can succeed at without too much effort, rather than tasks which demand an increase in knowledge or skill.

Nicholls described students with a performance orientation as ‘ego-involved’. He noted that these students’ focus tends to be less on mastering the work and more on a desire to look smart or avoid looking stupid.

Research suggests that, certainly in the early years of school, most gifted students are task involved. We’ll explore this further later in this Module.

As mentioned earlier, some studies of gifted students entering ability grouped programs note a slight dip in academic self-esteem. Miraca Gross’s 1997 study of students entering selective and comprehensive high schools found that the few gifted students (fewer than 5%) who experienced a more serious drop in self-esteem were strongly ego-involved. These students were not able to focus on, and enjoy, the more challenging work of the selective high school; their focus was on the fact that they were no longer the brightest student in the class.

Retaining task involvement

Children are more likely to retain a love of learning if they are allowed to learn. Joyce VanTassel-Baska (1992) defines learning as progressing to a level of knowledge or skill development that is higher than one’s present level.

Emily entered school already reading at a six-year-old level. She was bright in many academic areas but she had a real passion for reading and read everything she could get her hands on. However, Ms Franklin, her teacher, placed her back on reading readiness exercises with the other children on the grounds that she had ‘holes’ in her reading skills and it was important to give her a more solid grounding before she was allowed to move on.

What Ms Franklin was effectively doing was halting Emily’s learning. By being placed back at a stage she had already passed through, Emily was not being allowed to progress to a level of reading skill beyond what she had already attained.

Emily had been strongly task-involved. She loved encountering, and learning, new words. Now she was placed in a situation where there was nothing new to strive for. When Ms Franklin praised her fluent reading Emily ‘knew’ that the praise was not for her mastery of the work; after all, she had mastered it long before. She decided that the praise must be for being the best reader in the class. Over the course of the year Emily developed a more ego-involved perspective on learning. It became important to her to maintain her status as a ‘bright student’ and she was less willing to take risks in case she made mistakes.
Linda Silverman (1993) points out that at times when ‘outcomes-based’ education is in vogue it would be very easy for educators to create a performance goal classroom environment where success is measured by achieving goals rather than by the skill or effort through which the goals are achieved.

Can gifted young children be ‘over-excitable’?

We have talked earlier about the emotional intensity of some young gifted children - their tendency to experience emotions at a deeper and more immediate level than their age-peers. This is often coupled with an enhanced capacity to empathise with other people’s feelings - to share the joys and sorrows of their friends more intensely than most other children of their age.

A third characteristic which we have not addressed yet is a tendency towards physical restlessness. These three characteristics, and others, are often misinterpreted by teachers as a sign of emotional immaturity.

However, the research of a Polish psychiatrist, Kazimierz Dabrowski, offers another explanation. Dabrowski noted that intellectually gifted adults and young people tend to have a heightened awareness of their environment and a heightened capacity to respond to various intellectual, emotional or even physical stimuli.

Dabrowski calls this tendency ‘overexcitability’. This term is not used in any derogatory sense; it is a translation of a Polish word which means ‘super-stimulatability’, and it carries positive connotations, such as an insatiable love of learning, the capacity to care intensely for people and ideas, boundless energy, and a vivid imagination.

An excellent description of Dabrowski’s ‘overexcitabilities’ can be found in Linda Silverman’s book, *Counselling the Gifted and Talented* (Silverman, 1993).

Dabrowski identifies five overexcitabilities: intellectual, emotional, imaginational, sensual and psychomotor.

**Intellectual overexcitability**

Young children who demonstrate high levels of intellectual overexcitability (OE) tend to be academically gifted (Silverman, 1993). Emily, whom you met in the previous section, had many intellectual OE characteristics.

- **A passionate love of learning.**
- **An enhanced capacity for analytical thinking.** Emily liked analysing patterns in stories. When she was 5 she told her teacher that writers of fairy tales liked making their readers worried because they always put good people into problem situations and then rescued them.
- **Meta-analysis.** An enjoyment of thinking about thinking.
- **Sustained intellectual effort** and a **much longer attention span** than age-peers. Some gifted children will work for hours on a task or puzzle until they are happy with the result. They may become quite distressed if a teacher or parent tries to draw them away from the task before they have completed it to their satisfaction.
- **An enjoyment of detailed planning.** Jeff spent weeks before his 7th birthday developing three separate hour-by-hour timetables of exactly how he and his family might spend his special day. He then led a family ‘conference’ on which timetable they would follow.
• **Intense curiosity and an unwillingness to be satisfied with simplistic or incomplete answers.** When a well known author visited her school Emily asked him why so many fairy tales had three sets of characters - three bears, three little pigs - or three sets of tasks that the leading character had to accomplish. She was less than impressed when he jokingly told her that three was an easy number for the illustrator to draw. ‘But the story-teller has to make up the story first,’ she said firmly, ‘so why do storytellers write things in threes?’

Some teachers may find this sort of insistence threatening, misinterpreting the child’s passion for detail and completeness as a challenge to their authority, while the gifted child’s classmates may find her insistence on seemingly obscure points quite incomprehensible.

**Emotional overexcitability**

This is characterised by the capacity for emotional depth; young children with OEs feel emotions more acutely. ‘Nearly everything matters and it matters that it matters’ (Kline & Meckstroth, 1985, p. 25).

• Young children with emotional OE may have an unusual sensitivity to the feelings of other children or even adults.

• They may develop a strong attachment to other people or animals. Some young gifted children may develop not just affection but a sincere love for their teacher.

• They may not easily forgive themselves if they have hurt someone’s feelings.

• They can be extremely self-critical, worrying over small faults.

• They may become particularly fond of places, as well as people. While his older brothers were wildly excited at moving to a new home, Harry worried that the new people moving in might not look after the flowering shrub he and his father had planted the year before.

**Imaginational overexcitability**

This can be displayed through a great facility for invention and fantasy such as the creation of imaginary companions, an ability for vivid visual recall and detailed visualisation, and a deep love for poetry and drama.

• Linda Silverman (1993) notes that many gifted children with imaginational OE explain stories or ideas in such great detail that adults beg them to get to the point.

• They often have a need to describe the subtle nuances of a situation or interaction, rather than simply the factual details. ‘I don’t think she was angry with me,’ 5-year-old Joel said about his teacher. ‘I think she was angry with David but she had to be cross with me because I hit him first.’

• They can have a great capacity for invention, creating imaginary companions or even imaginary countries. The Brontë sisters did this as children.
• They often visualise situations very vividly. Their dreams, including daydreams, may be unusually elaborate.

• They may demonstrate a capacity to mix truth with fantasy for effect. Tuen transformed a large dog which he glimpsed at the park into a wolf which had escaped from the zoo and was lurking in the bushes. He described it so vividly to the lady next door that she phoned the zoo.

• They may prefer to act out stories rather than simply telling them.

**Sensual overexcitability**

This may be displayed in a heightened awareness of the senses; a deep aesthetic appreciation of beautiful objects, phrases of music or words.

- Young children with sensual OE may have an unusual sensitivity to particular pieces of music or poetry and demand that these be read or played repetitively.

- They may be fascinated by rhyming sounds and use them over and over, just for the pleasure of hearing them. Jordan, at his first football match, exclaimed ‘Bounce and pounce! Bounce and pounce!’ almost obsessively until his father threatened to take him home.

- They may enjoy the feel of particular materials. However, this can also be manifested in an oversensitivity to certain clothing materials. Researchers report parents of sensually overexcitable children having to cut labels off the children’s clothes and even having to be particularly careful about the placement of sock seams, because the children react so strongly.

- Some children develop a strong dislike of the texture of particular foods and the feel of these foods in their mouths, even when they quite enjoy the taste.

**Psychomotor overexcitability**

This can be manifested in physical restlessness arising from surplus energy.

- The child’s surplus energy may show itself in compulsive talking and chattering.

- They may develop nervous habits such as tics, drumming fingers or nailbiting.

- Some children become physically impulsive. They may seem to need to be constantly on the move.

- The child may seem almost unable to stay in his seat. He may be in a state of almost continual movement, wriggling, pushing the chair back, swinging legs, etc.

- They may have unusually rapid speech and exaggerated vocal expression.

Unfortunately teachers often confuse this physical restlessness and distractability with the behaviours associated with Attention Deficit Disorder (ADD) or Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). Teachers should monitor the young child’s distractable behaviours. If the behaviours seem to have a pattern related to the work that is being presented – eg, if they appear mainly when the child is bored, or frustrated by a slow pace of instruction, or required to do work that he has already mastered - they probably indicate psychomotor overexcitability rather than an attention deficit disorder. Ironically, the twitching, fiddling and shifting around may indicate an over-responsiveness to lack of intellectual stimulus!
The intensity of the young gifted child’s response to intellectual, emotional, aesthetic and even physical stimuli can sometimes be confused with immaturity. It is important to understand that while some of the behaviours associated with intellectual, emotional andimaginational overexcitabilities may at first glance appear immature, they actually arise from the young child’s intellectual and emotional maturity.

Psychologist Michael Piechowski (1986) suggests we should view the five overexcitabilities as channels of information flow, and ways in which children experience the world. When any of these channels is stronger than those of a child’s peers, the child may feel embarrassed, uncomfortable or even guilty for being different from her classmates.

As Manaster and Powell (1983) described it, gifted students can be out of stage (dealing with concepts and goals far beyond the reach of their age-peers), out of phase (alienated from age-mates if they find themselves without an intellectual peer group with whom they can relate) and out of sync (realising painfully that they are different, and fearing that they will never find a group with whom they can merge without being dismissed as strange or weird). However, the very nature of overexcitabilities can make it difficult for the child to conceal them.

**Experiencing ‘flow’**

Remember the little boy with ‘a rage to learn’? Some gifted students truly have a passion for learning. As a child, Don Bradman spent hours each day, week after week, honing his batting skills, practising and improving, even though he was already far beyond the skill level of many adult players. Observers would report that he seemed lost to the outside world, totally absorbed in what he was doing.

Talented young musicians, athletes or dancers may set themselves goals that would seem impossible to the majority of their age-peers and will achieve these goals through years of dedicated practice. Again, people observing talented artists at practice frequently note their total immersion in what they are doing.

Many of these young people have fallen in love with a field, a discipline or a subject. When a student who deeply loves what she is doing is engaged in an activity where the level of challenge matches her level of ability, the experience can be totally absorbing and totally fulfilling. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) describes the feeling as being ‘in flow’. It can be a transcendental experience of joy and self-actualisation. Moments when everything comes together and the solution to the problem arrives in the student’s mind, or he achieves the perfect rendering of a musical phrase, can be ‘peak’ experiences.

We can let ‘flow’ happen for our gifted students by presenting them with appropriate levels of challenge. Flow comes from optimal engagement with a task. It doesn’t come from doing, yet again, what one has been able to do for weeks - or months - or years.

In Modules 5 and 6 we will look at how to develop curriculum and learning environments which will allow our gifted students to experience flow.
Do you have a child in your class who shows one of more of the over excitabilities discussed here? How does the child behave? Are there any particular situations or events that seem to ‘set the child off’? Does the child show any signs of high ability?

OR

Do you have a bright child in your class who has been diagnosed with ADD or ADHD? After reading the over excitabilities section above, could there be another explanation for some of his or her behaviours?

ALSO

What do you really love doing that can result, for you, in ‘flow’ or in a peak emotional experience? How can you inculcate this feeling in your students?

Do you have a bright child in your school who has been diagnosed with ADD or ADHD? After reading the over-excitabilities section above, could there be another explanation for some of his or her behaviours?

When was the child diagnosed? How long had the problem been going on? Check with the child’s previous teachers; to what degree did the child show these behaviours in the earlier years?

ALSO

What do you really love doing that can result, for you, in ‘flow’ or in a peak emotional experience? How can your teachers inculcate this feeling in their students?

(1) Discuss with your colleagues students whom you presently teach, or have taught, who show one of more of the over-excitabilities discussed here. How does the child behave? Are there any particular situations or events that seem to ‘set the child off’? Does the child show any signs of high ability? Are you able to trace, through discussion, how early in the student’s school career these excitabilities became noticeable? Does the student still show them?

(2) Do you have a bright child in your class who has been diagnosed with ADD or ADHD? After reading the over-excitabilities section above, could there be another explanation for some of his or her behaviours?
Questions for Reflection

Once a child or adult has experienced ‘flow’ he or she wants to experience it again.
What can you do to ensure that all your students have this motivating experience?
Resources

References
The Pursuit of Excellence or the Search for Intimacy? The Forced-Choice Dilemma of Gifted Youth

Miraca U.M. Gross

Educators often fail to recognize that the intellectually gifted differ from their age peers in their social and emotional development as much as in their intellectual and academic characteristics. A dilemma peculiar to gifted youth arises through the interaction of the psychosocial drives toward intimacy and achievement, which complement each other in students of average ability, but which place the gifted student in a forced-choice situation. If the gifted child chooses to satisfy the drive for excellence he or she must risk forfeiting the attainment of intimacy with age peers; if the choice is intimacy, the gifted may be forced into a pattern of systematic and deliberate underachievement to retain membership in the social group. Homogeneous grouping of gifted students is suggested as a partial solution to this dilemma.

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American education has found more comfort in assuming responsibility for socializing children than for meeting their unique educational needs.

Joyce Van-Tassel Baska, Chicago, U.S.A., 1985

Australian schools are evolving as multi-purpose social service agencies rather than pedagogical centres.

K. Brian Start, Melbourne, Australia, 1985

It is ironic that at a time when American and Australian schools are increasingly abrogating their responsibilities towards the intellectual and academic development of their students to adopt, instead, the socializing roles formerly undertaken by the family and religion, the interest of many educators in intellectually gifted children is still stubbornly fixed on these students' intellective characteristics, at the expense of any serious investigatory concern for their social and emotional growth.

The problem is especially acute in Australia. Perhaps because of the dearth of Australian research into the needs and characteristics of the intellectually gifted child, and the unwillingness to interpret and harness overseas research, very little is known about the social and emotional needs of gifted children in Australia. Furthermore, investigation into the socio-emotional development of the highly able is hampered by the prevailing assumption that gifted students differ from their age peers on intellective factors alone.

So readily accepted is this assumption that it has become enshrined even in the policies of Australian State government education systems. The State Government of South Australia, in its 1983 Policy regarding fostering gifts and talents among children lists "the educational needs of all students which should also be acknowledged in programs intended to foster gifts and talents." Throughout this list of "educational needs," the emphasis is on the student not as an individual, but as a member of the educational community. The policy highlights, for example:

- the need to be in an environment which recognizes membership in a range of groups including family, cultural groups, (where in some cases group membership is more important than individual performance), age peers, friendship and interest groups, the wider school community and society at large; and to be aware that each group functions according to its own set of values (South Australian Education Department, 1983).

This interpretation of the student's needs rests on two assumptions; first, that the values held by the gifted child will be congruent with the values of the social and cultural group from which he originates; and second, that where his cultural group values social cohesion above individual advancement (as in some Australian aboriginal cultures), the child will be able to balance the contrary dictates of his own intellectual drives and the expectations of his cultural peers. Both assumptions spring from a failure to realize that the intellectually gifted differ from their age peers in their emotional and social development as much as in their intellective and academic characteristics.

**Social and Emotional Differences**

It is now more generally understood and accepted that a child's level of social and emotional development is more highly correlated with his mental age than with his chronological age (Tannenbaum, 1963; Janos and Robinson, 1965). Bohm's (1962) and Kohlberg's (1964) studies of moral development found that intellectually gifted children were able to make complex moral judgments much earlier than their age peers of average ability, while some highly gifted elementary school children functioned at an externally controlled level of moral development normally found in less than ten percent of adults.

The gifted student's enhanced capacity for abstract reasoning, coupled with his frequently accelerated capacity to obtain and process information, lead him to become familiar with, and speculate on, ideas not normally encountered until a much later age. Hollingworth (1926) noted that highly gifted children often become deeply concerned with questions of origin and destiny at an age when children of average ability are still absorbed in much more egocentric concerns. Serious difficulties of communication can arise when the child attempts to share his interests with age-peers, or even with adults who may be threatened by his unusual preoccupation with moral or religious complexities.

**Malcolm**

Malcolm, [IQ 165] is five years old. One evening at tea he engaged his parents in a serious and analytical discussion as to what would happen in the universe if God "stopped existing." "After all," Malcolm contended, "when anything dies it goes back into the earth. When stars go supernova everything they're made of goes back into the universe. So if God did, what He is made of would go back into the universe too." Malcolm wanted to know whether scientists could predict the changes that God's death would cause to life on earth.

The child who can frame a sophisticated and coherent argument such as this clearly has needs and expectations far removed from those of the average five-year-old. He needs companions, preferably of his own age and ability level, with whom he can enjoy not only the pleasure and relaxation of play but also the stimulation of high level intellectual speculation. He needs a warm and supportive home environment where his prodigious intellectual gifts are appreciated, and where his urge to increase and develop his knowledge is understood and accepted as much as his childish desire for affection and approval. Especially he needs the support of adult friends and mentors who can appreciate that although his level of intellectual and moral development may permit him to speculate about matters as the future of the universe, he is still a five-year-old child who may need comfort and reassurance when faced with the prospect of radical changes in his environment, even when it is his own philosophical musings which have prompted the vision of change! Especially he needs to be reassured that, although "different" he is accepted both in his peer culture and in society at large.

Much of the emotional trauma experienced by intellectually gifted young people arises from the conflicting psycho-social needs of intimacy and achievement. In the child or adolescent of average ability, these needs are compatible, indeed complementary. For the highly gifted, however, achievement of his or her remarkable potential may lead at best to peer disapproval or, in severe cases, to social ostracism. American high school students actively reject those of their peers who demonstrate high level academic or intellectual prowess without the ameliorating effect of sporting or athletic interests (Tannenbaum, 1962).

If we review the research on these two psychosocial drives, particularly as they are manifested in intellectually gifted students, we can understand more clearly the peculiar social and emotional dilemma of the highly able.

**The Need for Achievement and Excellence**

School-age children quickly become aware of the importance of achievement. Even for young students, schools stress the importance of success in the acquisition of knowledge, and children learn to measure their achievement against that of their peers. For the intellectually gifted student, the shift away from a self-referenced understanding of ability towards a norm-referenced analysis of one's ability as performance measured against the attainment standards of one's peers, happens even earlier than for his age-mate of average ability. There is ample evidence that much of the socialization of achievement-related motives takes place early in childhood (Steinberg).
Is the drive towards excellence innate in the intellectually gifted child or is it developmentally determined? Whether we believe, with Renzulli (Renzulli, 1977) that the motivation to excel is an integral component of giftedness, or, with Gagne (Gagne, 1985) that it acts, at a later stage, as a catalyst in the emergence of talent, we must ask ourselves when and how the drive itself develops.

Francis Galton believed that the motivation to achieve is inborn. He wrote of the "inherent stimulus" and "labour-loving instinct" which are among "those qualities of intellect and disposition which urge and qualify a man to perform acts which lead to reputation" (Galton, 1869). All these qualities were seen, by Galton, as "natural ability."

Others maintain, however, that the motivation to excel is primarily the result of enriched home environment and training. Bloom's study of over 120 adults who achieved excellence in cognitive, artistic and athletic fields, identified three characteristics as critical to success: (a) an unusual willingness to undertake a remarkably high workload in order to achieve at a high level; (b) a determination to reach the highest standard of which one is capable; and (c) the ability to learn new techniques, ideas or processes in the talent field more rapidly than the average (Bloom, 1982).

It is notable that the first two characteristics are motivational. Significantly, Bloom claims that all three traits were considerably influenced by early socializing and training: indeed he states that the willingness to work was not strongly evident in his subjects until after the age of eight. It appeared to "manifest itself" after several years of instruction.

One might speculate whether, if the urge to achieve is positively influenced by socialization, it might equally be quashed by social pressures to reduce one's drive or productivity. If so, the gifted student who is subjected to intense and continual pressure to moderate his performance might eventually lose his motivation to succeed.

In his studies of young prodigies in natural science, musical composition, prose writing and chess, David Henry Feldman proposes that the attainment of excellence is the result of a confluence of a number of hereditary and environmental factors including the significant influence of personality (Feldman, 1981). He highlights the remarkably high levels of motivation displayed by the children in his study.

"Perhaps the most striking quality of the children in our study as well as other cases is the passion with which excellence is pursued" (Feldman, 1979). He claims, further, that the unusual "commitment, tenacity and joy in achievement" displayed by these children is the most visible sign that the required coincidence of social, environmental and personality factors has occurred.

Silverman (1983) also discusses the role of personality in the establishment of the drive towards achievement and proposes Dabrowski's "third factor" of personality development as a further explanation of how the urge towards excellence is developmental in nature rather than being an innate characteristic in the Galtonian sense.

Dabrowski (1967) posits that in the drive to self-actualization and self-perception the variables of heredity and environment are joined by a third "autonomous" factor which is directly concerned with the pursuit of excellence. This "third factor" is a "powerful internal force propelling development towards high levels of integrity, authenticity, creativity, ethical responsibility and compassion" (Silverman, 1983). It is an emotional commitment to strive to realize one's intellectual and emotional potential to the fullest.

Dabrowski has developed his theory through a study of gifted or creative persons who have achieved eminence. However, unlike Galton, he sees the motivational drive not as innate, but as a developmental characteristic which evolves as the gifted individual progresses towards higher levels of human functioning. In Dabrowski's view, the pursuit of excellence is an off-shoot springing from the initial drive towards self-perfection.

It is important to note that, like Galton and like Renzulli who was influenced by Mackinnon's study of prominent architects (Mackinnon, 1964), Dabrowski developed his theory through a study of individuals who had already attained excellence. The subjects of Bloom and Feldman were also adults or children who had substantially achieved their potential and whose gifts had received recognition. We must ask ourselves, however, how far the theories of these researchers apply to gifted youth whose potential is not achieved. What of those who "fall by the wayside?" Setting aside external considerations such as lack of scholastic or other environmental opportunity, can their lack of success be attributed simply to the nondevelopment of the drive for excellence? Or should we look further towards additional personalological factors which may either inhibit or enhance the development of that drive?

Foster (1983) proposes that a necessary condition for the development of the drive to excel is a secure self-concept. In an individual whose self-concept is secure, the locus of evaluation of individual action is internal to the self. More importantly, in the context of this argument, "the standards of excellence in individual action are internal to the person in the form of their self-esteem and although the person is actively and accurately aware of the standards of performance held by the outside world he is most responsive to these internally held reference values" (Foster, 1983).

Such an individual, whose self-concept is secure, both stimulating and reinforcing his drive towards excellence, is less likely to be influenced by societal pressures to achieve only to group norms, or to conform to culturally determined standards of performance. Self-concept or self-esteem can then be viewed as facilitative factors in the realization of intellectual ability or potential (Feldhusen, 1986; Feldhusen & Hoover, 1986).

Self-concept, however, is in part derived from the view of himself which the child acquires through his interactions with the world around him, and particularly through his relationships with a limited number of significant others. For the child, particularly the gifted child who has been taught that academic attainment is to be especially valued, these may be his teachers and classmates as much as his family and friends.

The development of intimacy, a relationship of mutual support, concern and valuing, is, according to Foster, a necessary correlate of the development of a secure self-concept.

The Need for Intimacy

In the last decade, educators and psychologists have become increasingly aware of the influence of supportive intimate relationships on the attainment of human potential. Sears (1977), reviewing the life experience of the men in Terman's sample, notes that these men's perceptions regarding whether their lives had been satisfying or not were strongly related to the quality of intimate relationships they had enjoyed.

One of the measures of the supportiveness and intimacy of a relationship is the degree to which the significant
others in an individual's life provide him with accurate, honest and detailed feedback about his standard of performance both in the general arena and in his chosen field of work. Open and honest feedback is necessary for the individual to understand his effect on others and on his chosen field; only then can he make an informed and objective evaluation of his contribution.

The gifted child's search for intimacy is well documented. Silverman (1962) documents several instances when intellectually gifted children have demonstrated concern and compassion for another child's physical or emotional distress at an age when the average child is almost totally egocentric in his view of the world and of relationships. The first words of Thomas Carlyle, spoken at the age of 11 months in response to the tears of a young companion, are said to have been, "What ails this lass?" (Cox, 1926). Indeed, the gifted child's need and capacity to form friendships is greater, and appears at an earlier age, than that of his age peers.

One is more likely to achieve intimate and supportive relationships with peers, than with persons with whom one has little in common. In human society, we seek the companionship of people with like values and interests. In childhood relationships, this translates into a seeking after people at the same developmental stage as oneself.

It has often been noted that intellectually gifted children tend to seek out, for companionship, older children or children of their own age who are at similar stages of intellectual development (Davis, 1924; Hollingworth, 1931; O'Shea, 1960). O'Shea (1960) noted that in several studies conducted over a number of years no variable correlated more highly with friendship choices in children than mental age, and that this stood considerably above any other factor. The search for like minds and like companionship appears to begin in very early childhood. Hubbard observed a heterogeneous group of three year olds at nursery school, measuring the children both in terms of the number of times the children chose each other as spontaneous play companions and in terms of the length of time they spent together as a group. When she calculated the correlation between mental age and spontaneous group participation, Hubbard found that children who played together most often showed a correlation of .41 with mental age, while for those who played together longest the correlation was a remarkable .62 (Hubbard, 1929).

The importance of play as an aid to socialization is widely documented. A major difficulty for highly gifted children, however, is that their play interests often differ quite radically from those of their age-peers. Terman made a special study of the play of those children in the gifted group who scored above 170 IQ and found that they were much more solitary in their play than were children clustering around IQ 140 (Burks, Jensen and Terman, 1930). Gifted girls are much less interested in doll-play than are their peers of average intelligence. On being asked by Leta Hollingworth why she did not care to play with dolls, a seven year old girl (IQ 170) replied, "They aren't real. The doll that is supposed to be a baby doll is twice as big as the one that is made like a mother doll." (Hollingworth, 1931). This rejection of doll-play can be a very real hindrance to socialization, as for young girls role-play with dolls plays a major part in establishing and setting the parameters of relationships. For the gifted child, however, the search for logic and structure may supersede the desire for social intercourse.

Generally the play interests of the gifted center on games of intellectual skill, while those of the average child involve predominantly simple sensory-motor activity. Hollingworth (1931) reports the mother of a highly gifted six year old saying, "He can never be satisfied just to toss a ball around." The gifted child prefers "competitive" play, where ideas and strategies are matched against each other (Terman, 1926; Witt and Lehman, 1927; Hollingworth, 1931), whereas the average child prefers games where such rules as exist are clearly defined and closely adhered to. This can cause conflict when the highly able child, who may seek a highly or irrelevant of the rules, seeks to overturn them, either to improve the game or simply for the intellectual stimulation of the ensuing argument!

Because of these factors, the play of the highly intelligent tends to be an uneasy compromise between their own interests and abilities and their desire to be accepted into a social group. Children who are less willing or less able to make such a compromise often become "loners," preferring to invent solitary intellectual games which often center on fantasy and imagined adventure. A significant number of intellectually gifted children create imaginary playmates or imaginary countries, in an attempt to satisfy their need for companionship or social interaction at their own level and within their own interests (Terman, 1926; Hollingworth, 1926).

Thus even play, which for the average child is one of the most important aids to socialization, serves to underscore the differences between the gifted child and his age-mates, rather than acting as a link between them.

It is clear that gifted children have the need for the companionship of intellectual peers, and are to some degree at least aware of this need. However, age-peers of the intellectually gifted, especially in childhood, are often confused by the gifted child because it is difficult for them to identify with his superior cognitive abilities. The average child often downplays the superiority of the gifted by providing false feedback about the true extent of his gifts and talents. If this false feedback is accepted and internalized by the gifted child, he may develop a self-concept based on underrating himself, his abilities and his value to society. Particularly in a society such as Australia, where the highly egalitarian social ethos is based, in large part, on "cutting down the tall poppies" (Ward, 1958; Goldberg, 1961; Start, 1986) there is a very real danger that the gifted student will receive deliberately misleading information about his abilities and potential not only from classmates but also from teachers.

**Conflict and Underachievement**

It can be seen that unless the gifted child is provided with a peer group of companions of like intellectual ability, a vicious circle of misinformation and self-criticism may arise. As we have discussed, the attainment of intimacy is a necessary correlate for the maintenance of the drive to self perfection. Through intimate relationships, the gifted child obtains honest and accurate feedback about his performance and his effect on others. Where this open and nonjudgmental feedback is available, the child will develop a secure and healthy self-concept. Where feedback is falsified and invalidated through envy or lack of understanding, or because the teacher prefers to conceal from the gifted child the true extent of his advancement, the gifted receive a negative and unrealistic view of themselves and their potential. This extremely diminished view of potential may result in poor self-esteem and low self-concept. As Foster has shown, a healthy self-concept is necessary for the establishment and maintenance of the drive towards excellence.

Thus the gifted child may come to believe that his gifts are ephemeral or of limited value. Since his strengths are undervalued by his peers, he may come to seek peer approval by seeking to
Empirical studies which have investigated underachievement among gifted youth have uncovered some alarming statistics. An English study by Pointer (1976) of 160 children of IQ 123-212 found that when the children's classroom performance was compared with their scores on standardized attainment tests of Math and English, over 60% of the students were working, in class, at a level more than four years below their tested achievement. Certainly much classroom underachievement can be attributed to an undemanding school curriculum which requires lock-step progression by chronological age rather than by academic or intellectual aptitude. However, there is no doubt that many gifted students underachieve quite deliberately in an attempt to win social acceptance by their classmates and teachers.

This, then, may be the central psychosocial dilemma of gifted youth. If the gifted child is to satisfy his drive for excellence, he must risk sacrificing the attainment of intimacy with his age peers. If the pursuit of intimacy is his primary need, he must moderate his standards of achievement, conceal, to some extent at least, his intellectual interests, and conform to a value system that may be seriously at variance with his own level of moral development, to retain the approval of the group into which he wishes to be accepted. It is this dilemma that is left unaddressed by the generalized and simplistic social assumptions of the South Australian policy on "fostering gifts and talents."

Because of the unusual qualities of perceptiveness and sensitivity which characterize intellectually gifted youth, many children who choose to sacrifice achievement for intimacy are remarkably successful in concealing their abilities. For some years Tom, a student in a South Australian elementary school, employed two quite distinct and separate vocabularies to avoid detection by his peers. His "normal" vocabulary, as he termed it, which he used with his family and close adult friends, was even at six years old, that of an informed and articulate adult. His alternative vocabulary, which he employed quite deliberately as a camouflage structure, was reserved for use at school with his teachers and age-peers; it was designed to conceal, from people whom he did not trust, his shameful secret of having the mentality, interests and speech of a child twice his age. Tom's secret was only discovered when his level of intellectual frustration reached the point at which he began to employ quite severe physical violence against his classmates. The school psychologist who was brought in to test him prior to referring him for psychiatric evaluation, found that he had an IQ in excess of 170.

In a child such as this, the motivation to achieve has turned inwards and has become a motivation to succeed in a complex matrix of social deception.

The quotations which began this paper express the concerns of leading educators in the United States and Australia that schools are abrogating their responsibilities towards the intellectual and academic welfare of their students in favor of an increasingly dominant role in the socialization of children. Yet the lack of awareness and interest, even among educators of the gifted, in the social and emotional needs of this already disadvantaged group of children, suggests that the gifted are still seen as students who will achieve academic and social success on the strength of their intellectual gifts alone.

To the contrary, the gifted must be one of the few remaining groups in our society who are compelled, by the constraints of the educative and social system within which they operate, to choose which of two basic psychosocial needs should be fulfilled. Often neither need is satisfied. Research reports over the last thirty years on the number of intellectually gifted students who drop out of high school (Van Dyke and Hoyt, 1968; French, 1969; Marland, 1972) should have alerted us to the fact that a significant proportion of our most gifted youth are experiencing neither the euphoria of achievement nor the supportive warmth of intimacy in the present school climate. Is it any wonder that they leave, to seek it elsewhere?

In both the United States and Australia enlightened school systems are beginning to experiment with various student groupings to assist the gifted to establish peer relationships with other children who share their abilities and interests. In the United States, special schools for the gifted such as the Hunter Elementary School and the Juilliard School of Music in New York have long provided opportunities for highly gifted students to work and socialize together with other children of exceptional potential. In Australia structured opportunities for peer interaction are much more limited, but a number of fine programs such as the acceleration program at University High School, Melbourne, and the full time self-contained gifted classes in Northern Territory do exist and flourish, despite active opposition from politicians and the militant teachers' industrial unions. To answer and diffuse hostility and opposition, we need much more empirical research on the effects of peer grouping on the social and emotional development of the gifted in homogeneous groups and ungrouped settings. But first, educators and psychologists working in gifted education have to be convinced of the desirability of such research.

In a comprehensive review of research on the psychosocial development of the intellectually gifted, James and Robinson (1985) indicate that research findings regarding favorable personal and social adjustment emanate from studies of moderately rather than extremely gifted children. James and Robinson claim that although the special problems of the extremely gifted demand urgent investigation, "the research devoted to exploring them pales in comparison with that devoted to virtually any other maladaptive set of behaviors."

Let us close with the words of James, aged 12, on completing the probationary period which the South Australian Association for Gifted and Talented Children (SAAGTC) requires students to undertake before final acceptance into its student programs. James, who is highly gifted but a chronic underachiever at school, had attended a series of Math and Science classes pitched at the 15 – 16 year old level, and had performed exceptionally. One of the SAAGTC Committee asked him whether he would like to continue attending the classes.

James was visibly moved. "Saturday Club is the best thing that's ever happened to me," he said. "The kids are so friendly. Nobody here thinks I'm dumb and weird."

Then he added, "You know, when I'm here I don't think I'm dumb and weird either."

REFERENCES


Module 3

Professor Miraca U.M. Gross
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Welcome!

You are about to start a Professional Development Course which will help you identify the gifted and talented students in your class or your school, and differentiate the curriculum to respond to their individual learning needs. You'll also be able to decide which of your students may benefit from various forms of ability or interest grouping and which may possibly be candidates for one or more of the many forms of academic acceleration.

About the Package

The course consists of six Modules

Each Module consists of three levels: Core, Extension and Specialisation. The Core levels of the six Modules are the heart of this course. The Core Modules contain essential information and practical advice and strategies to assist you to identify and respond to your gifted and talented students.

We strongly suggest that you complete the Core level of each Module.

Pre-tests

We are aware that teachers and school administrators will enter this course with a wide range of existing knowledge of gifted and talented education. To accommodate this range of knowledge and experience, we have started each Core Module, from Module 2 onwards, with a pre-test. We encourage you to take these pre-tests and, if you ‘test out’ on any Module at Core level, simply move on to the next Module. For example, if you ‘test out’ of Core Module 2 you will pass over that Module and move on to Core Module 3.

Extension and Specialisation Levels

Extension and Specialisation levels for each Module. Material covered in the Extension and Specialisation levels builds on the knowledge you will have gained from the Core level in each Module. Key issues are examined in greater depth and participants explore a wider range of issues in the cognitive and social-emotional development of gifted students. New identification, curriculum differentiation and program development techniques are introduced.

The Extension and Specialisation levels require teachers, counsellors and administrators to undertake further reading and practical activities to reflect on classroom practice, school practice and policy. They encourage participants to focus on their specific role in the school and prepare a brief action plan to demonstrate application or mastery of outcomes.

Schools may decide that completion of the course at Specialisation level would be a useful prerequisite for becoming the school’s Gifted Education Coordinator.
What will you learn in this course?

The course consists of six Modules:

**Module One: Understanding Giftedness**

Understanding the nature of giftedness and talent; what the terms mean; levels and types of giftedness. Cognitive and affective characteristics of gifted and talented students; ways in which these students may differ from their classmates - even if at first we don’t observe this.

**Module Two: The Identification of Gifted Students**

A range of practical identification procedures, with particular attention to procedures which are effective in identifying gifted students from culturally diverse and disadvantaged groups. We’ll be emphasising the use of a combination of approaches rather than a single measure such as IQ testing or teacher nomination used in isolation.

**Module Three: Social and Emotional Development of Gifted Students**

Understanding the social and emotional characteristics and needs of gifted students. Ways in which gifted students may differ somewhat from their classmates in their social and emotional development. Supporting gifted students and their parents. Teaching strategies and class structures which foster the development of positive social attitudes and supportive peer relationships in gifted students.

**Module Four: Understanding Underachievement in Gifted Students**

Understanding the causes of underachievement in gifted students. Identifying gifted underachievers and planning interventions designed to prevent and reverse cycles of underachievement.

**Module Five: Curriculum Differentiation for Gifted Students**

Teaching strategies and methods of curriculum differentiation which enhance the learning of gifted students in the regular classroom. Appropriate use of different enrichment models that international research has found to be effective with gifted and talented students. Practical applications of pre-testing, curriculum compacting and individualised programming.

**Module Six: Developing Programs and Provisions for Gifted Students**

Practical strategies for the establishment and monitoring of ability, achievement or interest grouping, and the many forms of accelerated progression. Particular attention will be paid to the effects of various strategies on students’ academic and social development.
Using the package

Much of the material is suitable across teaching and learning contexts. This content is not specifically marked. However, content that may be applicable to your particular context is identified as follows:

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Follow these symbols through the content to customise your learning path.

Each Module comes in two parts, each concluding with a practical exercise. We suggest that you complete the first and second parts a few days apart - unless this is not workable in your particular learning context. This will give you a chance to digest the information in Part 1 and work through the Reflective/Practical component.
# Core Module 3:
Social and Emotional Development of Gifted Students

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Welcome to the third Module in this Professional Development Course.
(1) At what age do students generally begin to make social comparisons?
   (a) 5   (b) 7   (c) 9   (d) 11   (e) 13

(2) The ‘forced-choice dilemma’ is a conflict between:
   (a) identity and intimacy
   (b) achievement and empathy
   (c) intimacy and achievement
   (d) identity and achievement

(3) If a student has an ego-involved motivational orientation what is likely to be her main source of pleasure in learning?

(4) Why may some gifted students be wrongly diagnosed as having (Attention Deficit Disorder) or ADHD (Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder)?
Pre-Test Answers

(1) b

(2) c

(3) She is likely to be mainly focused on being recognised as being brighter or more successful than the other students.

(4) They may be exhibiting psychomotor overexcitabilities.

If you were not correct in your answers to these four questions you should benefit from at least some of the information that follows in this Module.

If your answers to all four questions were correct you may not need to complete this Module, though we advise that you still skim-read it to check whether it offers you anything new.

The Extension level Module provides further information for you to consider on these and other issues in the socio-affective development of gifted and talented students.

Outcomes

At the completion of this Module you will be able to:

• recognise ways in which intellectually gifted children differ from their age-peers in their affective development.

• identify behaviours which may suggest that bright students are masking their abilities for peer acceptance.

• recognise ‘over-excitabilities’ which may be indicative of high abilities.
Some affective characteristics of gifted students in primary school

In Module 1, we briefly reviewed some of the affective (social and emotional) characteristics of gifted and talented primary students. Let’s call some of these to mind.

• Emotional intensity. Gifted children tend to experience emotional reactions at a deeper level than their age-peers.

• An unusually well-developed sense of justice and ‘fairness’. They may become upset if they feel that one child has been unfair to another - or if they feel a teacher or other adult has been unfair to a classmate.

• An unusual ability to empathise with the feelings of other children or adults.

• Many gifted students enjoy books written for students some years older. They can find it quite frustrating when their classmates have little interest in novels or series which they find exciting and rewarding.

• A more mature sense of humour than age-peers - eg, a liking for verbal rather than visual humour in early primary, or a liking for humour based on incongruity of ideas - eg, ‘Monty Python’ style humour - in upper primary.

• They tend to prefer the companionship of children a little older, or sometimes some years older.

• They may have rather different conceptions and expectations of friendship from those of their age-peers.

• Gifted students may form strong attachments to one or two friends rather than more casual relationships with a larger group.

• Many academically gifted students feel pressured to moderate their achievements for peer acceptance

• Some gifted students can exhibit perfectionist tendencies.

• Even in the early years of primary school, some academically gifted students feel pressured to moderate their achievements for peer acceptance.

Emotional maturity

Teachers generally accept that academically gifted students are more mature, in their cognitive development, than the majority of their classmates. However, they often expect that the social and emotional development of academically gifted students will be on a par with their age-peers - and this is not necessarily the case.
The intellectual and emotional development of most students is appropriate to their chronological age. However, children who differ significantly from their age-peers in terms of their intellectual development also differ somewhat in their emotional maturity.

As briefly outlined in Module 1, students whose capacity to learn is developmentally delayed tend also to be somewhat less mature, socially and emotionally, than their classmates of average ability. Social-emotional development tends to be rather more closely linked to intellectual development than to chronological age.

In the same way, students who are more developmentally advanced in their capacity to learn than their age-peers - academically gifted students - also tend to be somewhat more mature, emotionally and socially, than their classmates.

However, for a range of reasons which we’ll explore in this Module, this advancement may not be readily visible. Some gifted students learn, surprisingly early in their school careers, that to display abilities and opinions that are different from those of the majority of their classmates can lead to mockery or even ostracism.

How early can this begin?

It is important to understand how early the process of ‘dumbing down’ for peer acceptance can start - and therefore for how many years some gifted students may have being doing this before you encounter them!

**The onset of social comparisons**

People make social comparisons as a process of self-evaluation. Comparing our progress against that of peers gives us evaluative feedback on our own performance. In general, we choose to compare ourselves to people whose ability or experience roughly approximates our own (Festinger, 1954). The weekend golfer doesn’t measure himself against the club professional. The club pro doesn’t measure himself against Tiger Woods.

In general, young children don’t make social comparisons. In the pre-school years and the early years of school, they tend to be rather ‘self’-centred. So when a young child wants to evaluate her progress she compares what she can do today with what she could do earlier, and assesses how much she has improved.
‘I can do 6 hops without having to put my foot down,’ thinks Jenny. ‘Last time I tried I could only do 4!’ Her reference point is her own previous experience. She’s not particularly interested in what other kids can do.

However, as she gets a bit older she becomes aware of ways in which she resembles and differs from other children. She starts to norm-reference - making social comparisons of her own progress in terms of what the other kids can do. She may discover she’s not as physically adept as she had thought, or she may find that only a few of her age-peers match her abilities.

Children generally move from self-referencing to norm-referencing at around age 7, but this is linked to the individual child’s capacity to make evaluative comparisons. Some children take quite a bit longer to reach this stage. Intellectually gifted children tend to reach it earlier. Many gifted young children are norm-referencing before they enter school.

As discussed in Module 1, it’s not unusual for gifted children to enter school already reading, writing and counting. The gifted child who is norm-referencing may become aware within the first few days that the other children have not yet developed these skills. Unless the teacher becomes aware of the gifted child’s advancement and shows pleasure in it, the child may become acutely aware that she is different, and may moderate or even stop the behaviour that is setting her apart from her classmates.

An Australian study of 60 children who entered school already reading found that more than 40 of them significantly moderated their reading performance, or deliberately stopped reading in class, within two weeks (Gross, 2004). The children who continued to read were those whose teachers accepted and facilitated it.

It is important that we recognise how disturbingly early gifted students can begin to mask their abilities for peer acceptance.

The forced-choice dilemma

Research on child and adolescent development has identified four main sets of social-emotional concerns that affect our lives as we progress from childhood to adulthood. They are identity, autonomy, intimacy and achievement (Steinberg, 1985). These concerns first emerge in the early years of primary school and intensify as the child moves through the primary years and into adolescence.

- **Identity.** The development of a sense of personal identity involves changes in the way children perceive themselves. When they start to make social comparisons they become aware of ways in which they are similar to and different from their classmates. They begin to wonder who they really are and where they are going. The quest for identity is not only a search for a personal sense of self, but for affirmation from peers and others that they are accepted and valued members of their social group.
• **Autonomy.** This refers to the process of developing one’s own set of values rather than relying totally on the values of family and friends. In the early years of primary school, children depend largely on their families to decide what is right or wrong, acceptable or not acceptable. In upper primary the values and attitudes of friends start to become equally important or sometimes more important. These are necessary stages in the growth towards developing one’s own sets of moral or ethical standards.

• **Intimacy.** In early and middle childhood friendships tend to be based primarily on the sharing of activities (games, sport) or interests (hobbies, TV programs). Intimacy - the sharing of feelings, fears, hopes and dreams - is based on the development of more mature relationships based on trust, openness and similarities of values. Gifted children tend to have conceptions of friendship which are more like those of older children.

• **Achievement.** High ability in any area is often accompanied by a drive to translate that ability into achievement. Children’s attitudes towards their own achievement and that of their classmates depend on how they have been taught to value or devalue their own abilities and aptitudes. Their attitudes are also formed by the feedback they receive from families, teachers and friends about what abilities are more socially acceptable and should be cultivated, and which are less acceptable and should be moderated or avoided.

These four concerns interact and exert considerable influence on each other.

The gradual shift away from dependence on parents in forming judgments is closely linked to the development of a sense of personal identity.

The feedback children receive from teachers and peers about the value, or lack of value, of their academic gifts or strengths influences how they perceive their membership in the school community.

The degree to which students value the right to hold opinions which run counter to those of the peer culture will influence their opportunities to develop relationships of intimacy in a school culture in which conformity is an important measure of acceptability.

Academically gifted students may be faced with a ‘forced-choice dilemma’ if their desire to excel in their area of talent conflicts with their need to be accepted by the peer culture (Gross, 1989).

If the gifted student wants to satisfy her drive for achievement, and perform at the level of which she knows she is capable, she may risk sacrificing the attainment of intimacy with age-peers who may be disconcerted by her abilities or even resentful of them.

If the pursuit of intimacy is her primary need, she may have to moderate her standards of achievement, conceal, to some extent at least, her intellectual interests, and conform to a value system that may be seriously at variance with her own levels of social-emotional maturity.
Many gifted students respond to this forced-choice dilemma by retreating behind a mask of social conformity. In the Extension level of this Module we will explore the camouflage behaviours these students may use.

Miraca Gross’s article, ‘The pursuit of excellence or the search for intimacy: The forced-choice dilemma of gifted youth’, which comes as a resource paper with this Module, explores these issues further.

**Gifted students in rural areas**

The forced-choice dilemma can be particularly acute for gifted students in rural areas. The more children there are at a particular grade level, the more chance a gifted student has of finding an ability peer. In a school which has two or three classes at each grade level, the teachers may decide to cluster students with high ability in a specific subject area in one particular class. (This is called ‘cluster grouping’ and we look at it in Module 6: Developing Programs and Provisions for Gifted Students.)

However, if you are the only person in your class who is capable of working at a level two or more years beyond your age, what do you do? If you want to work at your level, do you have to work on your own? If you want to work with other children, do you have to work at a level you have already passed through? And where do you find friends who share your interests if no one in your class has yet developed them? How do you avoid looking (and possibly feeling) ‘weird’? The temptation to sacrifice achievement for intimacy can be almost overwhelming.

In Module 5: Curriculum Differentiation for Gifted Students we will look at ways of differentiating the curriculum so that it becomes more responsive to individual differences in learning, but we still have to be sensitive to the social factor. How do we respond to the gifted student whose interests and emotional development are more like someone older?

In a split grade or composite class, or in a one- or two-teacher school, the gifted student can be allowed to work, in her particular talent areas, with older students. In Module 6 we’ll discuss some of the forms of acceleration which allow students who are academically advanced and emotionally mature for their age, to work either full time, or for specific subjects, with an older grade. Acceleration has a wealth of research to support it (Rogers, 2002).

A class which has students at more than one grade level is ideally set up for a gifted student’s smooth transition to an older grade.

**Mentoring** can be a useful option, too. An older student or an adult who is knowledgeable about the gifted student’s area of talent or interest can work with the student over a period of time. Email mentoring can greatly assist students who are disadvantaged by distance, and we discuss this also in Module 6.
The Gagné model illustrates how important it is that gifted and talented students are encouraged to accept and value their gifts. As we discussed in Module 1, teachers sometimes confuse conceit, which we certainly want students to avoid, with a healthy pride in one’s abilities which is an essential constituent of self-esteem.

If students feel that their abilities set them apart from their age-peers, they are unlikely to want to develop their gifts into talents.

Gifted students may need our help and support to resolve the forced-choice dilemma, so that they no longer feel they have to choose between talent development and social acceptance.
Reflective/Practical Component

When peer acceptance seems to depend on being like the others rather than different, students may change their behaviours to mask their difference. Did you modify or moderate your behaviour at school to ‘be like’ the others? What did you do and why?

Did any of your teachers work out what you were doing? If they had, how would you have liked them to respond to this?

Can you think of any students in your class who could be engaging in similar masking behaviours? How might you respond?

What behaviours or attitudes are seen as ‘cool’ by the students in your school? How might bright or gifted students in your school mask their behaviour to be accepted and why might they feel this is necessary?

Think of students in your school who appeared bright in the early grades but who seem to have ‘levelled out’ or lost their spark over time. What differences have you noted in parents’ and teachers’ interpretations of these changes? (If you haven’t asked the parents, you may like to plan how you will raise the issue.)
Gagné’s model shows clearly the influence of intrapersonal catalysts - aspects of the student’s social and emotional development - in facilitating or impeding the translation of giftedness into talent. Let’s look at some aspects of socio-affective development and their possible relationships to student achievement.

**Self-concept and self-esteem**

Self-concept has been succinctly defined as the collection of ideas that one has about oneself (Neihart, 1999). It is an important constituent of personality and it can certainly influence students’ attitudes and behaviours but its influence may have been exaggerated over the last few years. Nicholas Colangelo, a leading expert on counselling gifted students, comments wryly that almost everything ‘good’ in school life has been linked by pop psychologists to a positive self-concept and almost everything that sets students at any sort of risk has been linked to a negative self-concept (Colangelo, 2003). Yet it’s not as simple as that.

Firstly, self-concept is multi-faceted. A student may have a high academic self-concept, a low social self-concept, an average self-concept on issues bearing on family relationships and a very high physical self-concept. (And these are only some of the facets.) In addition, one can have a high academic self-concept in maths and a lower verbal self-concept. So what is a ‘positive’ or ‘negative’ self-concept?

Secondly, research has shown that students with relatively low academic self-concepts can achieve outstanding success in school while students with high academic self-concepts can perform quite poorly. Equally, students with high social self-concepts can engage in socially destructive behaviour. Self-concept is one’s view of oneself - it may not accurately reflect reality!

Self-esteem is the affective element of self-concept; how the student feels about her academic achievement, social acceptability, family relationships or perhaps physical attractiveness.

A mathematically gifted student may have a positive academic self-concept but lower academic self-esteem if peer pressure has caused her to undervalue her talent.

By contrast, a student of average ability who is achieving at levels commensurate with her ability and has learned to feel good about this may have modest academic self-concept but high academic self-esteem.

**Self-esteem and ability grouping**

Australian educators are traditionally wary of placing gifted students in ability grouped settings, believing that grouping provides little academic advantage and may even damage the gifted students’ self-esteem. However, research provides a very different picture. As we will discuss in Module 6: Developing Programs and Provisions for Gifted Students, gifted students who enter ability-grouped settings tend to perform substantially better on later measures of school
achievement (measures of ‘value added’) than do equally bright students in mixed-ability classes.

Some studies have found no difference or little difference in the self-concept or self-esteem of academically gifted students and students of average ability while others have found differences favouring gifted students.

What happens to the self-esteem of students who are ability grouped? Some studies have found no effect of grouping on self-esteem or self-concept. Others have found that the academic self-esteem of gifted students takes a slight dip on entry to ability grouped programs - although long-term studies suggest that this is usually temporary.

One large scale Australian study of 1500 New South Wales students moving from primary to secondary school found a dip in academic self-esteem over the first few months of high school. However, the academic self-esteem of students entering Selective High Schools for gifted students remained higher than that of their age-peers entering comprehensive high schools and their social self-esteem was likewise higher (Gross, 1997).

You may like to look further at issues of self-esteem and grouping in the Extension and Specialisation levels of this Module.

Motivation

Most gifted students love learning. They get enormous pleasure out of gaining more and more knowledge and acquiring higher and higher levels of skill. Remember the little boy in Module 1 whose father described him as having a rage to learn?

In the early childhood years most children are intrinsically motivated to learn. The urge to learn comes from within them. They enjoy learning simply for learning’s sake.

However, as children move through school, things become a little more complex. Some children remain intrinsically motivated. For others, motivation gradually becomes more extrinsic - powered by factors other than the pure desire to increase skills and knowledge.

Mastery goals and task involvement

Children who want to learn for learning’s sake tend to have a pretty realistic attitude to learning. They recognise that sometimes learning doesn’t come easily; you have to practise and work at what you are doing if you want to improve. In general, students who adopt mastery goals focus on mastering the work and improving their performance.

Gifted students with a mastery orientation prefer tasks that are challenging and require them to strive for success, and they tend to use more effective learning strategies (Dweck, 1986). They are not concerned with being best in the class - if that happens, it happens, and it’s probably quite nice, but it’s not their primary goal in learning.

Psychologist John Nicholls (1983) described students with a mastery orientation as ‘task involved’.
Performance goals and ego-involvement

Other students may be powered by performance goals. For these students, doing well, and being recognised and praised for it, are more important than increasing their skills or knowledge. They tend to measure their ability by whether or not they succeed at a task rather than by the strategies they use to achieve success.

Gifted students with a performance orientation may prefer tasks that they can succeed at without too much effort, rather than tasks which demand an increase in knowledge or skill.

Nicholls described students with a performance orientation as ‘ego-involved’. He noted that these students’ focus tends to be less on mastering the work and more on a desire to look smart or avoid looking stupid.

Research suggests that, certainly in the early years of school, most gifted students are task involved. We’ll explore this further later in this Module.

As mentioned earlier, some studies of gifted students entering ability grouped programs note a slight dip in academic self-esteem. Miraca Gross’s 1997 study of students entering selective and comprehensive high schools found that the few gifted students (fewer than 5%) who experienced a more serious drop in self-esteem were strongly ego-involved. These students were not able to focus on, and enjoy, the more challenging work of the selective high school; their focus was on the fact that they were no longer the brightest student in the class.

Retaining Task Involvement

Students are more likely to retain a love of learning if they are allowed to learn. Joyce VanTassel-Bask (1992) defines learning as progressing to a level of knowledge or skill development that is higher than one’s present level.

Abed, in Year 5, was bright in several subject areas but his real passion was maths. His Year 4 teacher, Ms James, had tested him on Year 5 maths and found that he already knew quite a lot of the work so she gave him maths enrichment work at Year 5 level.

When he entered Year 5 Mr Maclaren, his new teacher, also tested him and found that he knew most of the work. However, he insisted that Abed repeat the work with the rest of the class on the grounds that he had ‘holes’ in his learning and it was important to give him a more solid grounding before he was allowed to move on.

Mr Maclaren had placed several maths enrichment books in the class bookshelves and Abed enjoyed these but he was only allowed to use them when he had finished the regular maths work of the class.

What Mr Maclaren was effectively doing was halting Abed’s learning. By being placed back at a stage he had already passed through, Abed was not being allowed to progress to a level of maths skill beyond what he had already attained.

Abed had been strongly task-involved. He loved encountering, and mastering, new maths concepts. Now he was placed in a situation where there was nothing new to strive for. When his teacher praised his
swift and accurate maths work Abed felt that the praise was not really for his mastery of the work; after all, he had mastered it the previous year. He began to feel that the enrichment work was no more than a carrot on the end of a stick to persuade him to trudge through the basic work. Gradually, over the year, he lost interest in it.

Linda Silverman (1993) points out that at times when 'outcomes-based' education is in vogue it would be very easy for educators to create a performance goal classroom environment where success is measured by achieving goals rather than by the skill or effort through which the goals are achieved.

**Perseverance**

Gagné emphasises that perseverance - learning to stick with a task until one has mastered it - is essential if high abilities are to be translated into high achievement. But perseverance may have to be learned. When students are presented only with work which they can do effortlessly, they may never develop skills of time-management, persistence or striving for success.

Gifted students moving from lower to middle or upper primary, or primary to secondary, may have problems with time management when they are required to work on a longer-term task such as a research project. They may have been accustomed to doing things quickly and well. Some may be accustomed to being praised for their speed, as well as quality, of work and may associate speed with quality. These students may need support in understanding that the time spent in gathering data for a project is not time lost but time invested in ensuring a quality product.

**Strategies which may help time management**

- Assist the student to break down the project or assignment into stages or smaller parts. Academically gifted students usually have strong analytical skills and will be able to see how the elements of the project hang together.

- Assist the student to develop a checklist of tasks to be completed within each stage of the project.

- Work with the student to develop time estimates for each stage.

- Assist the student to create a list of resources he or she may need for the project. Factor the search for, or development of, these resources into the project timeline.

If you already use these strategies with students, you’ll have found that they work well. But do you use them with your academically gifted students? Unfortunately, some teachers assume that gifted students will get by without special assistance. And some don’t, especially when tasks become more detailed or complex.

Here is one further suggestion which is more specifically related to gifted and talented students.
Gifted students who are mocked or rejected by their classmates may sometimes be reluctant to ask for help. Set up a private way for the student to ask for help without having to raise her hand.

**Can gifted students be ‘over-excitable’?**

We have talked earlier about the emotional intensity of some gifted students - their tendency to experience emotions at a deeper and more immediate level than their age-peers. This is often coupled with an enhanced capacity to empathise with other people's feelings - to share the joys and sorrows of their friends more intensely than most other students of their age.

A third characteristic which we have not addressed yet is a tendency towards physical restlessness. These three characteristics, and others, are often misinterpreted by teachers as a sign of emotional immaturity.

However, the research of a Polish psychiatrist, Kazimierz Dabrowski, offers another explanation. Dabrowski noted that intellectually gifted adults and young people tend to have a heightened awareness of their environment and a heightened capacity to respond to various intellectual, emotional or even physical stimuli.

Dabrowski calls this tendency ‘overexcitability’. This term is not used in any derogatory sense; it is a translation of a Polish word which means ‘super-stimulatability’, and it carries positive connotations, such as an insatiable love of learning, the capacity to care intensely for people and ideas, boundless energy, and a vivid imagination.

An excellent description of Dabrowski’s overexcitabilities can be found in Linda Silverman’s book *Counselling the Gifted and Talented* (Silverman, 1993).

Dabrowski identifies five ‘overexcitabilities’: intellectual, emotional, imaginative, sensual and psychomotor.

**Intellectual overexcitability**

Students who demonstrate high levels of intellectual overexcitability (OE) tend to be academically gifted (Silverman, 1993). Abed, whom you met in the previous section, had many intellectual OE characteristics.

- **A passionate love of learning.**
- **An enhanced capacity for analytical thinking.** Abed liked analysing patterns in the plots of books. When he was 8 he commented to his teacher that in each of the Harry Potter books a key character turns out to be something very different from how they appeared at the start of the book. He commented that this made the books more interesting than conventional stories where bad people are clearly bad and good people clearly good.
- **Meta-analysis.** An enjoyment of thinking about thinking.
- **Sustained intellectual effort** and a much longer attention span than age-peers. Some gifted students will work for days on a task or puzzle until they are happy with the result. They may become quite upset if a teacher or parent tries to draw them away from the task before they have completed it to their satisfaction. Remember Dino, in Module 1, who became absorbed in a project he designed comparing the goldrush periods in
Australia and California? Mr Hansen, his teacher, allowed Dino to work on his project through maths periods when the class was revising work previously covered.

- **An enjoyment of detailed planning.** When Abed’s family planned a holiday trip to New Zealand, Abed spent several weeks working out an itinerary which took in the major cities and sights that each family member wanted to see.

- **Intense curiosity** and an unwillingness to be satisfied with simplistic or incomplete answers. Some teachers may find this sort of insistence threatening, misinterpreting the child’s passion for detail and completeness as a challenge to their authority, while the gifted child’s classmates may find her insistence on seemingly obscure points quite incomprehensible.

**Emotional overexcitability**

This is characterised by the capacity for emotional depth; students with OEs feel emotions more acutely. ‘Nearly everything matters and it matters that it matters’ (Kline & Meckstroth, 1985, p. 25).

- Students with emotional OE may display the unusual sensitivity to the feelings of other children or even adults that we have described earlier but even more intensely. On a school excursion Jessica burst into tears when an ambulance sped past them with its siren wailing. ‘The person must be so frightened,’ she sobbed. She was empathising with the emotional distress of the person who had been injured even more than with the injury.

- They may develop a strong attachment to other people. Gifted students who have been socially isolated and then find a friend can become deeply attached to the friend.

- They may not easily forgive themselves if they have hurt someone’s feelings.

- They can be extremely self-critical, worrying over small faults.

- They may become particularly fond of places, as well as people. When her family moved to another town Shifra went quietly from room to room saying goodbye to her old house. ‘We talk about places holding memories,’ she said to her mother. ‘Well, maybe they do.’

**Imaginational overexcitability**

This can be displayed through a great facility for invention and fantasy, such as the creation of imaginary companions, an ability for vivid visual recall and detailed visualisation, and a deep love for poetry and drama.

- Linda Silverman (1993) notes that many gifted children with imaginational OE explain stories or ideas in such great detail that adults beg them to get to the point.

- They often have a need to describe the subtle nuances of a situation or interaction, rather than simply the factual details. ‘Draco Malfoy doesn’t just dislike Harry Potter,’ Abed told his teacher. ‘He hates him, because when he looks at Harry he sees all the things he isn’t.’

- They can have a great capacity for invention, creating imaginary companions or even imaginary countries. The Brontë sisters did this as children.
• They **often visualise situations very vividly.** Their dreams, including daydreams, may be unusually elaborate.

• They **may demonstrate a capacity to mix truth with fantasy for effect.**

• They **may prefer to act out stories** rather than simply telling them.

**Sensual overexcitability**

This may be displayed in a heightened awareness of the senses; a deep aesthetic appreciation of beautiful objects, phrases of music or words.

• Students with sensual OE may have **an unusual sensitivity to particular pieces of music or poetry** and play or read these aloud repetitively to the point that family members protest.

• They **may enjoy the feel of particular materials.** However, this can also be manifested in an oversensitivity to certain clothing materials. Researchers report parents of sensually overexcitable students having to cut labels off the children’s clothes and even having to be particularly careful about the placement of sock seams, because the students react so strongly.

• They **may develop a liking for a particular object** which they carry around and play with. This is not to be confused with a ‘security blanket’. It is more of an enjoyment of the feel or texture of the object. Angie enjoyed holding and caressing a small purse of soft leather. She would not keep any coins in the purse as she found these changed the way the purse felt.

• **Some students develop a strong dislike of the texture of particular foods** and the feel of these foods in their mouths, even when they quite enjoy the taste.

**Psychomotor overexcitability**

This can be manifested in physical restlessness arising from surplus energy.

• The student’s surplus energy may show itself in **compulsive talking and chattering.**

• They **may develop nervous habits** such as tics, drumming fingers or nailbiting.

• They **may show a love of fast games and sports.** Some children become physically impulsive. They may seem to need to be constantly on the move.

• The student **may seem almost unable to stay in his seat.** He may be in a state of almost continual movement, wriggling, pushing the chair back, swinging legs, etc.

• They **may have unusually rapid speech and exaggerated vocal expression.**

• **Some gifted students can seem to be workaholics or compulsive organisers.**

Unfortunately teachers often confuse this physical restlessness and distractability with the behaviours associated with Attention Deficit Disorder (ADD) or Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). Teachers should monitor the student’s distractable behaviours. If the behaviours seem to have a pattern related to the work that is being presented – eg, if they appear mainly when the student is bored, or frustrated by a slow pace of instruction, or required to do work that he has already mastered - they probably indicate psychomotor overexcitability rather than an attention deficit disorder. Ironically, the twitching, fiddling and shifting around may indicate an over-responsiveness to **lack** of intellectual stimulus!
The intensity of the gifted student's response to intellectual, emotional, aesthetic and even physical stimuli can sometimes be confused with immaturity. It is important to understand that while some of the behaviours associated with intellectual, emotional and imaginational overexcitabilities may at first glance appear immature, they actually arise from the child's intellectual and emotional maturity.

Psychologist Michael Piechowski (1986) suggests we should view the five overexcitabilities as channels of information flow, and ways in which students experience the world. When any of these channels is stronger than those of a student's peers, the student may feel embarrassed, uncomfortable or even guilty for being different from her classmates.

As Manaster and Powell (1983) described it, gifted students can be out of stage (dealing with concepts and goals far beyond the reach of their age-peers), out of phase (ali enated from age-mates if they find themselves without an intellectual peer group with whom they can relate) and out of sync (realising painfully that they are different, and fearing that they will never find a group with whom they can merge without being dismissed as strange or weird). However, the very nature of overexcitabilities can make it difficult for the child to conceal them.

Experiencing ‘flow’

Remember the little boy with ‘a rage to learn’? Some gifted students truly have a passion for learning. As a child, Don Bradman spent hours each day, week after week, honing his batting skills, practising and improving, even though he was already far beyond the skill level of many adult players. Observers would report that he seemed lost to the outside world, totally absorbed in what he was doing.

Talented young musicians, athletes or dancers may set themselves goals that would seem impossible to the majority of their age-peers and will achieve these goals through years of dedicated practice. Again, people observing talented artists at practice frequently note their total immersion in what they are doing.

Many of these young people have fallen in love with a field, a discipline or a subject. When a student who deeply loves what she is doing is engaged in an activity where the level of challenge matches her level of ability, the experience can be totally absorbing and totally fulfilling. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) describes the feeling as being ‘in flow’. It can be a transcendental experience of joy and self-actualisation. Moments when everything comes together and the solution to the problem arrives in the student's mind, or he achieves the perfect rendering of a musical phrase, can be ‘peak’ experiences.

We can let ‘flow’ happen for our gifted students by presenting them with appropriate levels of challenge. Flow comes from optimal engagement with a task. It doesn’t come from doing, yet again, what one has been able to do for weeks - or months - or years.

In Modules 5 and 6 we will look at how to develop curriculum and learning environments which will allow our gifted students to experience flow.
Self Assessment

Do you have a child in your class who shows one of more of the overexcitabilities discussed here? How does the child behave? Are there any particular situations or events that seem to ‘set the child off’? Does the child show any signs of high ability?

OR

Do you have a bright child in your class who has been diagnosed with ADD or ADHD? After reading the overexcitabilities section above, could there be another explanation for some of his or her behaviours?

ALSO

What do you really love doing that can result, for you, in ‘flow’ or in a peak emotional experience? How can you inculcate this feeling in your students?

Do you have a bright child in your school who has been diagnosed with ADD or ADHD? After reading the over-excitabilities section above, could there be another explanation for some of his or her behaviours?

When was the child diagnosed? How long had the problem been going on? Check with the child’s previous teachers; to what degree did the child show these behaviours in the earlier years?

ALSO

What do you really love doing that can result, for you, in ‘flow’ or in a peak emotional experience? How can your teachers inculcate this feeling in their students?

(1) Discuss with your colleagues students whom you presently teach, or have taught, who show one of more of the over-excitabilities discussed here. How does the child behave? Are there any particular situations or events that seem to ‘set the child off’? Does the child show any signs of high ability? Are you able to trace, through discussion, how early in the student’s school career these excitabilities became noticeable? Does the student still show them?

(2) Do you have a bright child in your class who has been diagnosed with ADD or ADHD? After reading the over-excitabilities section above, could there be another explanation for some of his or her behaviours?
Questions for Reflection

Once a child or adult has experienced ‘flow’ he or she wants to experience it again.
What can you do to ensure that all your students have this motivating experience?
Resources

References

The Pursuit of Excellence or the Search for Intimacy? The Forced-Choice Dilemma of Gifted Youth

Miraca U.M. Gross

Educators often fail to recognize that the intellectually gifted differ from their age peers in their social and emotional development as much as in their intellectual and academic characteristics. A dilemma peculiar to gifted youth arises through the interaction of the psychosocial drives towards intimacy and achievement, which complement each other in students of average ability, but which place the gifted student in a forced-choice situation. If the gifted child chooses to satisfy the drive for excellence he or she must risk forfeiting the attainment of intimacy with age peers; if the choice is intimacy, the gifted may be forced into a pattern of systematic and deliberate underachievement to retain membership in the social group. Homogeneous grouping of gifted students is suggested as a partial solution to this dilemma.

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American education has found more comfort in assuming responsibility for socializing children than for meeting their unique educational needs.

Joyce Van-Tassel Baska, Chicago, U.S.A., 1985

Australian schools are evolving as multi-purpose social service agencies rather than pedagogical centres.

K. Brian Start, Melbourne, Australia, 1985

It is ironic that at a time when American and Australian schools are increasingly abrogating their responsibilities towards the intellectual and academic development of their students to adopt, instead, the socializing roles formerly undertaken by the family and religion, the interest of many educators in intellectually gifted children is still stubbornly fixed on these students’ intellectual characteristics, at the expense of any serious investigative concern for their social and emotional growth.

The problem is especially acute in Australia. Perhaps because of the dearth of Australian research into the needs and characteristics of the intellectually gifted child, and the unwillingness to interpret and harness overseas research, very little is known about the social and emotional needs of gifted children in Australia. Furthermore, investigation into the socio-emotional development of the highly able is hampered by the prevailing assumption that gifted students differ from their age peers on intuitive factors alone.

So readily accepted is this assumption that it has become enshrined even in the policies of Australian State government education systems. The State Government of South Australia, in its 1983 Policy regarding fostering gifts and talents among children lists “the educational needs of all students which should also be acknowledged in programs intended for foster gifts and talents.” Throughout this list of “educational needs,” the emphasis is on the student not as an individual, but as a member of the educational community. The policy highlights, for example:

the need to be in an environment which recognizes membership in a range of groups including family, cultural groups, (where in some cases group membership is more important than individual performance), age peers, friendship and interest groups, the wider school community and society at large; and to be aware that each group functions according to its own set of values (South Australian Education Department, 1983).

This interpretation of the student’s needs rests on two assumptions: first, that the values held by the gifted child will be congruent with the values of the social and cultural group from which he originates; and second, that where his cultural group values social cohesion above individual advancement (as in some Australian aboriginal cultures), the child will be able to balance the contrary dictates of his own intellectual drives and the expectations of his cultural peers. Both assumptions spring from a failure to realize that the intellectually gifted differ from their age peers in their emotional and social development as much as in their intellectual and academic characteristics.

Social and Emotional Differences

It is now generally understood and accepted that a child’s level of social and emotional development is more highly correlated with his mental age than with his chronological age (Tannenbaum, 1983; Janos and Robinson, 1965). Bohm’s (1962) and Kohlberg’s (1964) studies of moral development found that intellectually gifted children were able to make complex moral judgments much earlier than their age-peers of average ability, while some highly gifted elementary school children functioned at an externally controlled level of moral development normally found in less than ten percent of adults.

The gifted student’s enhanced capacity for abstract reasoning, coupled with his frequently accelerated capacity to obtain and process information, lead him to become familiar with, and speculate on, ideas not normally encountered until a much later age. Hollingworth (1926) noted that highly gifted children often become deeply concerned with questions of origin and destiny at an age when children of average ability are still absorbed in much more egocentric concerns. Serious difficulties of communication can arise when the child attempts to share his interests with age-peers, or even with adults who may be threatened by his unusual preoccupation with moral or religious complexities.

Malcolm

Malcolm, [IQ 165] is five years old. One evening at tea he engaged his parents in a serious and analytical discussion as to what would happen to the universe if God “stopped existing.” “After all,” Malcolm contended, “when anything dies it goes back into the earth. When stars go supernova everything they’re made of goes back into the universe. So if God died, what He is made of would go back into the universe too.” Malcolm wanted to know whether scientists could predict the changes that God’s death would cause to life on earth.

The child who can frame a sophisticated and coherent argument such as this clearly has needs and expectations far removed from those of the average five-year-old. He needs companions, preferably of his own age and ability level, with whom he can enjoy not only the pleasure and relaxation of play but also the stimulation of high level intellectual speculation. He needs a warm and supportive home environment where his prodigious intellectual gifts are appreciated and where his urge to increase and develop his knowledge is understood and accepted as much as his childish desire for affection and approval. Especially he needs the support of adult friends and mentors who can appreciate that although his level of intellectual and moral development may permit him to speculate about matters such as the future of the universe, he is still a five-year-old child who may need comfort and reassurance when faced with the prospect of radical changes in his environment, even when it is his own philosophical musings which have prompted the vision of change! Especially he needs to be reassured that, although “different” he is accepted both in his peer culture and in society at large.

Much of the emotional trauma experienced by intellectually gifted young people arises from the conflicting psycho-social needs of intimacy and achievement. In the child or adolescent of average ability, these needs are compatible, indeed complementary. For the highly gifted, however, achievement of his or her remarkable potential may lead at best to peer disapproval or, in severe cases, to social ostracism. American high school students actively reject those of their peers who demonstrate high level academic or intellectual prowess without the ameliorating effect of sporting or athletic interests (Tannenbaum, 1962).

If we review the research on these two psychosocial drives, particularly as they are manifested in intellectually gifted students, we can understand more clearly the peculiar social and emotional dilemma of the highly able.

The Need for Achievement and Excellence

School-age children quickly become aware of the importance of achievement. Even for young students, schools stress the importance of success in the acquisition of knowledge, and children learn to measure their achievement against that of their peers. For the intellectually gifted student, the shift away from a self-referenced understanding of ability towards a norm-referenced analysis of one’s ability as performance measured against the attainment standards of one’s peers, happens even earlier than for his age-mate of average ability. There is ample evidence that much of the socialization of achievement related motives takes place early in childhood (Steinberg).
Is the drive towards excellence innate in the intellectually gifted child or is it developmentally determined? Whether we believe, with Renzulli (Renzulli, 1978) that the motivation to excel is an integral component of giftedness, or, with Gagne (Gagne, 1985) that it acts, at a later stage, as a catalyst in the emergence of talent, we must ask ourselves when and how the drive itself develops.

Francis Galton believed that the motivation to achieve is inborn. He wrote of the "inherent stimulus" and "labour-loving instinct" which are among "those qualities of intellect and disposition which urge and qualify a man to perform acts which lead to reputation" (Galton, 1869). All these qualities were seen, by Galton, as "natural ability."

Others maintain, however, that the motivation to excel is primarily the result of enriched home environment and training. Bloom's study of over 120 adults who achieved excellence in cognitive, artistic and athletic fields, identified three characteristics as critical to success: (a) an unusual willingness to undertake a remarkably high workload in order to achieve at a high level; (b) a determination to reach the highest standard of which one is capable; and (c) the ability to learn new techniques, ideas or processes in the talent field more rapidly than the average (Bloom, 1982).

It is notable that the first two characteristics are motivational. Significantly, Bloom claims that all three traits were considerably influenced by early socializing and training: indeed he states that the willingness to work was not strongly evident in his subjects until after the age of eight. It appeared to "manifest itself" after several years of instruction.

One might speculate whether, if the urge to achieve is positively influenced by socialization, it might equally be quashed by social pressures to reduce one's drive or productivity. If so, the gifted student who is subjected to intense and continual pressure to moderate his performance might eventually lose his motivation to succeed.

In his studies of young prodigies in natural science, musical composition, prose writing and chess, David Henry Feldman proposes that the attainment of excellence is the result of a confluence of a number of hereditary and environmental factors including the significant influence of personality (Feldman, 1981). He highlights the remarkably high levels of motivation displayed by the children in his study.

"Perhaps the most striking quality of the children in our study as well as other cases is the passion with which excellence is pursued" (Feldman, 1979). He claims, further, that the unusual "commitment, tenacity and joy in achievement" displayed by these children is the most visible sign that the required coincidence of social, environmental and personality factors has occurred.

Silverman (1983) also discusses the role of personality in the establishment of the drive towards achievement and proposes Dabrowski's "third factor" of personality development as a further explanation of how the urge towards excellence is developmental in nature rather than being an innate characteristic in the Galtonian sense.

Dabrowski (1967) posits that in the drive to self-actualization and self-perception the variables of heredity and environment are joined by a third "autonomous" factor which is directly concerned with the pursuit of excellence. This "third factor" is a "powerful internal force propelling development towards high levels of integrity, authenticity, creativity, ethical responsibility and compassion" (Silverman, 1983). It is an emotional commitment to strive to realize one's intellectual and emotional potential to the fullest.

Dabrowksi has developed his theory through a study of gifted or creative persons who have achieved eminence. However, unlike Galton, he sees the motivational drive not as innate, but as a developmental characteristic which evolves as the gifted individual progresses towards higher levels of human functioning. In Dabrowski's view, the pursuit of excellence is an off-shoot springing from the initial drive towards self-perfection.

It is important to note that, like Galton and like Renzulli who was influenced by MacKinnon's study of prominent architects (MacKinnon, 1964), Dabrowski developed his theory through a study of individuals who had already attained excellence. The subjects of Bloom and Feldman were adults or children who had substantially achieved their potential and whose gifts had received recognition. We must ask ourselves, however, how far the theories of these researchers apply to gifted youth whose potential is not achieved. What of those who "fall by the wayside?" Setting aside external considerations such as lack of scholastic or other environmental opportunity, can their lack of success be attributed simply to the nondevelopment of the drive for excellence? Or should we look further towards additional personal factors which may either inhibit or enhance the development of that drive?

Foster (1983) proposes that a necessary condition for the development of the drive to excel is a secure self-concept. In an individual whose self-concept is secure, the locus of evaluation of individual action is internal to the self. More importantly, in the context of this argument, "the standards of excellence in individual action are internal to the person in the form of their self-esteem and although the person is actively and accurately aware of the standards of performance held by the outside world he is most responsive to these internally held reference values" (Foster, 1983).

Such an individual, whose self-concept is secure, both stimulating and reinforcing his drive towards excellence, is less likely to be influenced by societal pressures to achieve only to group norms, or to conform to culturally determined standards of performance. Self-concept or self-esteem can then be viewed as facilitative factors in the realization of intellectual ability or potential (Feldhusen, 1986; Feldhusen & Hoover, 1986).

Self-concept, however, is in part derived from the view of himself which the child acquires through his interactions with the world around him, and particularly through his relationships with a limited number of significant others. For the child, particularly the gifted child who has been taught that academic attainment is to be especially valued, these may be his teachers and classmates as much as his family and friends.

The development of intimacy, a relationship of mutual support, concern and valuing, is, according to Foster, a necessary correlate of the development of a secure self-concept.

The Need for Intimacy

In the last decade, educators and psychologists have become increasingly aware of the influence of supportive intimate relationships on the attainment of human potential. Sears (1977), reviewing the life experience of the men in Terrn's sample, notes that these men's perceptions regarding whether their lives had been satisfactory or not were strongly related to the quality of intimate relationships they had enjoyed.

One of the measures of the supportiveness and intimacy of a relationship is the degree to which the significant
The importance of play as an aid to socialization is widely documented. A major difficulty for highly gifted children, however, is that their play interests often differ quite radically from those of their age-peers. Terman made a special study of the play of those children in the gifted group who scored above 170 IQ and found that they were much more solitary in their play than were children clustering around IQ 140 (Burks, Jensen and Terman, 1930). Gifted girls are much less interested in doll-play than are their peers of average intelligence. On being asked by Leta Hollingworth why she did not care to play with dolls, a seven year old girl [IQ 170] replied, “They aren’t real. The doll that is supposed to be a baby doll is twice as big as the one that is made like a mother doll.” (Hollingworth, 1931). This rejection of doll-play can be a very real hindrance to socialization, as for young girls role-play with dolls plays a major part in establishing and setting the parameters of relationships. For the gifted child, however, the search for logic and structure may supersed the desire for social intercourse.

Generally the play interests of the gifted center on games of intellectual skill, while those of the average child involve predominantly simple sensory-motor activity. Hollingworth (1931) reports the mother of a highly gifted six year old saying, “He can never be satisfied just to toss a ball around.” The gifted child prefers “competitive” play, where ideas and strategies are matched against each other (Terman, 1926; Witt and Lehman, 1927; Hollingworth, 1931), whereas the average child prefers games where such rules as exist are clearly defined and closely adhered to. This can cause conflict when the highly able child, who may see the rules as arbitrary or irrelevant of the rules, seeks to overturn them, either to improve the game or simply for the intellectual stimulation of the ensuing argument!

Because of these factors, the play of the highly intelligent tends to be an uneasy compromise between their own interests and abilities and their desire to be accepted into a social group. Children who are less willing or less able to make such a compromise often become “loners,” preferring to invent solitary intellectual games which often center on fantasy and imagined adventure. A significant number of intellectually gifted children create imaginary playmates or imaginary countries, in an attempt to satisfy their need for companionship or social interaction at their own level and within their own interests (Terman, 1926; Hollingworth, 1926).

Thus even play, which for the average child is one of the most important aids to socialization, serves to underscore the differences between the gifted child and his age-mates, rather than acting as a link between them.

It is clear that gifted children have the need for the companionship of intellectually peers, and are to some degree at least aware of this need. However, age peers of the intellectually gifted, especially in childhood, are often confused by the gifted child because it is difficult for them to identify with his superior cognitive abilities. The average child often downplays the superiority of the gifted by providing false feedback about the true extent of his gifts and talents. If this false feedback is accepted and internalized by the gifted child, he may develop a self-concept based on underrating himself, his abilities and his value to society. Particularly in a society such as Australia, where the highly egalitarian social ethos is based, in large part, on “cutting down the tall poppies” (Ward, 1958; Goldberg, 1961; Start, 1986) there is a very real danger that the gifted student will receive deliberately misleading information about his abilities and potential not only from classmates but also from teachers.

Conflict and Underachievement

I t can be seen that unless the gifted child is provided with a peer group of companions of like intellectual ability, a vicious circle of misinformation and self criticism may arise. As we have discussed, the attainment of intimacy is a necessary correlate for the sustenance of the drive to self perfection. Through intimate relationships, the gifted child obtains honest and accurate feedback about his performance and his effect on others. Where this open and nonjudgmental feedback is available, the child will develop a secure and healthy self-concept. Where feedback is falsified and invalidated through envy or lack of understanding, or because the teacher prefers to conceal from the gifted child the true extent of his advancement, the gifted receive a negative and unrealistic view of themselves and their potential. This extremely diminished view of potential may result in poor self-esteem and low self-concept. As Foster has shown, a healthy self-concept is necessary for the establishment and maintenance of the drive towards excellence.

Thus the gifted child may come to believe that his gifts are ephemeral or of limited value. Since his strengths are undervalued by his peers, he may come to seek peer approval by seeking to

References

[Hubbard, 1929]
develop the skills and attributes which are valued. This may involve seeking peer approval by becoming the class clown, gaining leadership status in a group of disaffected students of much lower intellectual capacity, or developing a sporting talent at the expense of his academic ability.

Empirical studies which have investigated underachievement among gifted youth have uncovered some alarming statistics. An English study by Pointer (1976) of 160 children of IQ 123 - 212 found that when the children’s classroom performance was compared with their scores on standardized attainment tests of Math and English, over 60% of the students were working, in class, at a level more than four years below their tested achievement. Certainly much classroom underachievement can be attributed to an undemanding school curriculum which requires lock-step progression by chronological age rather than by academic or intellectual aptitude. However, there is no doubt that many gifted students underachieve quite deliberately in an attempt to win social acceptance by their classmates and teachers.

This, then, may be the central psychosocial dilemma of gifted youth. If the gifted child is to satisfy his drive for excellence, he must risk sacrificing the attainment of intimacy with his age peers. If the pursuit of intimacy is his primary need, he must moderate his standards of achievement, conceal, to some extent at least, his intellectual interests, and conform to a value system that may be seriously at variance with his own level of moral development, to retain the approval of the group into which he wishes to be accepted. It is this dilemma that is left unaddressed by the generalized and simplistic social assumptions of the South Australian policy on "fostering gifts and talents."

Because of the unusual qualities of perceptiveness and sensitivity which characterize intellectually gifted youth, many children who choose to sacrifice achievement for intimacy are remarkably successful in concealing their abilities. For some years Tom, a student in a South Australian elementary school, employed two quite distinct and separate vocabularies to avoid detection by his peers. His "normal" vocabulary, as he termed it, which he used with his family and close adult friends, was even at six years old, that of an informed and articulate adult. His alternative vocabulary, which he employed quite deliberately as a camouflage structure, was reserved for use at school with his teachers and age-peers; it was designed to conceal, from people whom he did not trust, his shameful secret of having the mentality, interests and speech of a child twice his age. Tom's secret was only discovered when his level of intellectual frustration reached the point at which he began to employ quite severe physical violence against his classmates. The school psychologist who was brought in to test him prior to referring him for psychiatric evaluation, found that he has an IQ in excess of 170.

In a child such as this, the motivation to achieve has turned inwards and has become a motivation to succeed in a complex matrix of social deception.

The quotations which began this paper express the concerns of leading educators in the United States and Australia that schools are abrogating their responsibilities towards the intellectual and academic welfare of their students in favor of an increasingly dominant role in the socialization of children. Yet the lack of awareness and interest, even among educators of the gifted, in the social and emotional needs of this already disadvantaged group of children, suggests that the gifted are still seen as students who will achieve academic and social success on the strength of their intellectual gifts alone.

To the contrary, the gifted must be one of the few remaining groups in our society who are compelled, by the constraints of the educative and social system within which they operate, to choose which of two basic psychosocial needs should be fulfilled. Often neither need is satisfied. Research reports over the past thirty years on the number of intellectually gifted students who drop out of high school (Van Dyke and Hoyt, 1950; French, 1959; Marland, 1972) should have alerted us to the fact that a significant proportion of our most gifted youth are experiencing neither the euphoria of achievement nor the supportive warmth of intimacy in the present school climate. Is it any wonder that they leave, to seek it elsewhere?

In both the United States and Australia enlightened school systems are beginning to experiment with various student groupings to assist the gifted to establish peer relationships with other children who share their abilities and interests. In the United States, special schools for the gifted such as the Hunter Elementary School and the Juilliard School of Music in New York have long provided opportunities for highly gifted students to work and socialize together with other children of exceptional potential. In Australia structured opportunities for peer interaction are much more limited, but a number of fine programs such as the acceleration program at University High School, Melbourne, and the full time self-contained gifted classes in Northern Territory do exist and flourish, despite active opposition from politicians and the militant teachers' industrial unions. To answer and defuse hostility and opposition, we need much more empirical research on the effects of peer grouping on the social and emotional development of the gifted in homogeneously grouped and ungrouped settings. But first, educators and psychologists working in gifted education have to be convinced of the desirability of such research.

In a comprehensive review of research on the psychosocial development of the intellectually gifted, James and Robinson (1985) indicate that research findings regarding favorable personal and social adjustment emanate from studies of moderately rather than extremely gifted children. James and Robinson claim that although the special problems of the extremely gifted demand urgent investigation, "the research devoted to exploring them pales in comparison with that devoted to virtually any other maladaptive set of behaviors."

Let us close with the words of James, aged 12, on completing the probationary period which the South Australian Association for Gifted and Talented Children (SAAGTC) requires students to undertake before final acceptance into its student programs. James, who is highly gifted but a chronic underachiever at school, had attended a series of Math and Science classes pitched at the 15 - 16 year old level, and had performed exceptionally. One of the SAAGTC Committee asked him whether he would like to continue attending the classes.

James was visibly moved. "Saturday Club is the best thing that's ever happened to me," he said. "The kids are so friendly. Nobody here thinks I'm dumb and weird."

Then he added, "You know, when I'm here I don't think I'm dumb and weird either."

REFERENCES


Welcome!

You are about to start a Professional Development Course which will help you identify the gifted and talented students in your class or your school, and differentiate the curriculum to respond to their individual learning needs. You'll also be able to decide which of your students may benefit from various forms of ability or interest grouping and which may possibly be candidates for one or more of the many forms of academic acceleration.

About the Package

The course consists of six Modules

Each Module consists of three levels: Core, Extension and Specialisation. The Core levels of the six Modules are the heart of this course. The Core Modules contain essential information and practical advice and strategies to assist you to identify and respond to your gifted and talented students.

We strongly suggest that you complete the Core level of each Module.

Pre-tests

We are aware that teachers and school administrators will enter this course with a wide range of existing knowledge of gifted and talented education. To accommodate this range of knowledge and experience, we have started each Core Module, from Module 2 onwards, with a pre-test. We encourage you to take these pre-tests and, if you ‘test out’ on any Module at Core level, simply move on to the next Module. For example, if you ‘test out’ of Core Module 2 you will pass over that Module and move on to Core Module 3.

Extension and Specialisation Levels

Extension and Specialisation levels for each Module. Material covered in the Extension and Specialisation levels builds on the knowledge you will have gained from the Core level in each Module. Key issues are examined in greater depth and participants explore a wider range of issues in the cognitive and social-emotional development of gifted students. New identification, curriculum differentiation and program development techniques are introduced.

The Extension and Specialisation levels require teachers, counsellors and administrators to undertake further reading and practical activities to reflect on classroom practice, school practice and policy. They encourage participants to focus on their specific role in the school and prepare a brief action plan to demonstrate application or mastery of outcomes.

Schools may decide that completion of the course at Specialisation level would be a useful prerequisite for becoming the school's Gifted Education Coordinator.
What will you learn in this course?

The course consists of six Modules:

**Module One: Understanding Giftedness**

Understanding the nature of giftedness and talent; what the terms mean; levels and types of giftedness. Cognitive and affective characteristics of gifted and talented students; ways in which these students may differ from their classmates - even if at first we don’t observe this.

**Module Two: The Identification of Gifted Students**

A range of practical identification procedures, with particular attention to procedures which are effective in identifying gifted students from culturally diverse and disadvantaged groups. We’ll be emphasising the use of a combination of approaches rather than a single measure such as IQ testing or teacher nomination used in isolation.

**Module Three: Social and Emotional Development of Gifted Students**

Understanding the social and emotional characteristics and needs of gifted students. Ways in which gifted students may differ somewhat from their classmates in their social and emotional development. Supporting gifted students and their parents. Teaching strategies and class structures which foster the development of positive social attitudes and supportive peer relationships in gifted students.

**Module Four: Understanding Underachievement in Gifted Students**

Understanding the causes of underachievement in gifted students. Identifying gifted underachievers and planning interventions designed to prevent and reverse cycles of underachievement.

**Module Five: Curriculum Differentiation for Gifted Students**

Teaching strategies and methods of curriculum differentiation which enhance the learning of gifted students in the regular classroom. Appropriate use of different enrichment models that international research has found to be effective with gifted and talented students. Practical applications of pre-testing, curriculum compacting and individualised programming.

**Module Six: Developing Programs and Provisions for Gifted Students**

Practical strategies for the establishment and monitoring of ability, achievement or interest grouping, and the many forms of accelerated progression. Particular attention will be paid to the effects of various strategies on students’ academic and social development.
Using the package

Much of the material is suitable across teaching and learning contexts. This content is not specifically marked. However, content that may be applicable to your particular context is identified as follows:

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Follow these symbols through the content to customise your learning path.

Each Module comes in two parts, each concluding with a practical exercise. We suggest that you complete the first and second parts a few days apart - unless this is not workable in your particular learning context. This will give you a chance to digest the information in Part 1 and work through the Reflective/Practical component.
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Welcome to the third Module in this Professional Development Course.
(1) At what age do students generally begin to make social comparisons?
   (a) 5  (b) 7  (c) 9  (d) 11  (e) 13

(2) The ‘forced-choice dilemma’ is a conflict between:
   (a) identity and intimacy
   (b) achievement and empathy
   (c) intimacy and achievement
   (d) identity and achievement

(3) If a student has an ego-involved motivational orientation what is likely to be her main source of pleasure in learning?

(4) Why may some gifted students be wrongly diagnosed as having ADD (Attention Deficit Disorder) or ADHD (Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder)?
Pre-Test Answers

(1) b

(2) c

(3) She is likely to be mainly focussed on being recognised as being brighter or more successful than the other students.

(4) They may be exhibiting psychomotor overexcitabilities.

If you were not correct in your answers to these four questions you should benefit from at least some of the information that follows in this Module.

If your answers to all four questions were correct you may not need to complete this Module, though we advise that you still skim-read it to check whether it offers you anything new.

The Extension level Module provides further information for you to consider on these and other issues in the socio-affective development of gifted and talented students.

Outcomes

At the completion of this Module you will be able to:

- recognise ways in which intellectually gifted children differ from their age-peers in their affective development.
- identify behaviours which may suggest that bright students are masking their abilities for peer acceptance.
- recognise ‘over-excitabilities’ which may be indicative of high abilities.
Some affective characteristics of intellectually gifted adolescents

In Module 1, we briefly reviewed some of the affective (social and emotional) characteristics of gifted and talented adolescents. Let's call some of these to mind.

- Emotional intensity. Gifted young people tend to experience emotional reactions at a deeper level than their age-peers.
- An unusual ability to empathise with the feelings of other children or adults.
- An unusually well-developed sense of justice and fairness. They may become angered and upset by examples of injustice or unfairness in the school or in society.
- Many gifted students enjoy books written for students some years older. They can find it quite frustrating when their classmates have little interest in novels or series which they find exciting and rewarding.
- Gifted students often prefer the companionship of older students. Their advanced intellectual development, their reading interests and their relative emotional maturity may lead them to seek out, as friends, students who are similar developmental stages.
- Gifted students may develop a strong attachment to one of two close friends rather than more casual relationships with a large group.
- Many academically gifted students feel pressured to moderate their achievements for peer acceptance
- Many gifted students have an unusually mature sense of humour.

Emotional maturity

Teachers generally accept that academically gifted students are more mature, in their cognitive development, than the majority of their classmates. However, they often expect that the social and emotional development of academically gifted students will be on a par with their age-peers - and this is not necessarily the case.

The intellectual and emotional development of most students is appropriate to their chronological age. However, children who differ significantly from their age-peers in terms of their intellectual development also differ somewhat in their emotional maturity.

As briefly outlined in Module 1, students whose capacity to learn is developmentally delayed tend also to be somewhat less mature, socially and emotionally, than their classmates of average ability. Social-emotional development tends to be rather more closely linked to intellectual development than to chronological age.
In the same way, students who are more developmentally advanced in their capacity to learn than their age-peers - academically gifted students - also tend to be somewhat more mature, emotionally and socially, than their classmates.

However, for a range of reasons which we'll explore in this Module, this advancement may not be readily visible. Some gifted students learn, surprisingly early in their school careers, that to display abilities and opinions that are different from those of the majority of their classmates can lead to mockery or even ostracism.

How early can this begin?

It is important to understand how early the process of ‘dumbing down’ for peer acceptance can start - and therefore for how many years some gifted students may have been doing this before you encounter them!

**The onset of social comparisons**

People make social comparisons as a process of self-evaluation. Comparing our progress against that of peers gives us evaluative feedback on our own performance. In general, we choose to compare ourselves to people whose ability or experience roughly approximates our own (Festinger, 1954). The weekend golfer doesn’t measure himself against the club professional. The club pro doesn’t measure himself against Tiger Woods.

In general, young children don’t make social comparisons. In the pre-school years and the early years of school, they tend to be rather ‘self’-centred. So when a young child wants to evaluate her progress she compares what she can do today with what she could do earlier, and assesses how much she has improved.

‘I can do 6 hops without having to put my foot down,’ thinks Jenny. ‘Last time I tried I could only do 4!’ Her reference point is her own previous experience. She’s not particularly interested in what other kids can do.

However, as she gets a bit older she becomes aware of ways in which she resembles and differs from other children. She starts to norm-reference - making social comparisons of her own progress in terms of what the other kids can do. She may discover she’s not as physically adept as she had thought, or she may find that only a few of her age-peers match her abilities.
Children generally move from self-referencing to norm-referencing at around age 7, but this is linked to the individual child’s capacity to make evaluative comparisons. Some children take quite a bit longer to reach this stage. Intellectually gifted children tend to reach it earlier. Many gifted young children are norm-referencing before they enter school.

As discussed in Module 1, it’s not unusual for gifted children to enter school already reading, writing and counting. The gifted child who is norm-referencing may become aware within the first few days that the other children have not yet developed these skills. Unless the teacher becomes aware of the gifted child’s advancement and shows pleasure in it, the child may become acutely aware that she is different, and may moderate or even stop the behaviour that is setting her apart from her classmates.

An Australian study of 60 children who entered school already reading found that more than 40 of them significantly moderated their reading performance, or deliberately stopped reading in class, within two weeks (Gross, 2004). The children who continued to read were those whose teachers accepted and facilitated it.

It is important that we recognise how disturbingly early gifted students can begin to mask their abilities for peer acceptance.

**The forced-choice dilemma**

Research on child and adolescent development has identified five main sets of social-emotional concerns that affect our lives as we progress from childhood to adulthood. They are identity, autonomy, intimacy, sexuality and achievement (Steinberg, 1985). These concerns first emerge in the early years of primary school and intensity in the later primary years and the years of adolescence.

- **Identity.** The development of a sense of personal identity involves changes in the way young people perceive themselves. In the primary school years they have already become aware of ways in which they are similar to and different from their classmates. As adolescents they begin to question who they really are and where they are going. The quest for identity is not only a search for a personal sense of self, but for affirmation from peers and others that they are accepted and valued members both of their social group and of society as a whole.

- **Autonomy.** This refers to the process of establishing oneself as an independent, self-determining individual. The adolescent learns to become less emotionally dependent on parents, make individual decisions independent of family or friends, and establish a personal code of values and morals.

- **Intimacy.** In middle childhood friendships tend to be based primarily on the sharing of activities (games, sport) or interests (hobbies, TV programs). Intimacy - the sharing
of feelings, fears, hopes and dreams - is based on the development of more mature relationships based on trust, openness and similarities of values. Gifted children tend to have conceptions of friendship which are more like those of older children.

- **Sexuality.** The initiation of sexual activity generally takes place during the adolescent years but the issues of sexuality go far beyond the physical involvement. Becoming sexual not only transforms the relationships between adolescents and their peers, but raises, for them, many questions about their sexual identity, values and morals.

- **Achievement.** Young people’s attitudes towards their own achievement, and that of their peers, depend on how they have been taught to value, or devalue, their own abilities and aptitudes. Their attitudes are also formed by the feedback they receive from families, teachers and friends about what abilities are more socially acceptable and should be cultivated, and which are less acceptable and should be moderated or avoided. This feedback can be conflicting, as can the advice young people receive from adults and age-peers regarding appropriate careers and directions.

These five concerns interact and exert considerable influence on each other.

The gradual shift away from dependence on parents in forming judgements is closely linked to the development of a sense of personal identity.

The feedback students receive from teachers and peers about the value, or lack of value, of their academic gifts or strengths may influence how they perceive their membership in the school and wider community.

The degree to which students have learned to value the right to hold opinions which run counter to those of the peer culture may significantly influence their opportunities to develop relationships of intimacy in a teenage culture in which conformity is an important measure of acceptability.

The pressure on adolescents to become sexually active may conflict with their need to develop an autonomous set of moral and ethical values.

Academically gifted students may be faced with a ‘forced-choice dilemma’ if their desire to excel in their area of talent conflicts with their need to be accepted by the peer culture (Gross, 1989).

If the gifted student wants to satisfy her drive for achievement, and perform at the level of which she knows she is capable, she may risk sacrificing the attainment of intimacy with age-peers who may be disconcerted by her abilities or even resentful of them.

If the pursuit of intimacy is her primary need, she may have to moderate her standards of achievement, conceal, to some extent at least, her intellectual interests, and conform to a value system that may be seriously at variance with her own levels of social-emotional maturity.
Researchers studying the social and emotional development of gifted adolescents believe that the uneasy tension between the two normally complementary drives of intimacy and achievement may be the central social-emotional dilemma for academically gifted children and adolescents.

Many gifted young people respond to this forced-choice dilemma by retreating behind a mask of social conformity. In the Extension level of this Module we will explore the camouflage behaviours these students may use.

Miraca Gross’s article, ‘The pursuit of excellence or the search for intimacy: The forced-choice dilemma of gifted youth’, which comes as a resource paper with this Module, explores these issues further.

Which gifts are easier to camouflage?

Dauber and Benbow (1990) compared the popularity and peer acceptance of secondary school students who were gifted either in maths or in English. Verbally gifted students were rated as having much lower social standing than their mathematically gifted classmates.

The researchers suggested two possible reasons for this. Firstly, talent in maths may be more socially valued than talent in English. Secondly, high levels of maths ability may not be immediately obvious on social occasions; however, students who are talented verbally may be conspicuous due to their sophisticated vocabulary. Their difference is much more visible.

In addition, students who want to mask high maths ability for peer acceptance may only need to moderate their achievements in the maths class. Students who want to conceal talent in language have to be much more consistently on guard against ‘breaking cover’.

Gifted students in rural areas

The forced-choice dilemma can be particularly acute for gifted adolescents in rural areas. The more students there are at a particular grade level, the more chance a gifted student has of finding an ability peer in his or her particular talent field. If a school is large enough some level of ability grouping is possible. A year level may develop a top class in maths, science or English, for example, or the teachers may decide to cluster students with high ability in a specific subject area in one particular class. (This is called ‘cluster grouping’ and we look at it in Module 6: Developing Programs and Provisions for Gifted Students.)

However, if you are the only person in your class who is capable of working at a level two or more years beyond your age, what do you do? If you want to work at your level, do you have to work alone? If you want to work with other students do you have to work at a level you have already passed through? And where do you find friends who share your interests if no one in your school has that particular passion? How do you avoid looking (and possibly feeling) ‘weird’? The temptation to sacrifice achievement for intimacy can be almost overwhelming.
In Module 5: **Curriculum Differentiation for Gifted Students** we will look at ways of differentiating the curriculum so that it becomes more responsive to individual differences in learning, but we still have to be sensitive to the social factor. How do we as teachers respond to the gifted student whose interests and emotional development are more like someone older?

Some gifted students are excellent candidates for **acceleration**. In Module 6 we’ll discuss some of the forms of acceleration which allow students who are academically advanced and emotionally mature for their age, to work either full time, or for specific subjects, with an older grade. Acceleration has a wealth of research to support it (Rogers, 2002).

The New South Wales Board of Studies offers Distinction Courses in cosmology, philosophy and comparative literature for gifted students in the upper grades who have already taken at least one subject at Higher School Certificate level. These courses, which are run through distance education, supplemented by several weekend camps, are ideal for students in rural or geographically isolated situations. A number of Australian universities have flexible pathways which will allow students to take secondary and tertiary courses concurrently. (www.boardofstudies.nsw.edu.au)

**Mentoring** can be a useful option, too. An older student or an adult who is knowledgeable about the gifted student’s area of talent or interest can work with the student over a period of time. Email mentoring can greatly assist students who are disadvantaged by distance, and we discuss this in Module 6.
A gifted student in a younger grade of secondary school could be mentored by an older student with knowledge and interest in his talent area. This can benefit both students and can sometimes lead to lasting friendship.

The Gagné model illustrates how important it is that gifted and talented students are encouraged to accept and value their gifts. As we discussed in Module 1, teachers sometimes confuse conceit, which we certainly want students to avoid, with a healthy pride in one’s abilities which is an essential constituent of self-esteem.

If students feel that their abilities set them apart from their age-peers, they are unlikely to want to develop their gifts into talents.

Gifted students may need our help and support to resolve the forced-choice dilemma, so that they no longer feel they have to choose between talent development and social acceptance.
Reflective/Practical Component

When peer acceptance seems to depend on being like the others rather than different, students may change their behaviours to mask their difference. Did you modify or moderate your behaviour at school to ‘be like’ the others? What did you do and why?

Did any of your teachers work out what you were doing? If they had, how would you have liked them to respond to this?

Can you think of any students in your class who could be engaging in similar masking behaviours? How might you respond?

How might bright or gifted students in your school mask their behaviour to be accepted and why might they feel this is necessary? Discuss students whom you think may be ‘dumbing down’ for peer acceptance. Is this ‘masking’ behaviour consistent across subjects? If so, is this related to what you found in your discussions after Module 1 about which subjects are regarded as ‘cool’ and not so cool by your students?

In Module 1, you examined your school's or community's attitude towards gifts or talents and how this varied depending on the talent area.

List five students who displayed talent in several areas in their first year in your school but whom you now suspect may be ‘dumbing down’ for peer acceptance. For each student, through talking with your staff, try to assess whether the ‘masking’ behaviour is consistent across subjects or whether the student is still displaying talent in some subjects but not others. Could this be related to whether subjects are regarded as ‘cool’ or not so cool by your student body?
Gagné’s model shows clearly the influence of intrapersonal catalysts - aspects of the student’s social and emotional development - in facilitating or impeding the translation of giftedness into talent. Let’s look at some aspects of socio-affective development and their possible relationships to student achievement.

**Self-concept and self-esteem**

Self-concept has been succinctly defined as the collection of ideas that one has about oneself (Neihart, 1999). It is an important constituent of personality and it can certainly influence students’ attitudes and behaviours but its influence may have been exaggerated over the last few years. Nicholas Colangelo, a leading expert on counselling gifted students, comments wryly that almost everything ‘good’ in school life has been linked by pop psychologists to a positive self-concept and almost everything that sets students at any sort of risk has been linked to a negative self-concept (Colangelo, 2003). Yet it’s not as simple as that.

Firstly, self-concept is multi-faceted. A student may have a high academic self-concept, a low social self-concept, an average self-concept on issues bearing on family relationships and a very high physical self-concept. (And these are only some of the facets.) In addition, one can have a high academic self-concept in maths and a lower verbal self-concept. So what is a ‘positive’ or ‘negative’ self-concept?

Secondly, research has shown that students with relatively low academic self-concepts can achieve outstanding success in school while students with high academic self-concepts can perform quite poorly. Equally, students with high social self-concepts can engage in socially destructive behaviour. Self-concept is one’s view of oneself - it may not accurately reflect reality!

Self-esteem is the affective element of self-concept; how the student feels about her academic achievement, social acceptability, family relationships or perhaps physical attractiveness.

A mathematically gifted student may have a positive academic self-concept but lower academic self-esteem if peer pressure has caused her to undervalue her talent.

By contrast, a student of average ability who is achieving at levels commensurate with her ability and has learned to feel good about this may have modest academic self-concept but high academic self-esteem.

**Self-esteem and ability grouping**

Australian educators are traditionally wary of placing gifted students in ability grouped settings, believing that grouping provides little academic advantage and may even damage the gifted students’ self-esteem. However, research provides a very different picture. As we will discuss in Module 6: *Developing Programs and Provisions for Gifted Students*, gifted students who enter ability-grouped settings tend to perform substantially better on later measures of school achievement (measures of ‘value added’) than do equally bright students in mixed-ability classes.
Some studies have found no difference or little difference in the self-concept or self-esteem of academically gifted students and students of average ability while others have found differences favouring gifted students.

What happens to the self-esteem of students who are ability grouped? Some studies have found no effect of grouping on self-esteem or self-concept. Others have found that the academic self-esteem of gifted students takes a slight dip on entry to ability grouped programs - although long-term studies suggest that this is usually temporary.

One large scale Australian study of 1500 New South Wales students moving from primary to secondary school found a dip in academic self-esteem over the first few months of high school. However, the academic self-esteem of students entering Selective High Schools for gifted students remained higher than that of their age-peers entering comprehensive high schools and their social self-esteem was likewise higher (Gross, 1997).

You may like to look further at issues of self-esteem and grouping in the Extension and Specialisation levels of this Module.

**Motivation**

Most gifted students **love** learning. They get enormous pleasure out of gaining more and more knowledge and acquiring higher and higher levels of skill. Remember the little boy in Module 1 whose father described him as having a **rage** to learn?

In the early childhood years most children are intrinsically motivated to learn. The urge to learn comes from within them. They enjoy learning simply for learning's sake.

However, as children move through school, things become a little more complex. Some children remain intrinsically motivated. For others, motivation gradually becomes more extrinsic - powered by factors other than the pure desire to increase skills and knowledge.

**Mastery goals and task involvement**

Children who want to learn for learning's sake tend to have a pretty realistic attitude to learning. They recognise that sometimes learning doesn’t come easily; you have to practise and work at what you are doing if you want to improve. In general, students who adopt mastery goals focus on mastering the work and improving their performance.

Gifted students with a mastery orientation prefer tasks that are challenging and require them to strive for success, and they tend to use more effective learning strategies (Dweck, 1986). They are not concerned with being best in the class - if that happens, it happens, and it’s probably quite nice, but it’s not their primary goal in learning.

Psychologist John Nicholls (1983) described students with a mastery orientation as 'task involved'.
Performance goals and ego-involvement

Other students may be powered by performance goals. For these students, doing well, and being recognised and praised for it, are more important than increasing their skills or knowledge. They tend to measure their ability by whether or not they succeed at a task rather than by the strategies they use to achieve success.

Gifted students with a performance orientation may prefer tasks that they can succeed at without too much effort, rather than tasks which demand an increase in knowledge or skill.

Nicholls described students with a performance orientation as ‘ego-involved’. He noted that these students’ focus tends to be less on mastering the work and more on a desire to look smart or avoid looking stupid.

Research suggests that, certainly in the early years of school, most gifted students are task involved. We’ll explore this further later in this Module.

As mentioned earlier, some studies of gifted students entering ability grouped programs note a slight dip in academic self-esteem. Miraca Gross’s 1997 study of students entering selective and comprehensive high schools found that the few gifted students (fewer than 5%) who experienced a more serious drop in self-esteem were strongly ego-involved. These students were not able to focus on, and enjoy, the more challenging work of the selective high school; their focus was on the fact that they were no longer the brightest student in the class.

Retaining Task Involvement

Students are more likely to retain a love of learning if they are allowed to learn. Joyce VanTassel-Baska (1992) defines learning as progressing to a level of knowledge or skill development that is higher than one’s present level.

Dan, aged 11, loved learning and had enjoyed most of his schooling, but he found little to excite him in his final year of primary school. He was talented in a range of school subjects but his main passion was maths. He found the last few months of the year intensely frustrating because his teacher revised the maths work of that year and even the previous year to the point that Dan began to switch off and long for the day to end.

Dan knew that the teacher was consolidating his students’ knowledge in preparation for entry to secondary school the next year, but he resented having to sit through work he had mastered at least two years before. He was longing for the new work and intellectual challenge of high school.

The first year of secondary school came as a rude shock. Mr Peters, his maths teacher, spent the first term revising much of the work covered in the last year of primary. Dan realised why - some of the kids simply didn’t know it - but he resented that he had to cover it with them.

Where was the challenge he’d been longing for?

Indeed, the teachers of quite a number of subjects seemed to spend (in Dan’s opinion) an unnecessary length of time revising the previous year’s work. And to put the lid on it, he found that the school library had
a policy of restricting many of the most interesting books - books at his level of reading interest - to senior students. He felt he was in limbo; he had reached what should be a new and exciting level of schooling but he was still not permitted to learn.

What Dan’s new school was effectively doing was halting his learning. By being placed back at a stage he had already passed through, Dan was not being allowed to progress to a level of maths and reading skill beyond what he had already attained.

Dan had been strongly task-involved. He loved encountering, and mastering, new concepts in maths, English and HSIE. Now he was placed in a situation where there was nothing new to strive for. When his teachers praised his swift and accurate maths work Dan felt that the praise was not really for his mastery of the work; after all, he had mastered it the previous year. Gradually, over the year, he lost interest.

Linda Silverman (1993) points out that at times when ‘outcomes-based’ education is in vogue it would be very easy for educators to create a performance goal classroom environment where success is measured by achieving goals rather than by the skill or effort through which the goals are achieved.

Certainly it is essential for teachers in the first year of secondary to ensure that the students have mastery of the key learning covered in the primary curriculum. However, as discussed in Module 2, pre-testing will allow teachers to see which students have already mastered the work - and students who have attained mastery should be allowed to move on.

**Perseverance**

Gagné emphasises that perseverance - learning to stick with a task until one has mastered it - is essential if high abilities are to be translated into high achievement. But perseverance may have to be learned. When students are presented only with work which they can do effortlessly, they may never develop skills of time-management, persistence or striving for success.

Gifted students moving from lower to middle or upper primary, or primary to secondary, may have problems with time management when they are required to work on a longer-term task such as a research project. They may have been accustomed to doing things quickly and well. Some may be accustomed to being praised for their speed, as well as quality, of work and may associate speed with quality. These students may need support in understanding that the time spent in gathering data for a project is not time lost but time invested in ensuring a quality product.

**Strategies which may help time management**

- Assist the student to break down the project or assignment into stages or smaller parts. Academically gifted students usually have strong analytical skills and will be able to see how the elements of the project hang together.

- Assist the student to develop a checklist of tasks to be completed within each stage of the project.
• Work with the student to develop time estimates for each stage.

• Assist the student to create a list of resources he or she may need for the project. Factor the search for, or development of, these resources into the project timeline.

If you already use these strategies with students, you’ll have found that they work well. But do you use them with your academically gifted students? Unfortunately, some teachers assume that gifted students will get by without special assistance. And some don’t, especially when tasks become more detailed or complex.

Here is one further suggestion which is more specifically related to gifted and talented students.

Gifted students who are mocked or rejected by their classmates may sometimes be reluctant to ask for help. Set up a private way for the student to ask for help without having to raise her hand.

Can gifted adolescents be ‘over-exciteable’?  
We have talked earlier about the emotional intensity of some gifted students - their tendency to experience emotions at a deeper and more immediate level than their age-peers. This is often coupled with an enhanced capacity to empathise with other people’s feelings - to share the joys and sorrows of their friends more intensely than most other students of their age.

A third characteristic which we have not addressed yet is a tendency towards physical restlessness. These three characteristics, and others, are often misinterpreted by teachers as a sign of emotional immaturity

However, the research of a Polish psychiatrist, Kazimierz Dabrowski, offers another explanation. Dabrowski noted that intellectually gifted adults and young people tend to have a heightened awareness of their environment and a heightened capacity to respond to various intellectual, emotional or even physical stimuli.

Dabrowski calls this tendency ‘overexcitability’. This term is not used in any derogatory sense; it is a translation of a Polish word which means ‘super-stimulatability’, and it carries positive connotations, such as an insatiable love of learning, the capacity to care intensely for people and ideas, boundless energy, and a vivid imagination.

An excellent description of Dabrowski’s ‘overexcitabilities’ can be found in Linda Silverman’s book Counselling the Gifted and Talented (Silverman, 1993).

Dabrowski identifies five ‘overexcitabilities’: intellectual, emotional, imaginational, sensual and psychomotor.
**Intellectual overexcitability**

Students who demonstrate high levels of intellectual overexcitability (OE) tend to be academically gifted (Silverman, 1993). Dan, whom you met in the previous section, had many intellectual OE characteristics.

- A passionate love of learning.
- An enhanced capacity for analytical thinking. Dan liked analysing patterns in the plots of plays and novels. In Year 9 he chose as a personal project, a study of ‘miscommunication’ in the novels of John Marsden.
- Meta-analysis. An enjoyment of thinking about thinking.
- Sustained intellectual effort and a much longer attention span than age-peers. Some gifted students will work for weeks on a task or project until they are happy with the result. They may resent it if a teacher or parent tries to draw them away from the task before they have completed it to their satisfaction.
- Intense curiosity and an unwillingness to be satisfied with simplistic or incomplete answers. Some teachers may find this sort of insistence threatening, misinterpreting the student’s passion for detail and completeness as a challenge to their authority, while the gifted student’s classmates may find her insistence on seemingly obscure points quite incomprehensible.

**Emotional overexcitability**

This is characterised by the capacity for emotional depth; students with OEs feel emotions more acutely. ‘Nearly everything matters and it matters that it matters’ (Kline & Meckstroth, 1985, p. 25).

- Students with emotional OE may display the unusual sensitivity to the feelings of other students or adults that we have described earlier, but even more intensely. On her first visit to her grandparents in the retirement village they had moved into, Sonya noticed an old lady who never seemed to have any visitors. Her grandmother commented that it was the woman’s own fault as she was extremely rude and ill-tempered. Over the next few months Sonya regularly visited the old lady, gradually gaining her trust, and found that she was rude and short tempered because she was envious of the other residents who had friends and family to visit them.
- They may develop a strong attachment to other people. Gifted students who have been socially isolated and then find a friend can become deeply attached to the friend.
- They may not easily forgive themselves if they have hurt someone’s feelings.
- They can be extremely self-critical, worrying over small faults.
- They may become particularly fond of places, as well as people. When her family moved to another town Shifra went quietly from room to room saying goodbye to her old house. ‘We talk about places holding memories,’ she said to her mother. ‘Well, maybe they do.’
Imaginational overexcitability

This can be displayed through a great facility for invention and fantasy such as the creation of imaginary companions, an ability for vivid visual recall and detailed visualisation, and a deep love for poetry and drama.

- Linda Silverman (1993) notes that many gifted students with imaginational OE explain events or ideas in such great detail that adults beg them to get to the point.

- They often have a need to describe the subtle nuances of a situation or interaction, rather than simply the factual details. Sonya described the feelings of the old lady to her grandmother in precise detail. ‘She knows she’s alienating people,’ she said, ‘but the more she is aware of that the more distressed she becomes and her speech becomes more and more abrupt because she is afraid that she’ll start crying.’

- They often visualise situations very vividly. Their dreams, including daydreams, may be unusually elaborate.

- They may demonstrate a capacity to mix truth with fantasy for effect.

- They may prefer to act out stories rather than simply telling them.

Sensual overexcitability

This may be displayed in a heightened awareness of the senses; a deep aesthetic appreciation of beautiful objects, phrases of music or words.

- Students with sensual OE may have an unusual sensitivity to particular pieces of music or poetry and play or read these aloud repetitively to the point that family members protest.

- They may enjoy the feel of particular materials. However, this can also be manifested in an oversensitivity to certain clothing materials. Researchers report sensually overexcitable students cutting interior labels off clothes because their physical reaction is so strong.

- They may develop a liking for a particular object which they carry around and play with. This is not to be confused with a ‘security blanket’. It is more of an enjoyment of the feel or texture of the object. Angie enjoyed holding and caressing a small purse of soft leather. She would not keep any coins in the purse as she found these changed the way the purse felt.

- Some students develop a strong dislike of the texture of particular foods and the feel of these foods in their mouths, even when they quite enjoy the taste.

Psychomotor overexcitability

This can be manifested in physical restlessness arising from surplus energy.

- The student’s surplus energy may show itself in compulsive talking and chattering.

- They may develop nervous habits such as tics, drumming fingers or nailbiting.
• They **may show a love of fast games and sports**. Some students become physically impulsive. They may seem to need to be constantly on the move.

• The student **may seem almost unable to stay in his seat**. He may be in a state of almost continual movement, wriggling, pushing the chair back, swinging legs, etc.

• They **may have unusually rapid speech and exaggerated vocal expression**.

• **Some gifted students can seem to be workaholics or compulsive organisers**. Linda Silverman (1993) points out that the gifted student who combines psychomotor with intellectual excitability can develop into quite a high-powered individual.

Unfortunately teachers often confuse this physical restlessness and distractability with the behaviours associated with Attention Deficit Disorder (ADD) or Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). Teachers should monitor the student’s distractable behaviours. If the behaviours seem to have a pattern related to the work that is being presented – eg, if they appear mainly when the student is bored, or frustrated by a slow pace of instruction, or required to do work that he has already mastered - they probably indicate psychomotor overexcitabilities rather than an attention deficit disorder. Ironically the twitching, fiddling and shifting around may indicate an over-responsiveness to **lack** of intellectual stimulus!

The intensity of the gifted student’s response to intellectual, emotional, aesthetic and even physical stimuli can sometimes be confused with immaturity. It is important to understand that while some of the behaviours associated with intellectual, emotional and imaginative overexcitabilities may at first glance appear immature, they actually arise from the student’s intellectual and emotional maturity.

Psychologist Michael Piechowski (1986) suggests we should view the five overexcitabilities as channels of information flow, and ways in which students experience the world. When any of these channels is stronger than those of a student’s peers, the student may feel embarrassed, uncomfortable or even guilty for being different from her classmates.

As Manaster and Powell (1983) described it, gifted students can be out of stage (dealing with concepts and goals far beyond the reach of their age-peers), out of phase (alienated from age-mates if they find themselves without an intellectual peer group with whom they can relate) and out of sync (realising painfully that they are different, and fearing that they will never find a group with whom they can merge without being dismissed as strange or weird). However, the very nature of overexcitabilities can make it difficult for the student to conceal them.

These unusual levels of sensitivity do not disappear with age; gifted adults tend to retain their emotionality, and often they are perceived as being ‘too emotional’. This passage, written by a gifted 16-year-old, displays his awareness of being ‘out of sync’ with other people his age:

‘We are not “normal” and we know it. It can be fun sometimes but not funny always. We tend to be much more sensitive than other people. Multiple meanings, innuendos, and self-consciousness plague us. Intensive self-analysis, self-criticism, and the inability to recognise that we have limits make us despondent. In fact, most times, our self-searching leaves us more discombobbled than we were at the outset.’ (American Association for Gifted Children, 1978. p. 9.)
Experiencing ‘flow’

Remember the little boy with ‘a rage to learn’? Some gifted students truly have a passion for learning. As a child, Don Bradman spent hours each day, week after week, honing his batting skills, practising and improving, even though he was already far beyond the skill level of many adult players. Observers would report that he seemed lost to the outside world, totally absorbed in what he was doing.

Talented young musicians, athletes or dancers may set themselves goals that would seem impossible to the majority of their age-peers and will achieve these goals through years of dedicated practice. Again, people observing talented artists at practice frequently note their total immersion in what they are doing.

Many of these young people have fallen in love with a field, a discipline or a subject. When a student who deeply loves what she is doing is engaged in an activity where the level of challenge matches her level of ability, the experience can be totally absorbing and totally fulfilling. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) describes the feeling as being ‘in flow’. It can be a transcendental experience of joy and self-actualisation. Moments when everything comes together and the solution to the problem arrives in the student’s mind, or he achieves the perfect rendering of a musical phrase, can be ‘peak’ experiences.

We can let ‘flow’ happen for our gifted students by presenting them with appropriate levels of challenge. Flow comes from optimal engagement with a task. It doesn’t come from doing, yet again, what one has been able to do for weeks - or months - or years.

In Modules 5 and 6 we will look at how to develop curriculum and learning environments which will allow our gifted students to experience flow.
Self Assessment

Do you currently teach a student who shows one of more of the overexcitabilities discussed here? How does the student behave? Are there any particular situations or events that seem to ‘set the student off’? Does the student show any signs of high ability?

OR

Do you have a student in your class who has been diagnosed with ADD or ADHD? After reading the overexcitabilities section above, could there be another explanation for some of his or her behaviours?

ALSO

What do you really love doing that can result, for you, in ‘flow’ or in a peak emotional experience? How can you inculcate this feeling in your students?

(1) Discuss with your colleagues students whom you presently teach, or have taught, who show one of more of the overexcitabilities discussed here. How does the student behave? Are there any particular situations or events that seem to ‘set the student off’? Are the overexcitabilities visible across school subjects or do they appear in some classes but not others? Does the child show any signs of high ability? Are you able to trace, through discussion, how early in the student’s school career these excitabilities became noticeable? Does the student still show them?

(2) Can you think of someone in your class who works hard at something (academic work, sport, music?) not because they have to but because they deeply want to? How can you inculcate this feeling in other students?

Do you have a bright student in your school who has been diagnosed with ADD or ADHD? After reading the overexcitabilities section above, could there be another explanation for some of his or her behaviours?

When was the student diagnosed? How long had the problem been going on? Check with the student’s previous teachers; to what degree did the student show these behaviours in the earlier years?

ALSO

What do you really love doing that can result, for you, in ‘flow’ or in a peak emotional experience? How can your teachers inculcate this feeling in their students?
Questions for Reflection

Once a child or adult has experienced ‘flow’ he or she wants to experience it again. What can you do to ensure that all your students have this motivating experience?
Resources

References
The Pursuit of Excellence or the Search for Intimacy? The Forced-Choice Dilemma of Gifted Youth

Miraca U.M. Gross

Educators often fail to recognize that the intellectually gifted differ from their age peers in their social and emotional development as much as in their intellectual and academic characteristics. A dilemma peculiar to gifted youth arises through the interaction of the psychosocial drives towards intimacy and achievement, which complement each other in students of average ability, but which place the gifted student in a forced-choice situation. If the gifted child chooses to satisfy the drive for excellence he or she must risk forfeiting the attainment of intimacy with age peers; if the choice is intimacy, the gifted may be forced into a pattern of systematic and deliberate underachievement to retain membership in the social group. Homogeneous grouping of gifted students is suggested as a partial solution to this dilemma.

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American education has found more comfort in assuming responsibility for socializing children than for meeting their unique educational needs.

Joyce Van-Tassel Baska,
Chicago, U.S.A., 1985

Australian schools are evolving as multi-purpose social service agencies rather than pedagogical centres.

K. Brian Start,
Melbourne, Australia, 1985


It is ironic that at a time when American and Australian schools are increasingly abrogating their responsibilities towards the intellectual and academic development of their students to adopt, instead, the socializing roles formerly undertaken by the family and religion, the interest of many educators in intellectually gifted children is still stubbornly fixated on these students' intellectual characteristics, at the expense of any serious investigative concern for their social and emotional growth.

The problem is especially acute in Australia. Perhaps because of the dearth of Australian research into the needs and characteristics of the intellectually gifted child, and the unwillingness to interpret and harness overseas research, very little is known about the social and emotional needs of gifted children in Australia. Furthermore, investigation into the socio-emotional development of the highly able is hampered by the prevailing assumption that gifted students differ from their age peers on intellectual factors alone.

So readily accepted is this assumption that it has become enshrined in the policies of Australian State government education systems. The State Government of South Australia, in its 1983 Policy regarding fostering gifts and talents among children lists "the educational needs of all students which should also be acknowledged in programs intended to foster gifts and talents." Throughout this list of "educational needs," the emphasis is on the student not as an individual, but as a member of the educational community. The policy highlights, for example:

- the need to be in an environment which...recognizes membership in a range of groups including family, cultural groups, (where in some cases group membership is more important than individual performance), age peers, friendship and interest groups, the wider school community and society at large; and to be aware that each group functions according to its own set of values (South Australian Education Department, 1983).

This interpretation of the student's needs rests on two assumptions; first, that the values held by the gifted child will be congruent with the values of the social and cultural group from which he originates; and second, that where his cultural group values social cohesion above individual advancement (as in some Australian aboriginal cultures), the child will be able to balance the contrary dictates of his own intellectual drives and the expectations of his cultural peers. Both assumptions spring from a failure to realize that the intellectually gifted differ from their age peers in their emotional and social development as much as in their intellectual and academic characteristics.

Social and Emotional Differences

It is now generally understood and accepted that a child's level of social and emotional development is more highly correlated with his mental age than with his chronological age (Tannenbaum, 1983; Janos and Robinson, 1985). Bohm's (1962) and Kohlberg's (1964) studies of moral development found that intellectually gifted children were able to make complex moral judgments much earlier than their age-peers of average ability, while some highly gifted elementary school children functioning at an externally controlled level of moral development normally found in less than ten percent of adults.

The gifted student's enhanced capacity for abstract reasoning, coupled with his frequently accelerated capacity to obtain and process information, lead him to become familiar with, and speculate on, ideas not normally encountered until a much later age. Hollingworth (1926) noted that highly gifted children often become deeply concerned with questions of origin and destiny at an age when children of average ability are still absorbed in much more egocentric concerns. Serious difficulties of communication can arise when the child attempts to share his interests with age-peers, or even with adults who may be threatened by his unusual preoccupation with moral or religious complexities.

Malcolm

Malcolm, [IQ 165] is five years old. He often engages in a serious and analytical discussion about where God "stopped existing." "After all," Malcolm contended, "when anything dies it goes back into the earth. When stars go supernova everything they're made of goes back into the universe. So if God died, what He is made of would go back into the universe too." Malcolm wanted to know whether scientists could predict the changes that God's death would cause to life on earth.

The child who can frame a sophisticated and coherent argument such as this clearly has needs and expectations far removed from those of the average five-year-old. He needs companions, preferably of his own age and ability level, with whom he can enjoy not only the pleasure and relaxation of play but also the stimulation of high level intellectual speculation. He needs a warm and supportive home environment where his prodigious intellectual gifts are appreciated and where his urge to increase and develop his knowledge is understood and accepted as much as his childish desire for affection and approval. Especially does he need the support of adult friends and mentors who can advise him that although his level of intellectual and moral development may permit him to speculate about matters such as the future of the universe, he is still a five-year-old child who may need comfort and reassurance when faced with the prospect of radical changes in his environment, even when it is his own philosophical musings which have prompted the vision of change! Especially does he need to be reassured that, although "different" he is accepted both in his peer culture and in society at large.

Much of the emotional trauma experienced by intellectually gifted young people arises from the conflicting psycho-social needs of intimacy and achievement. In the child or adolescent of average ability, these needs are compatible, and, indeed, complementary. For the highly gifted, however, achievement of his or her remarkable potential may lead at best to peer disapproval or, in severe cases, to social ostracism. American high school students actively reject those of their peers who demonstrate high level academic or intellectual prowess without the ameliorating effect of sporting or athletic interests (Tannenbaum, 1982).

If we review the research on these two psychosocial drives, particularly as they are manifested in intellectually gifted students, we can understand more clearly the peculiar social and emotional dilemma of the highly able.

The Need for Achievement and Excellence

School-age children quickly become aware of the importance of achievement. Even for young students, schools stress the importance of success in the acquisition of knowledge, and children learn to measure their achievement against that of their peers. For the intellectually gifted student, the shift away from a self-referenced understanding of ability towards a norm-referenced analysis of one's ability as performance measured against the attainment standards of one's peers, happens even earlier than for his age-mate of average ability. There is ample evidence that much of the socialization of achievement related motives takes place early in childhood (Steinberg).

Is the drive towards excellence innate in the intellectually gifted child or is it developmentally determined? Whether we believe, with Renzulli (Renzulli, 1978) that the motivation to excel is an integral component of giftedness, or, with Gagne (Gagne, 1985) that it acts, at a later stage, as a catalyst in the emergence of talent, we must ask ourselves when and how the drive itself develops.

Francis Galton believed that the motivation to achieve is inborn. He wrote of the “inherent stimulus” and “labour-loving instinct” which are among “those qualities of intellect and disposition which urge and qualify a man to perform acts which lead to reputation” (Galton, 1869). All these qualities were seen, by Galton, as “natural ability.”

Others maintain, however, that the motivation to excel is primarily the result of enriched home environment and training. Bloom’s study of over 120 adults who achieved excellence in cognitive, artistic, and athletic fields, identified three characteristics as critical to success: (a) an unusual willingness to undertake a remarkably high workload in order to achieve at a high level; (b) a determination to reach the highest standard of which one is capable; and (c) the ability to learn new techniques, ideas or processes in the talent field more rapidly than the average (Bloom, 1982).

It is notable that the first two characteristics are motivational. Significantly, Bloom claims that all three traits were considerably influenced by early socializing and training; indeed he states that the willingness to work was not strongly evident in his subjects until after the age of eight. It appeared to “manifest itself” after several years of instruction.

One might speculate whether, if the urge to achieve is positively influenced by socialization, it might equally be quashed by social pressures to reduce one’s drive or productivity. If so, the gifted student who is subjected to intense and continual pressure to moderate his performance might eventually lose his motivation to succeed.

In his studies of young prodigies in natural science, musical composition, prose writing and chess, David Henry Feldman proposes that the attainment of excellence is the result of a confluence of a number of hereditary and environmental factors including the significant influence of personality (Feldman, 1981). He highlights the remarkably high levels of motivation displayed by the children in his study.

“Perhaps the most striking quality of the children in our study as well as other cases is the passion with which excellence is pursued” (Feldman, 1979). He claims, further, that the unusual “commitment, tenacity and joy in achievement” displayed by these children is the most visible sign that the required coincidence of social, environmental and personality factors has occurred.

Silverman (1983) also discusses the role of personality in the establishment of the drive towards achievement and proposes Dabrowski’s “third factor” of personality development as a further explanation of how the urge towards excellence is developmental in nature rather than being an innate characteristic in the Galtonian sense.

Dabrowski (1967) posits that in the drive to self-actualization and self-perception the variables of heredity and environment are joined by a third “autonomous” factor which is directly concerned with the pursuit of excellence. This “third factor” is a “powerful internal force propelling development towards higher levels of integrity, authenticity, creativity, ethical responsibility and compassion” (Silverman, 1983). It is an emotional commitment to strive to realize one’s intellectual and emotional potential to the fullest.

Dabrowski has developed his theory through a study of gifted or creative persons who have achieved eminence. However, unlike Galton, he sees the motivational drive not as innate, but as a developmental characteristic which evolves as the gifted individual progresses towards higher levels of human functioning. In Dabrowski’s view, the pursuit of excellence is an off-shoot springing from the initial drive towards self-perfection.

It is important to note that, like Galton and like Renzulli who was influenced by MacKinnon’s study of prominent architects (MacKinnon, 1964), Dabrowski developed his theory through a study of individuals who had already attained excellence. The subjects of Bloom and Feldman were also adults or children who had substantially achieved their potential and whose gifts had received recognition. We must ask ourselves, however, how far the theories of these researchers further apply to gifted youth whose potential is not achieved. What of those who “fall by the wayside?” Setting aside external considerations such as lack of scholastic or other environmental opportunity, can their lack of success be attributed simply to the nondevelopment of the drive for excellence? Or should we look further towards additional personal factors which may either inhibit or enhance the development of that drive?

Foster (1983) proposes that a necessary condition for the development of the drive to excel is a secure self-concept. In an individual whose self-concept is secure, the locus of evaluation of individual action is internal to the self. More importantly, in the context of this argument, “the standards of excellence in individual action are internal to the person in the form of their self-esteem and although the person is actively and accurately aware of the standards of performance held by the outside world, he is most responsive to these internally held reference values” (Foster, 1983).

Such an individual, whose self-concept is secure, both stimulating and reinforcing his drive towards excellence, is less likely to be influenced by societal pressures to achieve only to group norms, or to conform to culturally determined standards of performance. Self-concept or self-esteem can then be viewed as facilitative factors in the realization of intellectual ability or potential (Feldhusen, 1986; Feldhusen & Hoover, 1986).

Self-concept, however, is in part derived from the view of himself which the child acquires through his interactions with the world around him, and particularly through his relationships with a limited number of significant others. For the child, particularly the gifted child who has been taught that academic attainment is to be especially valued, these may be his teachers and classmates as much as his family and friends.

The development of intimacy, a relationship of mutual support, concern and valuing, is, according to Foster, a necessary correlate of the development of a secure self-concept.

The Need for Intimacy

In the last decade, educators and psychologists have become increasingly aware of the influence of supportive intimate relationships on the attainment of human potential. Sears (1977), reviewing the life experience of the men in Terman’s sample, notes that these men’s perceptions regarding whether their lives had been satisfying or not were strongly related to the quality of intimate relationships they had enjoyed.

One of the measures of the supportiveness and intimacy of a relationship is the degree to which the significant

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others in an individual's life provide him with accurate, honest and detailed feedback about his standard of performance both in the general arena and in his chosen domain of work. Open and honest feedback is necessary for the individual to understand his effect on others and on his chosen field; only then can he make an informed and objective evaluation of his contribution.

The gifted child's search for intimacy is well documented. Silverman (1963) documents several instances where intellectually gifted children have demonstrated concern and compassion for another child's physical or emotional distress at an age when the average child is almost totally egocentric in his view of the world and of relationships. The first words of Thomas Carlyle, spoken at the age of 11 months in response to the tears of a young companion, are said to have been, "What a big shop?" (Cox, 1926). Indeed, the gifted child's need and capacity to form friendships is greater, and appears at an earlier age, than that of his age peers.

One is more likely to achieve intimate and supportive relationships with peers, than with persons with whom one has little in common. In human society, we seek the companionship of people with like values and interests. In childhood relationships, this translates into a seeking after people at the same developmental stage as oneself.

It has often been noted that intellectually gifted children tend to seek out, for companionship, older children or children of their own age who are at similar stages of intellectual development (Davis, 1924; Hollingworth, 1931; O'Shea, 1960). O'Shea (1960) noted that in several studies conducted over a number of years no variable correlated more highly with friendship choices in children than mental age, and that this stood considerably above any other factor. The search for like minds and like companionship appears to begin in very early childhood. Hubbard observed a heterogeneous group of three year olds at nursery school, measuring the children both in terms of the number of times the children chose each other as spontaneous play companions and in terms of the length of time they spent together as a group. When she calculated the correlation between mental age and spontaneous group participation, Hubbard found that children who played together most often showed a correlation of .41 with mental age, while for those who played together longest the correlation was a remarkable .62 (Hubbard, 1929).

The importance of play as an aid to socialization is widely documented. A major difficulty for highly gifted children, however, is that their play interests often differ quite radically from those of their age-peers. Terman made a special study of the play of those children in the gifted group who scored above 170 IQ and found that they were much more solitary in their play than were children clustering around IQ 140 (Barks, Jensen and Terman, 1930). Gifted girls are much less interested in doll-play than are their peers of average intelligence. On being asked by Leta Hollingworth why she did not care to play with dolls, a seven year old girl [IQ 170] replied, "They aren't real. The doll that is supposed to be a baby doll is twice as big as the one that is made like a mother doll." (Hollingworth, 1931). This rejection of doll-play can be a very real hindrance to socialization, as for young girls role-play with dolls plays a major part in establishing and setting the parameters of relationships. For the gifted child, however, the search for logic and structure may supersede the desire for social intercourse.

Generally the play interests of the gifted center on games of intellectual skill, while those of the average child involve predominantly simple sensory-motor activity. Hollingworth (1931) reports the mother of a highly gifted six year old saying, "He can never be satisfied just to toss a ball around." The gifted child prefers "competitive" play, where ideas and strategies are matched against each other (Terman, 1926; Witt and Lehman, 1927; Hollingworth, 1931), whereas the average child prefers games where such rules as exist are clearly defined and closely adhered to. This can cause conflict when the highly able child, who may see the game as a way or irrelavance of the rules, seeks to overturn them, either to improve the game or simply for the intellectual stimulation of the ensuing argument!

Because of these factors, the play of the highly intelligent tends to be an uneasy compromise between their own interests and abilities and their desire to be accepted into a social group. Children who are less willing or less able to make such a compromise often become "loners," preferring to invent solitary intellectual games which often center on fantasy and imagined adventure. A significant number of intellectually gifted children create imaginary playmates or imaginary countries, in an attempt to satisfy their need for companionship or social interaction at their own level and within their own interests (Terman, 1926; Hollingworth, 1926).

Thus even play, which for the average child is one of the most important aids to socialization, serves to underscore the differences between the gifted child and his age-mates, rather than acting as a link between them.

It is clear that gifted children have the need for the companionship of intellectual peers, and are to some degree at least aware of this need. However, age peers of the intellectually gifted, especially in childhood, are often confused by the gifted child because it is difficult for them to identify with his superior cognitive abilities. The average child often downplays the superiority of the gifted by providing false feedback about the true extent of his gifts and talents. If this false feedback is accepted and internalized by the gifted child, he may develop a self-concept based on underrating himself, his abilities and his value to society. Particularly in a society such as Australia, where the highly egalitarian social ethos is based, in large part, on "cutting down the tall poppies" (Ward, 1958; Goldberg, 1961; Start, 1986) there is a very real danger that the gifted student will receive deliberately misleading information about his abilities and potential not only from classmates but also from teachers.

**Conflict and Underachievement**

I t can be seen that unless the gifted child is provided with a peer group of companions of like intellectual ability, a vicious circle of misinformation and self-criticism may arise. As we have discussed, the attainment of intimacy is a necessary correlate for the sustainment of the drive to self perfection. Through intimate relationships, the gifted child obtains honest and accurate feedback about his performance and his effect on others. Where this open and nonjudgmental feedback is available, the child will develop a secure and healthy self-concept. Where feedback is falsified and invalidated through envy or lack of understanding, or because the teacher prefers to conceal from the gifted child the true extent of his advancement, the gifted receive a negative and unrealistic view of themselves and their potential. This extremely diminished view of potential may result in poor self-esteem and low self-concept. As Foster has shown, a healthy self-concept is necessary for the establishment and maintenance of the drive towards excellence.

Thus the gifted child may come to believe that his gifts are ephemeral or of limited value. Since his strengths are undervalued by his peers, he may come to seek peer approval by seeking to
Empirical studies which have investigated underachievement among gifted youth have uncovered some alarming statistics. An English study by Painter (1976) of 160 children of IQ 123 - 212 found that when the children's classroom performance was compared with their scores on standardized attainment tests of Math and English, over 60% of the students were working, in class, at a level more than four years below their tested achievement. Certainly much classroom underachievement can be attributed to an undemanding school curriculum which requires lock-step progression by chronological age rather than by academic or intellectual aptitude. However, there is no doubt that many gifted students underachieve quite deliberately in an attempt to win social acceptance by their classmates and teachers. This, then, may be the central psychosocial dilemma of gifted youth. If the gifted child is to satisfy his drive for excellence, he must risk sacrificing the attainment of intimacy with his age peers. If the pursuit of intimacy is his primary need, he must moderate his standards of achievement, conceal, to some extent at least, his intellectual interests, and conform to a value system that may be seriously at variance with his own level of moral development, to retain the approval of the group into which he wishes to be accepted. It is this dilemma that is left unaddressed by the generalized and simplistic social assumptions of the South Australian policy on "fostering gifts and talents."

Because of the unusual qualities of perceptiveness and sensitivity which characterize intellectually gifted youth, many children who choose to sacrifice achievement for intimacy are remarkably successful in concealing their abilities. For some years Tom, a student in a South Australian elementary school, employed two quite distinct and separate vocabularies to avoid detection by his peers. His "normal" vocabulary, as he termed it, which he used with his family and close adult friends, was even at six years old, that of an informed and articulate adult. His alternative vocabulary, which he employed quite deliberately as a camouflage structure, was reserved for use at school with his teachers and age-peers; it was designed to conceal, from people whom he did not trust, his shameful secret of having the mentality, interests and speech of a child twice his age. Tom's secret was only discovered when his level of intellectual frustration reached the point at which he began to employ quite severe physical violence against his classmates. The school psychologist who was brought in to test him prior to referring him for psychiatric evaluation, found that he has an IQ in excess of 170.

In a child such as this, the motivation to achieve has turned inwards and has become a motivation to succeed in a complex matrix of social deception.

The quotations which began this paper express the concerns of leading educators in the United States and Australia that schools are abrogating their responsibilities towards the intellectual and academic welfare of their students in favor of an increasingly dominant role in the socialization of children. Yet the lack of awareness and interest, even among educators of the gifted, in the social and emotional needs of this already disadvantaged group of children, suggests that the gifted are still seen as students who will achieve academic and social success on the strength of their intellectual gifts alone.

To the contrary, the gifted must be one of the few remaining groups in our society who are compelled, by the constraints of the educational and social system within which they operate, to choose which of two basic psychosocial needs should be fulfilled. Often neither need is satisfied. Research reports over the last thirty years on the number of intellectually gifted students who drop out of high school (Van Dyke and Hoyt, 1958; French, 1959; Marland, 1972) should have alerted us to the fact that a significant proportion of our most gifted youth are experiencing neither the euphoria of achievement nor the supportive warmth of intimacy in the present school climate. Is it any wonder that they leave, to seek it elsewhere?

In both the United States and Australia enlightened school systems are beginning to experiment with various student groupings to assist the gifted to establish peer relationships with other children who share their abilities and interests. In the United States, special schools for the gifted such as the Hunter Elementary School and the Juilliard School of Music in New York have long provided opportunities for highly gifted students to work and socialize together with other children of exceptional potential. In Australia structured opportunities for peer interaction are much more limited, but a number of fine programs such as the acceleration program at University High School, Melbourne, and the full time self-contained gifted classes in Northern Territory do exist and flourish, despite active opposition from politicians and the militant teachers' industrial unions. To answer and diffuse hostility and opposition, we need much more empirical research on the effects of peer grouping on the social and emotional development of the gifted in homogeneous grouped and ungrouped settings. But first, educators and psychologists working in gifted education have to be convinced of the desirability of such research.

In a comprehensive review of research on the psychosocial development of the intellectually gifted, James and Robinson (1985) indicate that research findings regarding favorable personal and social adjustment emanate from studies of moderately rather than extremely gifted children. James and Robinson claim that although the special problems of the extremely gifted demand urgent investigation, "the research devoted to exploring these pales in comparison with that devoted to virtually any other maladaptive set of behaviors."

Let us close with the words of James, aged 12, on completing the probationary period which the South Australian Association for Gifted and Talented Children (SAAGTC) requires students to undertake before final acceptance into its student programs. James, who is highly gifted but a chronic underachiever at school, had attended a series of Math and Science classes pitched at the 15 - 16 year old level, and had performed exceptionally. One of the SAAGTC Committee asked him whether he would like to continue attending the classes.

James was visibly moved. "Saturday Club is the best thing that's ever happened to me," he said. "The kids are so friendly. Nobody here thinks I'm dumb and weird."

Then he added, "You know, when I'm here I don't think I'm dumb and weird either."

REFERENCES


South Australia: Education Department.


